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Report

tabled by the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of
Women in Europe

on the situation of women in Europe

C - REPORTS OF INQUIRY

Mrs CINCIARI RODANO, chairman of the committee of inquiry
and coordinating rapporteur

Mrs GAIOTTI DE BIASE	rapporteurs
Mrs VAN DEN HEUVEL	
Mrs PANTAZI-TZIFA	
Mrs WIECZOREK-ZEUL	
Mrs VON ALEMANN	
Mrs SPAAK	
Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN	
Mr EISMA	
Mrs SQUARCIALUPI	
Mrs MARTIN	
Mrs LENZ	
Mrs LIZIN	
Miss HOOPER	
Mrs LE ROUX	
Dame Shelagh ROBERTS	
Miss DE VALERA	
Mr ESTGEN	
Mrs MACCIOCCHI	

PE 86.199/fin./C

REPORTS OF INQUIRY

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Rapporteur: Mrs VAN DEN HEUVEL
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17. Education of girls in the European Community
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COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN
IN EUROPE

TOPIC No. 1

of the

REPORT OF INQUIRY

on the

Application of the first two directives
(directives on equal pay and equal treatment)
and proposals designed to supplement them

Rapporteur: Mrs P. GAIOTTI DE BIASE

16 November 1983

PE 86.199/fin./C

At its constituent meeting of 15 October 1981, the Committee of Inquiry into the situation of women in Europe drew up a list of 18 themes of inquiry including the application of the first two directives (directives on equal pay and equal treatment) and the proposals designed to supplement them, on which Mrs P. GAIOTTI de BIASE was appointed rapporteur.

The Committee of Inquiry considered the draft report at its meeting of 17 and 18 October 1983.

This report was adopted unanimously at the meeting of 3 and 4 November 1983.

The following were present at the vote:

Mrs CINCIARI RODANO, chairman; Mrs VAYSSADE, Mrs von ALEMANN, vice-chairmen; Mrs van den HEUVEL, Miss HOOPER, Mrs LIZIN, Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN, members; Mrs PANTAZI, deputizing for Mrs Wieczorek-Zeul; Mrs PHLIX, deputizing for Mrs Gaiotti de Biase; Mrs SPAAK, member.

Paragraphs to be included in the final resolution

The European Parliament,

- Notes in connection with the policies for the application of Article 119 of the Treaty and Directives 75/117 EEC on equality of treatment and 76/207/EEC on equality of opportunity that:
 - Community legislation has provided consistent support for and an effective stimulus to equal opportunity policies, by harmonizing and improving the situation of women at the highest levels, and that at this time of economic and structural crisis it plays a vital role in protecting women from the effects of the policies pursued by Member States;
 - the European Community has thus become one of the most advanced supranational legal areas in the world and one where women's negotiating strength is legally guaranteed;
 - it has nevertheless become clear once again that legal instruments are inadequate to reverse established practices and women still complain that they are at a disadvantage in respect of recruitment, evaluation of their abilities, career advancement and dismissals;
 - Community legislation interacts with the unfavourable effects of the crisis and the technological revolution on female employment; it is therefore difficult to assess its impact in offsetting the unfavourable effects of the crisis, since there has been a greater increase in the Community countries both in female employment and unemployment than in unemployment as a whole;
 - in any case, the capacity to encourage changes in the production process which take account of the presence of women has so far proved lacking;
- notes, in connection with the first directive, that:
 - available statistics on average male and female earnings seem to show an improvement in some countries coinciding with the date of the entry into force of the first directive but that equal pay has not been achieved in any of these countries.

- the directive has failed to reduce the concentration of women in the lowest paid sectors;
- the situation of those women employed in exclusively female sectors or in totally female compartments within mixed sectors has not improved to any appreciable extent;
- notes with satisfaction that eight of the Member States have correctly incorporated Article 1 of the Directive 75/117 into their national laws;
- notes that Community case law has confirmed and consolidated the principles contained in Directive 75/117 EEC as a result of the vigilance on the part of the Commission of the Communities;
- welcomes the corrections made to the national laws of France, the FRG, the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg at the instigation of the Commission;
- welcomes the proceedings brought by the Commission against Denmark whose laws do not comply with the terms of Directive 75/117 EEC;
- affirms that the legal nature of a directive is such as to make obligatory its incorporation in national legislation and believes that there should be no further delay in adopting and bringing into force laws capable of ensuring the full recognition of the right to equal pay for work of equal value, in those countries where national legislation has not yet given full application to Article 1 of the directive;
- shares the Commission's belief in the need to carry out job evaluation studies in order to define the concept of 'equal value' on the basis of criteria which are as objective as possible and which can be used in collective agreements and welcomes the attempts being made by the Commission to review the traditional concept of job evaluation, which attaches a higher value to heavy, manual work and other work generally done by men than work involving dexterity, skill, care, precision, a high degree of nervous tension and intense fatigue caused by repetitive operations, which, until now, have more generally been carried out by women;

- asks the Commission to submit proposals to improve the directive on equal pay by establishing objective criteria for the classification of jobs and the assessment of 'equal value';
- asks the Commission to submit proposals to improve the directives on equal pay and equal treatment by reversing the rules on the burden of proof;
- notes, in connection with the second directive, that:
 - despite all the infringement proceedings brought by the Commission no Member State has yet fully and correctly incorporated all the aspects of Directive 76/207/EEC into its legislation, even though the nature of these infringements varies widely from state to state;
 - welcomes the proceedings brought or being brought by the Commission in respect of equality of access to training and vocational guidance, or activities excluded on the basis of Article 2.2, or access to public employment or leave for education etc. against Germany, Belgium, Denmark, France, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom;
 - as a result of intervention by the Commission, Belgium, Ireland, France and Luxembourg have amended certain areas of their legislation;
- calls on the Commission to draw up proposals for a definition of the concept of indirect discrimination cited in Article 2.1 of Directive 76/207/EEC and Article 4 of Directive 79/7/EEC;

- hopes that the Member States of the European Community will establish agencies or committees with genuine competence in the matter of equal treatment under instructions to make further proposals to improve the legal and de facto recognition of the principle of equal pay, particularly in respect of indirect discrimination, against which the Commission has not yet been able to institute proceedings;
- calls for the immediate establishment of the network of contacts and exchanges referred to in paragraph 4 of the new action programme and for a comparative study of national case law in the various Community countries to be initiated;
- stresses the absolute need for bodies, services or committees on equality of opportunity and having genuine authority to function effectively in all the Member States in order to monitor adequately current trends, to present new proposals and in particular to make available the necessary elements for the application of the request contained in Resolution 11.2.1981 paragraph 2(2) indent 2 for a measure requiring the Member States to report to the Commission every two years on the extent to which the directives have achieved the objectives laid down;
- to carry out the assessments provided for under Article 3.2(c), 5.2(c) and the periodic assessments under Article 9.2 of Directive 76/207 EEC, 'where it may be justified in view of the social circumstances to maintain the exemptions' mentioned in paragraph 2.2 of the same directive;
- welcomes the setting up of a consultative committee within the Commission and calls on this committee to present a report to Parliament every two years on the basis of its own work on the state of implementation of the directives on equality and the continuing areas of discrimination;
- considers the three factors, guidance, training and placement services to be the keystone of any action designed to render Community legislation on equal opportunities for women fully operative in all its aspects;

- requests, therefore, that the problem of national services or regional employment agencies be tackled at Community level, thereby ensuring, through the application of the principles enunciated in the directive on equal treatment and the introduction of suitable instruments such as the Danish equal opportunities advisory service, that the activities of these bodies are directed towards manpower management;
- welcomes all the analyses and proposals put forward on behalf of the Commission in the study on protective legislation for occupational activities exempt from the application of the directives on equality of treatment (V/707/82) and calls on the Commission to incorporate the conclusions of this study where possible into proposals for amendments to the second directive;
- calls for the rapid application of the positive measures contained in the new action programme, bearing in mind that Article 2.4 of the directive has not been adequately applied and calls on the Commission to speed up the process of change starting with key sectors (such as public administration) or significant sectors (such as the banks, on which the Commission is already in possession of detailed studies) with a view to setting up special equal treatment programmes so as to guarantee development in favour of women in practice;
- calls on the Commission, on the basis of the studies already carried out, to prepare a directive requiring extension to all the states of the positive pilot projects undertaken;
- considers it extremely serious that women are still substantially under-represented on trade union delegations and among trade union officials and calls on trade unions and confederations to take greater account of the problem of equal rights for women in professional life and to consider the possibility of introducing quota systems to encourage the setting up of specific measures, commissions, coordination activities and delegations on equal opportunities and to study the problems of female workers and to ensure adequate representation of women at all levels.

1. IMPLEMENTATION OF THE DIRECTIVE ON EQUAL PAY

SUMMARY

Directive 75/117/EEC on the approximation of the laws of the Member States relating to the application of the principle of equal pay for men and women was adopted by the Council of Ministers, on a proposal from the Commission, on 10 February 1975. Under the directive, the principle of equal pay means, for the same work or for work to which equal value is attributed, the elimination of all discrimination on grounds of sex with regard to all aspects and conditions of remuneration. In particular, where a job classification system is used for determining pay, it must be based on the same criteria for both men and women and so drawn up as to exclude any discrimination on grounds of sex.

To comply with the directive, the Member States would have needed to abolish, by 12 February 1976, all discrimination arising from laws, regulations or administrative provisions, guaranteeing the right of judicial remedy to all employees who consider themselves wronged and protecting them from dismissal.

In January 1979, the Commission drew up a report on the application of the directive, document COM(78) 711 final. While taking note of the undoubted progress made as regards the adaptation of national laws, the Commission was forced to concede that as many as seven of the nine Member States had not fully applied the directive and initiated infringement proceedings against Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg, the Federal Republic of Germany, France, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom.

Since 1979, precisely because of the infringement proceedings initiated by the Commission, the legal situation in the various Member States appears to have been modified, thus ensuring a more effective implementation of the principle of equal pay: four of the actions brought by the Commission (against Belgium, France, the Federal Republic of Germany and the Netherlands) were withdrawn, because the Member States in question subsequently adopted the necessary legislation.

However, the infringement proceedings in two other cases, against Luxembourg and the United Kingdom, have been closed, the Court of Justice having upheld the action on each occasion. As far as the United Kingdom is concerned, we have learned that a regulation designed by the government to remove the contested infringement is in the process of adoption.

According to the Commission, the concept of equal value has been transposed faithfully into national legislation, aside from that of Denmark and the United Kingdom. In the case of Denmark, the infringement proceedings are still pending and we know of no Danish initiative at present to amend the relevant legislation. On the other hand, a draft regulation is, as already indicated, about to be introduced in the United Kingdom and this will enshrine in English law the right of equal pay for work of equal value.

Numerous reservations against the draft law have been made by various organizations; among the most fundamental are those relating to the transfer of the burden of proof, which in the procedure for establishing 'equal work' is placed on the employee, or to the lack of rules providing for legal remedies in cases where collective agreements, salary scales or individual employment contracts have discriminatory effect.

But even apart from the cases of unfulfilled obligations confirmed by the Court of Justice, it emerges from the replies we received that national laws afford only partial guarantees to women's rights, either because they interpret the concept of pay in an over-restrictive sense (as in the case of Luxembourg, where the situation of women should improve once the directive is applied in the field of social security) or because they prevent comparisons from being made on a regional or national basis (as in the case of Ireland).

The undervaluation of typically feminine qualities by job classification systems continues to pose a problem in all the Member States, as do the methods of ensuring that non-discriminatory classification systems are actually adopted. Because they reward factors such as age and seniority, many systems prove indirectly discriminatory against women. The Commission has, however, undertaken to conduct a study into the relationship between job classifications and pay.

There is as yet no extensive body of case law on the subject of equal pay, and it is therefore difficult, especially in some countries (one example is the Netherlands, where only two appeals on equal pay have been lodged), to determine with any degree of accuracy whether the courts have helped in practice to encourage a narrow or broad interpretation of the principle enshrined in Directive 75/117 and various national laws.

Moreover, we received very little information on this point, and almost nothing at all from some countries. The pronouncements of the Court of Justice of the European Communities have certainly had a beneficial effect, but we would

need much more information before we could form an opinion on the effects of national case law. Nevertheless, the question remains as to why so few actions have been brought; is it because the law is, generally speaking, properly enforced or is it, on the contrary, because the legal remedies available are largely ineffective and women have no confidence in them? Some progress has been made towards improving legal guarantees. Commissions on equal opportunities, or at least those which have been given sufficient powers and constituted to ensure genuine representation of women's interests, invariably press for further improvements to legislation and institutional guarantees. This serves to underline once again how important it is to set up bodies of this type as soon as possible in countries where they do not yet exist.

Effective commissions on equal opportunities are essential for the establishment of a network of contacts and exchanges between the Member States, which, as part of the action programme, 'should provide a unique source of expertise to assist in the detailed monitoring of Community directives, in particular with respect to comparative case law on sensitive issues such as the concept of 'indirect discrimination' (introduction to the new action programme, points 14 and 15).

It is no easy task to assess the changes which have occurred in the wage structures of European women as a result of Directive 75/117 and the implementing legislation. It is obvious that laws on equal pay are not in themselves sufficient to overcome the discrepancies between rates of pay for men and women; it is the directive on equal treatment which is most likely to have a real impact on the situation of women, but only in the longer term. The effects of the two directives (and the implementing legislation) are reflected in various statistics, but the reflection is a distorted one, because, at the very time when it was expecting to reap the benefits of the new legislation on equality, Europe was struck by the economic crisis. Given the gravity of the present crisis, and the marked increase in overall unemployment, it would seem that one can only express a positive judgment on the effects of the new legislation: total employment among women has risen and their wage levels have in general improved.

However, the two directives have done nothing to correct the concentration of women into the lowest-paid sectors, or the shift of female labour towards exclusively female sectors or the lower echelons of mixed sectors.

Under these circumstances, the effectiveness of the equal pay laws is blunted by the impossibility of drawing comparisons and the probable under-

valuation of exclusively female or female-dominated occupations. In addition, although no precise information is available, given the nature of such phenomena, it is likely that in this period of economic crisis women are still employed to some extent in sectors which fall outside the area monitored by equal pay laws, notably in the 'black economy' or as homeworkers.

In 1980, an opinion poll was carried out by 10 specialized institutes on behalf of the ad hoc committee, to investigate how discrimination was perceived by working women. It emerged that women felt themselves most heavily disadvantaged in the matter of earnings: this does not mean, as the researchers rightly pointed out, that discrimination against women is actually greatest in this area; the wage gap between men and women has for some time been denounced by the press; women may also become aware of the wage gap in the family environment and finally, in a period of economic crisis 'earnings' is always more likely to be put forward as a reason for discontent, whatever the context.

The poll showed that, among women who were in direct competition with men, discrimination as regards promotion was held to be an even more serious disadvantage than the wage gap.

On the other hand, the limited promotion prospects for women have a direct bearing on wage levels.

To sum up, one can conclude by acknowledging the positive role played by Directive 75/117. It should, however, be borne in mind that, if women's earnings are to continue to rise despite the present economic crisis, it is not sufficient to enforce the laws implementing the first directive; it is necessary to develop and extend the applications of the principle of equal treatment, concentrating the major effort on the fields of guidance, training and placement.

Nor should it be forgotten, as the ad hoc committee once pointed out, that the laws designed to eliminate discrimination, while essential, can only be regarded as a stage along the way to achieving genuine equality among men and women in the world of work. To prevent this stage from becoming a stopping place, action is needed on two fronts: to reform production processes, thus allowing women to be integrated more fully into the labour market, and encourage lasting and profound changes in the prevailing attitudes, primarily through positive action.

2. IMPLEMENTATION AND APPLICATION OF THE DIRECTIVE ON EQUAL TREATMENT:

A SUMMARY

Directive 76/207 on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training and promotion and working conditions was adopted on 9 February 1976. There is a relatively recent Commission report, document COM(80) 832, which deals with the progress made in the implementation of the directive; that report remains the basic source of reference for anyone wishing to know in what manner and to what extent the principles contained in the directive have been transposed into the legislation of the Member States. This working document cannot claim to be an updated version of the Commission report, for the reasons already indicated viz the very small number of countries which replied to the questionnaire and the fact that we were limited to a single source of information in each case.

This working document will confine itself to expressing a general view.

The significance of the initiatives undertaken by the Commission lies in the fact that they have made possible, or should do, a clearer interpretation of the provisions contained in Directive 76/207/EEC and have helped identify which additional measures would be needed for a fully workable and effective policy on equality of the sexes. Of fundamental importance in these initiatives is the adoption of the new action programme which, in the opinion of the countries which replied to us, has a vital role to play in supplementing the laws on equality and enabling policies in support of women to take an important step forward: enabling them, in other words, to move beyond a purely nominal recognition that men and women are equal in law to the task of overcoming those factors which, conditioned as they were by the division of responsibilities between men and women established in the first and second industrial revolutions, now stand in the way of true equality.

The picture which emerges from the replies of the countries discussed in this report is inevitably limited and incomplete, and therefore does not allow us to draw any final conclusions on the manner in which the Community countries as a whole have applied and developed the policy on equal treatment. What it does do, however, is highlight a whole series of positive experiences, which could be applied to good effect in other countries, together with some of the shortcomings most frequently encountered in each of the areas covered by the directive. It thus becomes possible to put forward suggestions as to the

measures most urgently required, while bearing in mind that new elements will doubtless emerge from subsequent and more comprehensive research and from the results of the studies conducted by the Commission.

Among the positive experiences, pride of place must unquestionably go to the notable quantitative and qualitative results achieved by commissions on equal opportunities, in cases where the law which instituted them also endowed them with sufficient resources and powers. The British experience is significant because of the wide powers assigned to the Equal Opportunities Commission, whose brief extends to all the areas covered by the directive: from monitoring the application of the law to offering legal guidance and assistance to those seeking redress in the courts, from advising the government on how to improve the rules on equality to commissioning and conducting scientific research into the situation of women on the labour market.

The Irish experience is equally significant: the Employment Equality Agency has been the prime mover of a whole series of initiatives, including such notable innovations as the Workshop (an experimental training centre) set up in 1980 to increase awareness within the vocational training sector of the problems surrounding equal treatment and devise new, scientifically-based action programmes.

One of the most important aspects of the Danish experience is the employment of equality consultants in placement offices, particularly since the principle of collaboration between vocational training and guidance experts on the one hand and placement experts on the other is already established in law.

The British and Irish replies also emphasized the important role which the various commissions on equal opportunities have played in strengthening the legal guarantees designed to protect women: such commissions have, largely speaking, gained the confidence of the parties concerned. This lends further support to the argument that the highest priority must be given to establishing truly representative and effective commissions on equal opportunities in countries where such bodies do not yet exist. Italy is in this position: it has a committee on the implementation of the principles of equality, which is extremely weak in terms of membership and powers. The draft law instituting a new commission on equal opportunities fell when the two houses of parliament were dissolved.

Given that women make very little use of the right to appeal, thought should be given not only to improving this guarantee but also to strengthening all the other forms of guarantee.

In the countries considered so far, women appear to be under-represented at senior levels of the trade union movement. This seems all the more serious when one considers that, of all the agencies in a position to promote equality, unions are the most widely known to women and have the most positive image (this has emerged from an opinion poll, referred to above, on how discrimination is perceived by working women). The information collected to date demonstrates and underlines the advisability of introducing a quota system into the unions.

When it came to assessing the impact of the laws on equality, the various countries were in agreement on one point: the inevitable shortcomings inherent in a legislative instrument which sets out to eliminate discrimination by introducing purely nominal equality between the sexes; on the other hand, it emerged that the laws already in force formed the indispensable basis for any far-reaching programme of positive action.

In no country have the laws on equality made a significant contribution towards correcting the vertical and horizontal segregation of work and the concentration of women in lower-paid sectors, but they have helped to cushion the adverse effects of the current recession on employment. This has led the individual countries to emphasize the need for positive action, designed to bring about profound changes of attitude as regards women's career expectations and modify the organization of production to facilitate the integration of female labour into the labour market. Such suggestions confirm that the way to implement the two directives in the fullest sense, not just to the letter, but in the spirit of their declared objectives, would seem to be marked out most clearly by the new action programme and in particular by the actions in the fields of guidance, training and placement.

3. INITIATIVES UNDERTAKEN BY THE COMMISSION TO ENSURE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE DIRECTIVE ON EQUAL TREATMENT

In the conclusions to its report COM(80) 832 final, the Commission stated its intention to:

- (a) encourage the Member States which have not yet fully applied Directive 76/207 to take the necessary measures;
- (b) call on employers' and workers' organizations to meet at European level in an effort - without prejudice to their autonomy and their responsibilities -

to find ways and means of doing away with discrimination and, above all, jointly to define equal treatment programmes;

- (c) define, at Community level, a line of conduct as regards the vocational activities which may be excluded from the implementing measures and as regards protective legislation which should be abrogated or revised;
- (d) study the measures most likely to solve the problems of women in employment and declared that its 'particular objectives' were the desegregation of the labour market and jobs, the preparation of women for the introduction of new technologies in the working world and the actual sharing of family responsibilities.

Since the 'necessary measures' recommended by the Commission were in many cases not adopted, the Commission was then forced to institute infringement proceedings against Belgium, Denmark, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, the United Kingdom, Ireland, Italy and Luxembourg. Almost all these proceedings have been closed and the only ones still pending are those against Belgium. On 8 November 1983 the Court ruled against the United Kingdom for incorrect implementation and on 26 October 1983 it dismissed the Commission's suit thus recognizing that Italy had implemented the directive correctly.

In May 1980, the Commission organized a conference in Manchester, which was attended by representatives of the national committees for women's employment and equal opportunities. The conclusions of this conference and the work of the Ad Hoc Committee on Women's Rights had a significant influence on the action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women, submitted by the Commission to the Council on 14 December 1981. This programme comprises a series of actions, the first set of which is designed to implement fully the directive on equal treatment by strengthening the rights of the individual, while the second set aims to achieve equal opportunities in practice, particularly by means of positive action programmes to overcome or counteract the non-legal obstacles to equal opportunities.

In the first set of actions, the Commission planned to ensure the proper implementation of the directive and clarify certain concepts which were still unclear: it has in particular undertaken to establish a definition for the concept of indirect discrimination (Article 2(1) of Directive 76/207), based on its analysis of national interpretations, to conduct a study on protective legislation and continue the work on job classification systems; it has also undertaken to conduct a comparative analysis of national procedures with a view to proposing Community action which, by providing a basis for expert advice in this field

and in particular by pointing to examples of good practice, will help Member States to improve their arrangements for legal redress.

In the research connected with the second directive which the Commission, in its report or as part of the action programme, undertook to conduct, the studies on occupational activities excluded from the field of application of the directive and on protective legislation are both approaching completion.

Work has begun on the joint survey into the role of collective agreements in the achievement of equal treatment and on drawing up joint equality programmes, while the study on positive actions should by now have been completed.

The adoption of the new action programme has increased and complicated the Commission's workload, with the result that it has had to initiate fifteen new projects (only those of relevance to the second directive are touched on here), it has had to seek out qualified experts in several countries at once and tackle subjects never previously dealt with. This explains why some of the studies promised by the Commission, particularly those which cannot be conducted outside the new programme, have progressed no further than the initial phase.

Results

The positive action called for in the new programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women must also extend to any assessment of the results, in addition to the sectors which are excluded de facto from the field of application of the directives. Though unanimous in their positive opinion of the results achieved under the equality laws, our four reference sources reported that the concentration of female employees in the lowest-paid sectors was proving resistant to change, while the segregation of women within the labour market remained a problem.

The effects of the policy on equality of the sexes, appreciable in themselves, have been blunted by these phenomena, as well as the economic and employment crisis, which has wider implications involving both men and women.

Among the beneficial effects worthy of note is the reduction in the gap between average wages for men and women. This trend is evidenced by two statistical tables showing the average gross hourly earnings of manual workers in industry (except for electricity, gas, steam and water) and the average gross

hourly earnings of female manual workers expressed as a percentage of the men's earnings. The second table shows that in the period from 1975-1981 the reduction in the gap between men's and women's wages was negligible in Germany, France, the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg and it even widened in Greece. The gap was closed to a significant degree in Ireland, Italy and the United Kingdom, while a slight reduction was observed in Denmark. In the case of Denmark, however, the gap during the period under consideration was smaller than in other Common Market countries. In October 1981, the gap was widest in Luxembourg, where women's wages amounted on average to only 63.35% of men's wages. The corresponding figures for Greece and Ireland are 66.65% and 67.2% respectively. The gap is smallest in Denmark (85.7%) and Italy (84.87%).

The figures given in the tables are averages and obscure the differences existing between both the regions and the various branches of industry.

Table no. 1

Average gross hourly earnings of manual workers in industry
except electricity, gas, steam and water

in national currencies

Year (1)	Germany	France	Italy	Netherlands	Belgium	Luxembourg	UK	Ireland	Denmark	Greece(2)
<u>Female:</u>										
1972	5.60	6.16	666	4.46	65	65	0.47	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
1975	7.61	9.84	1300	7.61	113	103	0.91	0.78	27.52	30.6
1977	8.73	12.80	2116	9.17	137	132	1.16	1.05	33.90	44.5
1978	9.23	14.49	2422	9.73	145	136	1.30	1.25	38.10	55.9
1979	9.69	16.26	2871	10.15	156	138	1.53	1.52	41.60	68.2
1980	10.40	18.78	3440	10.83	170	154	1.79	1.80	45.02	84.7
1981	10.99	21.88	4297	11.31	189	159	1.98	2.11	49.50	106.9
<u>Male:</u>										
1972	8.04	7.83	873	6.90	95	104	0.78	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
1975	10.49	12.54	1631	10.51	158	163	1.34	1.28	32.64	43.8
1977	11.99	16.53	2500	12.48	193	203	1.62	1.69	39.19	65.1
1978	12.64	18.50	2916	13.24	205	214	1.86	1.95	44.23	82.2
1979	13.33	20.77	3413	14.04	222	223	2.16	2.27	48.17	100.3
1980	14.32	23.99	4089	14.78	242	238	2.57	2.62	52.32	125.7
1981	15.10	27.53	5063	15.57	264	251	2.83	3.14	57.72	160.4

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Source: Hourly earnings - Hours of work, 2-1982, EUROSTAT

(1) October of each year

(2) Only manufacturing industry

Table no. 2

JDa/8.4.19

Average gross hourly earnings of female manual workers
in industry except electricity, gas, steam and water

Indices: Male = 100

	Germany	France	Italy	Netherlands	Belgium	Luxembourg	UK	Ireland	Denmark	Greece
1972	69.65	78.67	76.29	64.64	68.42	62.50	60.26	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
1975	- 72.55	- 78.47	- 79.71	- 72.41	- 71.52	- 63.19	- 67.91	- 60.94	84.31	69.86
1977	72.81	77.43	84.64	73.48	70.98	65.02	71.60	62.13	86.50	68.36
1978	73.02	78.32	83.06	73.49	70.73	63.55	69.89	64.10	86.14	68.00
1979	72.69	78.29	84.12	72.29	70.27	61.88	70.83	66.96	86.36	68.00
1980	72.63	78.28	84.13	73.27	70.25	64.71	69.65	68.70	86.05	67.38
1981	72.78	79.48	84.87	72.64	71.59	63.35	69.96	67.20	85.76	66.65

Source: Table no. 1

In some countries, including the United Kingdom, the reduction in the gap, admittedly considerable in overall terms, occurred chiefly in the years immediately following the adoption of the directive; the percentage of reduction then tended to level off (when the gap was not re-opening).

The question arises as to whether the reason for the lack of progress in later years does not lie precisely in the fact that the two laws failed to provide instruments capable of modifying the position of women on the labour market. The information supplied to us by the few countries which replied to the questionnaire confirmed that women are present in large numbers in the lowest-paid occupations.

In the United Kingdom, the number of women employed in senior positions is said to have increased by 7%, a considerable amount, given that the increase in the sixty years from 1911 to 1971 was only 4%. The incidence of job segregation fell sharply between 1973 and 1977, to a far greater extent than in the previous sixty years. However, this trend was reversed in the years after 1977, probably as a result of the recession.

These figures are significant because they illustrate how a whole series of separate phenomena interacted in the 1970's: the evolution in public attitudes which preceded the adoption of the laws probably helped to modify the position of women on the labour market and reduce segregation; the effect of the laws on equality was amplified by these modifications, while the laws helped to consolidate the existing trend. The recession, blocking further progress towards desegregation, also reduced the capacity of the law to increase women's average earnings and modify their position on the labour market. This interpretation, if correct, is yet another indication of the need for positive actions - as a necessary and indispensable complement to the directives on equality.

There is one significant fact which may be used to gauge the effects that the two laws have had: information from the United Kingdom shows that the number of women employed, following an uninterrupted increase from 1950 to 1977, has in recent years been constant. However, the proportion of jobs open to women has not diminished, and the impact of the recession has been no more severe for women than for men: on the contrary, in June 1982 the number of men employed was equivalent to 88% of the 1979 total, while the figures for women in full- and part-time work were 91% and 93% respectively. This is significant because it leads us to infer that the laws on equality have to a considerable extent

softened the impact of the crisis. Nevertheless, if women have been less affected by the crisis, it is due at least in part to the fact that they are concentrated principally in the services sector, where the fall in the total number of jobs has been smaller than that observed in manufacturing industry.

CONCLUSION

There is a danger that the present economic crisis will aggravate the weakness and subordination of the female labour force, driving increasing numbers of women into the black economy or the most precarious forms of employment, where they are vulnerable to exploitation; there is also the danger that it will block the plans or present initiatives to improve the level of education or training within the female workforce and encourage retraining. If this were to happen, the consequences could be extremely serious. As a new industrial revolution approaches, resulting from the development of telematics, the question arises as to what social and political transformations this revolution will bring; some of its inherent perils have, however, become apparent even now: the use of robots in industry, automation in the office, of typing, filing, automation in warehousing, banking, in the printing industry are forcing thousands upon thousands of workers throughout Europe, and especially women, off the labour market, while there is a growing need in many countries for specialists in the new fields of programming, technical assistance and management.

Less evident, but equally grave, is the risk that this technological revolution will impose an oligarchical organization of society, in which positions of authority will be exclusively reserved for those able to control, understand and master the new technologies and languages.

The traditional stereotyped role of women has barred them up to now from technical occupations; if this situation were to persist, the consequences for the future might be more serious than those seen in the past.

Unless traditional attitudes change, the new revolution could entrench women even more deeply in a subordinate role, at work and in society. Basic technical training does not afford sufficient protection against this danger, because women would then find themselves employed in jobs which, though transformed by technology, were still the lowest-paid and least satisfying.

On the other side, the new technological revolution, precisely because it challenges the existing organization of work, offers certain possibilities for

modifying the traditional relationship of women to work. A start appears to have been made along these lines, but much will depend on the opportunities available to women for rising to key positions, and on how far women's organizations will be able to influence the political and economic responses to the forces of change released by technological progress.

A rigorous application of the directives is essential today for blocking a retreat into the past, but it is equally vital that the new opportunities are exploited to the full and the transformation of work is not obstructed by a rigid and dogmatic conception of the traditional image of work.

FIRST DIRECTIVE

STATE OF THE LEGISLATION IN THE INDIVIDUAL COUNTRIES OF THE EEC

I. BELGIUM: There are currently no infringement procedures underway against Belgium. Following the report COM(78)711 final, the Commission initiated an infringement procedure against Belgium for allowing discrimination to continue with regard to the so-called head of household allowances particularly in the public employment sector. Application was made to the Court of Justice on 16 March 1981 but the procedure was subsequently dropped following the promulgation of the Royal Decree of 10 September 1981 which amended the Decree of 30 January 1967 ending the infringement under dispute.

According to the Commission Belgium has duly incorporated into its legislation the concept of the equal value of work. The collective agreement on work No. 25 of 15 October 1975 (made obligatory by the Royal Decree of 9 December 1975) states that the principle of equal pay implies the elimination of any form of discrimination based on sex for the same work and for work of equal value and that all aspects and conditions of pay must be equal (Article 3) including (Article 4) methods of job evaluation where applied and that 'Under no circumstances may methods of job evaluation give rise to discrimination in the choice of criteria, their weighting or the manner in which evaluation factors are embodied in pay components'.

II. GREECE: Article 22 of the Greek constitution states that all workers regardless of sex have the right to equal pay for work of equal value. The Greek Minister of Labour has drafted a bill for harmonizing Greek legislation with the provisions of the directive of 10 February 1975 on equal pay.

In law there are no separate wage categories for male and female workers but the law is frequently evaded in practice.

III. FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY: Following the report COM(78) 711 final, the Commission initiated an infringement procedure against Germany for not having adopted specific measures to ensure the application of the principle of the equal pay for men and women.

A law was enacted on 13 August 1980 introducing, but only into the civil code, the principle of the right to equal pay between men and women for equal work and for work of equal value and also amending the rules on the burden of proof to the advantage of the employees. According to the Commission an infringement procedure against Germany is still pending; according to information provided by the Directorate General for Research and Information following the promulgation

of the law of 13 August 1980 all infringement procedures against the German Federal Republic have been dropped. These two items of information were received more or less at the same time, both coming almost three years after the date of adoption of the law.

The law of 13 August 1980 actually introduced into the civil code the principle of equality between men and women for the same work or work of equal value. So far the entire body of legislation on equal pay has been based on the extremely broad terms of Article 3 of the Constitution which states that all men and women are equal and that 'nobody may be placed either at an advantage or at a disadvantage because of his or her sex'.

IV. FRANCE: The Commission initiated an infringement procedure against France on the grounds that its legislation contained discriminatory provisions on the granting of housing loans only to heads of households working in blasting mines. The procedure was dropped following the promulgation of the law of 2 May 1979 which put an end to the infringement.

New legislation was adopted in France in early 1983 strengthening measures on equality. The law covers both equal pay and equal treatment for men and women and provides the trade unions for the first time with the right to lodge claims on behalf of individual workers in cases of discrimination.

The Commission considers that France has duly incorporated into its legislation the concept of work of equal value. Articles 1 and 2 of the law 72-1143 of 22 December 1972 expressly set out the principle of equal pay for men and women for the same work or work of equal value. They specify that pay means the ordinary basic or minimum wage or salary and all benefits and supplements paid directly or indirectly in cash or in kind, and that the various components of pay must be fixed in accordance with identical rules. Furthermore, the categories, criteria of classification and occupational advancement and all bases for calculating pay, in particular the methods of job evaluation, must be common to employees of both sexes.

V. LUXEMBOURG: On 16 March 1981 the Commission applied to the Court of Justice for implementation of the infringement procedure against Luxembourg for having allowed discrimination in the rules governing the eligibility of state employees for head-of-household allowances.

The Court of Justice ruled against Luxembourg in July 1982 and a new law passed at the end of 1982 put an end to the infringement. The Commission thus considers that Luxembourg has duly incorporated into its legislation the concept of

equal work. Articles 1-2-3 of the Grand-Ducal Regulation of 10 June 1974 stipulate measures identical to those quoted previously under the French law No. 72-1143.

VI. NETHERLANDS: The infringement procedure initiated by the Commission for having excluded public sector employees from the field of application of the law was dropped following the promulgation of the law of 2 July 1980 which extended the right to equal pay for men and women to the public services. The Commission felt that the Netherlands had also duly incorporated the concept of equal work into the national legislation. Article 2 of the law of 20 March 1975 provides that the employment contract entitles an employee to establish against his or her employer entitlement to a wage equal to that normally received by an employee of the other sex for work of equal value. Article 1 provides that wages means the pay due by an employer to an employee for work carried out, not including rights or allowances arising under pension arrangements. Equal wages may be established by drawing a comparison with wages habitually paid by the undertaking in question to an employee of the other sex performing work of equal value. If a valid comparison cannot be made with the undertaking in question, reference may be made to another undertaking which is as similar as possible and is engaged in the same activity, account being taken of general differences in the wage scales of the undertakings in question. Wages shall be regarded as being equal if they are calculated on identical bases and account is taken of non-financial benefits involved in the pay.

The value of the work is determined by means of a job evaluation system or in the absence of such a system it is assessed by taking into account the available data.

The system appears therefore to be based on the concept of tasks actually performed. It is not impartial however in practice because the systems of job classification generally undervalue the jobs habitually performed by women.

There is very little national case law on the question of equal treatment: only two cases in all have been clearly decided. In the first case four appeals were made, two of which were accepted in first instance and two in the second. In the second case the appeal was rejected in first instance. Given the low number of cases decided, it is impossible to determine any orientation in jurisprudence. The reluctance to appeal is due partly perhaps to the fact that the law does not provide for sanctions if the judgment goes against the employer and that the appeal is cost-free only for those with very low incomes. Organizations of a collective nature can support the worker in his appeal (although not directly bring an action before the Court) by undertaking to act as the representative but only in first instance.

There are at present various ways of introducing sanctions against the employer for failure to observe either the law on equal treatment or equal pay.

No specific proposals have been made to reform the system of job classification in order to reduce existing wage disparities between men and women.

VII IRELAND: No infringement procedure has been initiated against Ireland under directive 117/75.

The Commission considers that the Irish law has duly incorporated the concept of equal value contained in Article 1 of the directive.

Under the terms of the Equal Pay Act a woman has the right to the same wage as a man employed in that place by the same employer for like work. (Article 2.1). In the case of a claim for equal treatment the comparison that a woman may make between her own work and that of a man is restricted to the man employed by the same employer or by an associate employer in the same place of work or in places of work in the same country, city or locality. Any comparison with persons working for an associated employer is however subject to the fact that the professional activity in question be governed by the same conditions and procedures. Wage differentiations which are not based on sex are legitimate. The clause of equality of treatment on pay is automatically applied to any employment contract; any clauses agreed on to the contrary are null and void. A man and a woman are regarded as being employed on like work:

- (a) if both perform the same work under the same or similar conditions or where each is fully interchangeable with the other in relation to the work;
- (b) where the work performed by one of the two is of a similar nature to that performed by the other and any difference between the conditions under which it is performed is infrequent or of little consequence in relation to the work as a whole;
- (c) when the work performed by one is equal in value to that performed by the other in terms of the demands it makes in relation to such matters as skill, physical or mental effort, responsibility and working conditions.

Thus, there remain outside the application of the law those sectors with an entirely female staff and women who cover entire areas of equivalent status in mixed professional activities where it is impossible to establish comparisons.

By adopting a limited interpretation of place the Equal Pay Act also prevents comparisons being made on a national basis. The Employment Equality Agency has called for an adjustment to allow for comparisons between work carried out in any place on Irish territory.

The woman (or man) who feels that the right to equal treatment has been infringed can under the terms of the law appeal to the Equality Officers of Labour or in cases of non-application of the recommendation the parties can appeal to the Labour Court. Between 1976 and 31 December 1981 481 cases were referred to Equality Officers, 208 of which did not result in the issuing of formal recommendations. It should be noted however that in 1981 the number of cases in which a formal recommendation was adopted showed a proportionately marked increase while the number of cases referred to the Equality Officers declined overall. Out of 244 recommendations adopted between 1976 and 31 December 1981, 164 were resolved in favour of the worker, 16 partly in favour of the worker and 64 against. The net result seems therefore to be positive. There is divergent information concerning the jurisprudence of the Labour Court. The Irish Minister for Labour feels that it is not possible at present to draw any conclusions from the number and type of appeals presented as to the proportion of cases in which the law is observed and the tendency to seek legal redress. The Minister for Labour is carrying out an in-depth enquiry on the functioning and the effectiveness of the law on equality and pay. This survey has taken account of both the proposals by the Employment Equality Agency and the suggestions thrown up in debate between both sides of industry and the Labour Court in addition to the Agency.

The procedure in the civil courts is not free of charge; however, until now all those who have instigated proceedings have made use of the Labour Court where appeals are free. both employers and workers' organizations can act on behalf of those concerned. The National Office for Equality can bring an action directly before the courts.

VIII DENMARK: An infringement procedure was brought by the Commission against Denmark in July 1983 for not having made sufficient reference in its legislation to the concept of equal work and for having adopted an overly restrictive notion of 'samme arbejds'. The concept of equal work appears neither in the law nor in the collective agreements concluded between the Confederations of Workers (LO) and employers (DA).

The Commission has undertaken to continue to review the situation of Danish legislation of the question of equal pay in the light of legal and real progress.

We have no information about the number of petitions filed in Denmark on the question of equal pay. Besides the structure of the law is such that appeals to the regular courts are quite rare while decisions through arbitration are much more common. One of these arbitration rulings applied the concept of equal work in support of female workers: the case concerned whether there should be equal pay for work performed by the female workers' union (KAD) which involved packaging fruit and vegetables for sale by retail at packing benches and for work performed

by members of the skilled workers' union (SID) which involved the transport of unpackaged fruit and vegetables and the packaging materials to the benches and the transport from the packing benches of the wrapped goods for subsequent dispatching. It was decided that members of the KAD should receive an equivalent basic wage to that of the members of the SID since the work they performed was of equal value as regards output in the place of work.

IX ITALY: No infringement procedure has been initiated by the Commission against Italy. According to the Commission the law of 9 December 1977 has duly incorporated the concept of equal work. The female worker has the right to the same wage as the male worker when the work required is the same or of like value. The systems of job classification for determining pay must adopt the same criteria for both men and women.

X UNITED KINGDOM: On 18 March 1981 the Commission began proceedings in the Court of Justice against the United Kingdom for incomplete implementation of the Directive of 10 February 1975 and in particular for having placed too restrictive an interpretation on the concept of equal work in its legislation. The Equal Pay Act enacted on 29 May 1970 and which came into effect on 29 December 1975 recognizes the right to equal pay for men and women (equal treatment in regard to pay and other terms of the work contracted; overtime, bonuses, piece-work payments, holiday and sick leave entitlements) only in two cases viz: (a) where the woman is employed on like work (work of the same or broadly similar nature) to that of a man or (b) where she is employed on work which, although different from the work performed by men, has been classed as being of equal value under job evaluation. In its judgment of 6 July 1982 the Court ruled against the United Kingdom for having failed to introduce the necessary measures into its domestic legislation to permit all workers who felt wronged by the failure to apply the principle of equal pay for men and women for a job judged to be of equal value and for which there is no system of job evaluation, to obtain recognition of equality.

The Court ruled that the means of attributing equal value to different jobs could not depend on the goodwill of the employer in contrast to the right to recognition of equal pay for equal work which is governed by a system of job classification criteria: the Member States should provide an authority with the powers to decide whether one job has the same or less value than another. In its ruling the Court of Justice found the United Kingdom guilty of failing to carry out its obligations under the terms of the Treaty.

In August 1982 the Department of Employment issued a green paper containing proposals for amending the Equal Pay Act in light of the ruling by the Court which prompted reactions from a wide range of organizations and individuals.

In November 1982 the Queen announced in her opening speech before the two Houses of Parliament that measures would be adopted to amend the Equal Pay Act. Again in November 1982 the government announced that the Equal Pay Act would be adopted during the current session of parliament by means of an Order in accordance with Article 2(2) of the European Communities Act of 1972. Article 2(2) permits the Minister responsible to implement a Community binding instrument by means of an Order; Article 2(4) of the same law enables an order to amend a law of Parliament.

The choice of procedure (which is in fact in due conformity with requirements for implementing Community binding instruments) was subject to criticism which maintained that the normal parliamentary procedure for the adoption of amendments, involving a wider democratic discussion, would have led to closer examination and hence to the adoption of amendments more in keeping with the effective application of the principle of equality for work of equal value.

The Draft Order states that a woman has the right to claim pay equal to that of a man or vice versa not only under circumstances laid down by the unamended Act but also when 'her work is of equal value to a man's in terms of the demands made on her (for instance under such headings as effort, skill and decision)'. Where the request for recognition of equal value has to be determined on the basis of these new grounds the tribunal will commission a report by independent experts to assess whether the jobs are of equal value. The experts must be selected from a list of persons designated by ACAS (Advisory Conciliation and Arbitration Service). The experts are selected on the basis of their wide experience in industry.

In order to make their decision they will not need to make a formal assessment of jobs and activities where no job is equal in value to another but their appraisals should take into account the various work required by the two jobs under comparison.

The amendments made therefore would finally seem to have duly incorporated Article 1 of the directive into British legislation. However a closer study of the proposed text and of the procedural mechanisms providing for effective application of this principle which has finally been recognized leads to a different assessment. or at least that further consideration would be advisable before adopting a text that constitutes only partial improvement. The National Council for Civil Liberties and the Equal Opportunities Commission have declared that the Draft Order would place women in a worse position, and have put forward a draft resolution which states that the Order does not comply with the Community binding instruments and calls for an amended text to be put before the House of Commons.

The points of the Draft Order most likely to give rise to criticism are:

(1) the fact that it delays the entry into force of the amendments up to 12 months after its adoption; since Article 2(5) of the Equal Pay Act has not been amended, under which a woman who has brought an appeal for failure to implement the clause on equality has no right to claim back payments or compensation for the two years preceding the date on which the appeal was filed, and since the amendments are likely to enter into force in mid-1984, the woman who makes an appeal for recognition of equal work will be unable to claim full payment for the two preceding years' work until mid-1986. Thus women are deprived of the exercise of a right which has been recognized by European legislation since 1975.

(2) The existence of a study which is not obviously discriminatory or misguided and which attributes a different value to work performed by women and men denies the woman the possibility of obtaining a decision by the industrial tribunal on equal value. The effective right to equality for women therefore depends on the authors of the study (employers, consultants). Since the kind of competence required of the expert is defined only in very broad terms and no mention is made of the need to adopt a code on professional activity or the guidelines to be followed, while the independent expert is not required to be particularly qualified in how to achieve equality between the sexes, any guarantee for a woman who appeals is likely to be quite precarious and arbitrary. And yet the indictment by the Court stated that a woman's rights should not depend on the judgment of the employer. Her situation is unlikely to be much improved if her rights depend on the judgment of poorly prepared experts.

(3) The draft Order provides for either an appeal for 'like work' or one on the grounds of 'equal value'. This deprives the petitioner of the right of two options on which to base his appeal. It also seems that an appeal on like work takes priority over one on equal value in that the demand for recognition of the right to equal pay can be based on the grounds of the similarity of work, the tribunal can ask for the case to proceed on the basis of these grounds and is able to reject the case for equal work.

The petitioner who performs a job evaluated in the past as equivalent to another performed by a man, or which has currently been assessed as equivalent on the basis of an outdated and therefore discriminatory job evaluation scheme, would lack any kind of guarantee.

(4) if the Tribunal feels that the petitioner is citing unreasonable grounds to establish that the job is of equal value it can reject the appeal.

As previously stated the draft Order does not set out precise criteria to guide the Industrial Tribunal and reduce the possibility of an arbitrary judgment. This is particularly serious because many appeals on equal value may seem unreasonable

at the outset although they are likely to encourage changes in entrenched attitudes about the value of work performed by women.

(5) While under the unamended act it was generally presumed that there was discrimination on sexual grounds any time a woman could show that she received lower pay than a man for a similar job or for a job assessed as equivalent, and it was thus up to the employer to prove that the wage difference was due to overall material differences and that the difference in sex was merely coincidental, under the terms of the amended act the burden of proof that there is a material difference (in addition to sex) between the two cases would lie exclusively with the employer.

Under the amended act the burden of proof has in fact been shifted from the employer to the worker who has the heavy responsibility of proving that inequality is due to discrimination on sexual grounds. This also shows a failure to comply with the obligations of the Treaty.

(6) Finally, the government's draft made no effort to put an end to a case of infringement of Community laws: Article 77 of the Equal Pay Act is not applicable to most collective contracts which means that British legislation does not confer sufficient powers on the relevant authorities (Central Arbitration Committee, the Courts, the Tribunals) to amend all the collective agreements which do not conform to the Community directive.

To sum up, even after the adoption of the Draft Order, United Kingdom legislation on equal pay does not fully conform to the directive in three significant aspects (a) the regulation on equal value does not provide for any redress in cases where collective agreements, wage scales, and individual employment contracts are discriminatory. It therefore does not comply with Article 4 of Directive 75/117; (b) neither does it comply with Article 6 which calls for effective measures to ensure the application of the principle of equal pay; (c) nor with Article 7 in that the government proposals contain no measures for informing all workers of their rights on questions of equality.

From 1976 to 1980 the number of cases brought before the Tribunal decreased as did percentage-wise the number of decisions in favour of the petitioner.

In 1980 only 26 cases were brought before the Tribunal and only 4 concerning equality were settled in favour of the petitioner. Appearance before the Industrial Tribunal is free but legal advice and assistance in the preparation of the appeal is not, except in cases where the petitioner has a very low income.

Since the probability of failure is statistically high the fear of having to bear the costs of the proceedings may explain the increasing reluctance to appeal to the Tribunal. However it cannot be ruled out that the law is being correctly applied and that opportunities for lodging an appeal are few and often groundless.

According to the Minister for Employment the law has not been insensitive to the rights of women workers and its interpretations have actually helped to broaden the concept of equal pay. The Minister for Employment cites 3 decisions to illustrate this tendency.

(1) In the Mac Cartys versus Smith case a woman was considered comparable to a man who had previously worked in the same undertaking;

(2) in the O'Brien versus Sim-Ched Ltd. case it was maintained that the women involved had the right to equal pay even though a system of job evaluation had not actually been implemented;

(3) in the Jenkins versus Kindgate case it was asserted that where the majority of the workers are women they have the right to an hourly wage rate equal to that of full-time male workers who perform the same work (although the decision allowed for derogations in specific cases). The first and third cases were referred to the Court of Justice of the Community for a preliminary ruling.

SECOND DIRECTIVE

GENERAL LEGAL SITUATION

The concept of head of family is not to be found in any of the regulations introduced by the countries under consideration (Netherlands, United Kingdom, Ireland and Denmark) with a view to implementing the directive in question. It does, however, appear in the United Kingdom's legislation on benefits and allowances, which discriminates against women in matters of social security (this will have to be corrected when the third directive is implemented).

As far as discrimination in existing legislation and in case-law is concerned, it would seem from the replies received that the concepts of discrimination and indirect discrimination have not been legally redefined.

Under the United Kingdom Sex Discrimination Act, indirect discrimination can be described as arising where a person applies to a woman who is seeking some benefit from him (e.g. a job) a condition or a requirement with which she must comply in order to qualify for, or obtain, the benefit, and where the condition or requirement satisfies all of the following criteria:

- (a) it is applied, or would be applied, by him equally to men and to women;
- (b) it is such that the proportion of women who can comply with it is considerably smaller than the proportion of men who can comply with it;
- (c) it is to the detriment of the woman in question because she cannot comply with it;
- (d) it cannot be shown by the person applying it to be justifiable irrespective of the sex of the person to whom it is applied.

Section 2(c) of the Irish Employment Equality Act describes indirect discrimination as follows:

'where, because of his sex or marital status a person is obliged to comply with a requirement relating to employment, which is not an essential requirement for such employment, and in respect of which the proportion of persons of the other sex or (as the case may be) of a different marital status but of the same sex able to comply is substantially higher'.

In the Netherlands, the concept of indirect discrimination has not been defined either by legislation or in case-law. We have not received information on the situation in Denmark.

Under United Kingdom and Irish law, measures have been introduced with a view to changing the age limits laid down for eligibility to sit public competitions. On the basis of a Ministry of Labour decree, a form of positive discrimination has been introduced in Denmark (different requirements to be met by the two sexes for admission to police training colleges), in a bid to eliminate the various forms of indirect discrimination that currently affect the admissions procedures for certain public competitions.

Judgments handed down in various test cases have recognized the discriminatory effect of the upper age limits laid down for access to employment in the public sector.

In the United Kingdom, direct or indirect discrimination was found to exist in the following cases:

- (a) *Mrs Hurley v. Mustoe*: the Court ruled against an employer who had refused to recruit women with young children on the grounds that he had found them unreliable;
- (b) *Coleman v. Skyrail Oceanic Ltd*: the Court ruled against an employer who had been party to a decision to dismiss a wife rather than a husband on the assumption that the husband was the breadwinner;
- (c) *Price v. the Civil Service Commission*: the Court ruled against the defendant for having fixed an upper age limit of under 28 years for direct entry as an Executive Officer into the Home Civil Service;
- (d) *Clarke v. Eley (IMI) Kynoch* and *Eley (IMI) Kynoch v. Powell*: the Court ruled that a clause in an employment contract which stipulated that part-time workers were to be made redundant before full-time workers was unlawful.

In Case 12/81 the Court of Justice of the Communities ruled that the decision of an employer to grant travel concessions to male ex-employees only discriminated against women.

In Denmark, there have been two interesting judgments concerning discrimination. Both involved the offer of employment by shipping companies to sailors on the grounds of their superior qualifications and the subsequent withdrawal of that offer once it was discovered that they were women.

The first action was brought against Moeller, which submitted in its defence that the work involved was too dangerous to be entrusted to women. The Maritime and Commercial Court concluded that the company should have sought exemption from the law on equality of treatment and directed it to pay 10,000 kroner in damages to the woman concerned.

In the second case, the Maritime and Commercial Court acquitted the company, Mercandia, on the grounds that if it had recruited the woman concerned, it would have rendered itself liable to prosecution under the maritime inspection law, since the vessel, which lacked separate sanitary facilities for female crew members, had been fitted out in conformity with an old decree which had not been amended with the entry into force of the law on equality of treatment.

In the same case, the Supreme Court of Appeal found the company guilty on the grounds that it should have sought dispensation from the relevant provisions of the law on sea transport. It was recognized, however, that there were attenuating circumstances and the woman concerned was not awarded damages.

Again in Denmark, two opposing judgments were passed in cases involving the dismissal of pregnant women:

- in the first case (judgment of the Court of Friederksberg), since the woman was clearly dismissed because of her pregnancy, she was awarded 3,000 kroner in damages;
- in the second case (judgment of the Court of Roskilde), the Court ruled that the woman involved, a trainee assistant in a dental clinic, had not provided sufficient proof that the cause of her dismissal was her pregnancy, and not the working difficulties that had arisen between herself on the one hand and the dentists and the rest of the staff on the other.

A further action pending in Denmark is that brought by KAD (a workers' trade union) against the employers' confederation and Danpo A/S for having inserted a clause discriminating against women into the joint collective agreement with the Trade Union of Skilled Male and Female Workers. This clause reads as follows: 'Within the sector covered up to 1 January 1976 by the KAD collective agreement, the supply situation of a factory may at any time entail the lay-off of employees, without any economic obligation on the employer'. On the basis of this clause, Danpo was able to lay off without compensation female members of KAD, but not male members of SID, in slaughter-houses where there had been a run-down in supplies.

The Court of Appeal ruled that, since the company did not require that women should be enrolled as trade union members and that the redundancies stemmed not from the fact that the workers involved were women but that they were members of KAD, there was no discrimination between the sexes - not even of an indirect nature.

The trade union organization representing female workers has lodged an appeal against this judgment with the Supreme Court of Appeal.

In Ireland, the Employment Tribunal ruled in favour of one Catherine Martyn that the fixing of an upper age limit of 27 years for the purposes of recruitment amounted to discrimination against women, and, in the case *Mrs Smith v. Coras Iompair Eireann*, that to require that bus conductors should be of a minimum height may constitute indirect discrimination.

Occupations excluded from the directive's field of application

None of the countries (which have sent in replies to the questionnaire) has provided a precise list of the occupations which would be legitimately excluded from the field of application of the relevant provisions of the directive on equality of treatment. The replies from Denmark, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands merely point out that the occupations excluded are those in respect of which the sex of the worker is an undoubted occupational qualification for the job in question and that the three types of exception permitted by Directive 76/207 are embodied in the relevant national legislation.

The Irish reply specifies the broad criteria established by law for determining whether a person's sex is an occupational qualification for a job:

- where the essential nature of the job requires either a man or a woman for reasons of physiology (e.g. a male or female model) or authenticity in entertainment (e.g. an actor or actress);
- where the nature or location of the employment requires the employee to live in premises which do not have separate sleeping accommodation and sanitary facilities for men and women;
- where the holder of the job provides a personal service, such as a social worker or a probation officer does, and it is necessary to have persons of both sexes available for these services;
- where the job is likely to involve duties outside the State in a country where the laws and customs are such that those duties could not be performed by a woman (or man).

By specifying that progress has been achieved in extending the field of application of the directive to the defence sector, the Danish reply gives the impression that in the public sector there are occupations which are still effectively exempted from the application of the law, even though they are not included amongst those occupations for which exemption is explicitly allowed by the directive. Ireland points out that exemptions from the application of the law have been made in the case of the army, the police and the prison service and for jobs in private residences or employment by a close relative. A decree recently issued by the Danish Ministry of Labour prohibits 'any ban on the training or employment of men in obstetrics and puts an end to the practice of certain single-sex institutions and other institutions of refusing jobs to one or other of the two sexes for reasons relating to privacy or to the protection of morality'. (Decree 17 of September 1982).

SITUATION IN THE VARIOUS SECTORS COVERED BY THE DIRECTIVE

I. Equal employment opportunities

According to the Commission, various changes have been made in the procedures followed by public employment offices in the Member States. In many States, for instance, a single list has apparently been adopted for both men and women. The Commission further indicates that in none of the Member States are private employment agencies subject to official systematic checks to ascertain whether they apply any form of discrimination based on sex: such checks as are carried out and the regulations governing them vary from one country to another.

The Commission has not been able to gather information on forms of indirect discrimination applied either by the public or by the private employment agencies. It has merely established that not only the national employment offices, but the Community institutions themselves, set upper age limits for recruitment purposes, a practice which indirectly discriminates against women. The few replies received tend to confirm this finding.

In the Netherlands, there are no longer separate lists for men and women of vacant posts in the public administration. There is a measure of control over recruitment procedures in the private sector. A licence must be obtained from the Ministry of Social Affairs and holders of licences are subject to annual checks. The law on equality of treatment does not affect the provisions governing licences for temporary work, but infringements of that law may be notified by the Commission to the Ministry concerned.

In the United Kingdom, licences must be obtained by both temporary employment agencies and private employment agencies, and their activities are subject to specific regulations. There are no rules under existing legislation for controlling the way in which employers and employees use these agencies. The agencies are explicitly forbidden to attempt to control the remuneration received by workers. The laws and regulations apply to men and women equally and without distinction.

As far as the public sector is concerned, a joint review body consisting of management and trade union representatives was set up in 1980 to examine the employment opportunities for women in the civil service. The existing age limits for entry into the civil service are currently under review, the aim being to relax or abolish age limits wherever practicable (the age limit of under 28 for direct entry as an Executive Officer was declared by the Industrial Tribunal, in a decision of 1977, to be indirectly discriminatory as regards women).

Furthermore, the civil service officials involved have been briefed on the new laws on equality of treatment. While there are no guarantees specifically designed to ensure proper application of the directive on equality of treatment, women who believe that they have been discriminated against in matters of recruitment on grounds of sex may invoke the normal safeguard provisions which are generally laid down for the benefit of staff.

In Denmark, the Ministry of Labour has sent a circular to employment offices, asking them to bring their activities into line with the principles enunciated in the directive. Denmark has also taken the novel step of appointing 14 consultants to advise the regional employment offices on matters relating to equality of treatment, and it is hoped its example will be followed by other Member States under the new action programme.

In giving appropriate advice, guidance and instruction, these consultants help to encourage the employment agencies in their efforts to apply the principle of equal treatment for men and women to recruitment and vocational training, the provision of information and the organization of employment measures, etc. They assist in the elaboration and the practical evaluation of procedures aimed at promoting this objective and endeavour to ensure that the projects pursued by the public employment service both in relation to individual job applicants and at the more general planning level add up to a coherent programme of action aimed at ending the operation of two labour markets - one for men and the other for women.

The consultants also keep a regular check on the development of the regional labour market and on training facilities and encourage research projects which would provide a better understanding of how women and men compare in overcoming the problems they meet in non-traditional occupations. The activities designed to foster equality of treatment are regularly monitored and assessed by the employment directorate.

The employment directorate carries out general checks on the private employment agencies, which are more or less thorough depending on the activity involved. In order to operate, these agencies must hold permits or licences. The employment directorate is not, however, responsible for ensuring that the law on equality of treatment is applied. The law forbids all forms of indirect discrimination in public competitions. In application of this provision, the Ministry of Labour has authorized that the conditions as to physique should be different for men and women seeking admission to police training colleges. This is a form of 'positive discrimination', which is fully consonant with the spirit of the law on equality of treatment.

In Ireland, certain jobs within the public administration which were once reserved for men are now open to women, and the former obligation on women to give up their jobs once they married has been abolished. As for the private employment sector, the laws provide only for a general ban on discrimination against women, a ban which applies as much to classified advertisements as to the conditions of employment themselves. The question of age limits for admission to public competitions is currently under review.

It will have become evident from our brief and partial survey that in most of the countries under consideration there are no specific instruments for monitoring the application by the employment services of the directive on equality of treatment. If, as the action programme tends to reveal, male and female workers seldom exercise the right of appeal for which the national laws make provision, the measures which are essential to reinforce and improve the appeal mechanisms should perhaps be accompanied by measures aimed at introducing, within the employment services, specific procedures for controlling discriminatory practices based on sex.

We would once again recommend that the advisory service on matters of equality set up in Denmark should be extended to the other Community countries. Although it is not yet possible fully to assess the results of this service, there can be no doubt that it is far more effective in making employment offices aware of problems associated with equality of treatment than are general ministerial recommendations or explanatory pamphlets.

Denmark is also the only country which explicitly refers to the introduction of forms of positive discrimination to help women secure jobs in the public administration. However, some encouragement can be taken from the fact that the criteria for the recruitment of women by the civil service in the United Kingdom and the age limits for certain jobs in Ireland are at present under review. In the latter countries, and in the other Member States, thought should be given to the kinds of positive discrimination that it would be both possible and useful to introduce (e.g. competitions for senior posts for women only), with a view to eliminating the blatant inequalities from which women are made to suffer in the field of employment.

II. Guidance, training and recruitment

According to the Commission much has been accomplished by the Member States in these three areas. The action programme provides for the possibility of extending to all Member States advisory services on equality of treatment similar to that established in Denmark. While the Danish service is not composed of specialized counsellors in the real sense of the term, it nonetheless plays an important role, as we have said, in calling the attention of the regional employment offices to the problems with which we are here concerned. The Danish service is particularly interesting, not least because it establishes a link between vocational guidance and the training and recruitment services.

In Denmark, vocational and professional guidance is provided by a variety of counsellors, of whom the most important are:

- (a) the schools counsellors;
- (b) the studies counsellors;

- (c) those who provide guidance to young people in the local communities (young persons registered locally, who receive no other form of guidance);
- (d) the vocational guidance officials attached to the regional employment offices.

The link between vocational and professional guidance and counselling and the vocational training and recruitment services is provided by:

- (a) regional contact groups set up under the auspices of the manpower committees to ensure that they and the local training institutes work in harmony;
- (b) committees consisting of principal counsellors from the individual regions, which coordinate the activities of counsellors operating in different fields.

In the Netherlands, there are no specialized counsellors on matters of equality, but the Directorate-General for Employment and the various employment offices encourage special activities to assist women.

In the United Kingdom too, there are no specialized counsellors on matters of equality, either at local level or in the Department of Employment Careers Service Branch. Nevertheless, the responsible officials have been properly informed of the new tasks they are required to perform under the law on equality of treatment.

It should be noted that the local education authorities have a duty to provide a vocational guidance service for young people attending educational institutions (other than universities) and an employment service for people leaving them.

Although Ireland has no truly specialized advisers on equal treatment, a number of extremely interesting measures have been introduced to familiarize counsellors with the relevant problems. For example, in 1980 a workshop was held for guidance counsellors. The most significant objectives of this exercise were: to help guidance counsellors assess the strength of sex-stereotyping influences within the school environment; to carry out statistical analyses of this problem; to examine possible strategies for intervention by educational establishments and the placement services; to encourage active cooperation between guidance counsellors and the Employment Equality Agency.

The Employment Equality Agency has sponsored research into 'the institutional sex differences in subject choices and examination performances in Irish post-primary schools'. Programmes have also been undertaken with a view to making apprenticeships more accessible to girls.

The picture that emerges - albeit partial, since only a few of the Member States have replied to the relevant part of the questionnaire - is fairly encouraging, even if the situation cannot be said to be ideal. All the Member States have fulfilled the obligation to bring the new provisions on questions of equality to the notice of those working in the field. Important pilot projects have been introduced in Ireland and Denmark, and it would be desirable for these to be taken up by the other member countries.

All the various forms of discrimination which operate against women in the matter of access to vocational training need to be eliminated, while the positive measures designed to improve equality of opportunity in the sectors specified by action 10 of the action programme need to be consolidated and pursued further. A special effort should be made in those areas - the field of permanent education for instance - in which, in terms of guidance, training and recruitment most can be done to alter the position of women on the labour market.

GUARANTEE MECHANISMS

I. Appeals

Information has been furnished on the number of appeals lodged and on their outcome. In the Netherlands, there has apparently been only one appeal, and the judgment given was in conformity with the opinion of the Commission. The United Kingdom has provided the following figures for appeals involving equality of treatment:

234 in 1976

229 in 1977

171 in 1978

178 in 1979

180 in 1980

256 in 1981.

It is not, however, possible to draw any firm conclusions from the figures available in the United Kingdom, firstly because no steady trend is discernible in the sense of a decreasing or an increasing tendency to seek legal redress, and secondly because in the absence of precise data on the nature and the outcome of each appeal, it would be impossible to say whether any increase/decrease was attributable to the effectiveness/ineffectiveness of the appeal system as a form of protection or to the decreasing/increasing tendency of public or private employers to apply the law.

It would seem that in Denmark the number of appeals is relatively low (that, at least, is the view of the Ministry of Labour, which concedes, however, that it has no statistical data on which to base that view). Moreover, the two laws on equality are so structured as to make it extremely rare for appeals to be lodged with the Industrial Tribunal (it is more usual for them to be examined by the bodies responsible for settling labour disputes).

Although no conclusions can be drawn from the fragmentary data received, there is nothing to contradict the statement made in Annex 1 to action 2 of the action programme to the effect that 'workers, and female workers in particular, make little use of the arrangements for redress provided for by the national law. The inflexibility of the procedures on the one hand, and the difficulty of assembling evidence of discrimination on the other, explain this reticence in part; high unemployment also discourages female workers from asserting their rights for fear of losing their jobs. Nevertheless, it appears that in the countries in which special bodies offering advice and assistance have been set up, or more flexible means of redress made available, female workers have become more aware of their rights. This is particularly true of the United Kingdom, where assistance from the Equal Opportunities Commission has resulted in a greater number of cases being brought'.

Equal opportunities bodies

Equal opportunities bodies have been set up in all the Member States, but their composition, terms of reference and methods of operation vary from one country to another.

In Italy there is only one national committee responsible for the application of the principles of equal treatment and equal opportunities for female workers. Set up by ministerial decree on 8 October 1982, this committee consists of one representative each from the Prime Minister's Office, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of the Interior, the Ministry of Justice, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Finance. A further ten members are appointed on the recommendation of the political parties and other interested bodies and movements. There are three trade union and three workers' representatives, and one member to represent the cooperative movement. The term of office is three years.

Not only is this committee unrepresentative of the women's organizations which are active today in Italy, but its powers and terms of reference are derisory. A draft law designed to set up a genuine equal opportunities committee was presented to Parliament, but the early dissolution of Parliament and the end of the legislative term caused it to lapse.

There are equal opportunities bodies in all the countries which replied to the questionnaire.

In the Netherlands, there is a committee on equality of treatment for men and women and a special committee for the public sector (there was insufficient time in which to obtain a translation of the annex to the reply, which gives details of the composition, resources and terms of reference of these committees).

Great Britain has an Equal Opportunities Commission, which currently has 14 members appointed by the Home Secretary, of whom 10 (including the chairman and the deputy chairman) are women. The chairman works

full-time and receives a salary, the deputy chairman works half-time and also receives a salary, and the commissioners work part-time and are fee-paid (i.e. they receive a fee for each Commission meeting they attend). Three of the commissioners were appointed on the recommendation of the Trades Union Congress and three on that of the Confederation of British Industry (the employers' organization).

The Commission currently employs 170 staff, including 27 on a part-time basis.

The duties of the Commission are as follows:

- (a) to work towards the elimination of sex discrimination;
- (b) to promote equality of opportunity between men and women generally;
- (c) to keep the provisions of the sex discrimination legislation (i.e. the Sex Discrimination Act of 1975 and the Equal Pay Act of 1970) under review and, if it thinks fit, or is so required by the Home Secretary, to submit proposals for amending it.

What is particularly interesting in the case of the United Kingdom is that the Commission is given various specific powers in order to carry out its duties, as follows:

- (a) the power to conduct a formal investigation 'for any purpose' connected with its statutory duties. In the course of an investigation for which it has adopted 'accusatory' terms of reference, the Commission has power to require any person to produce relevant information either in the form of documents or by giving oral evidence. If in the course of an investigation, the Commission becomes satisfied that a contravention of the Sex Discrimination Act has occurred, it may serve the person concerned with a 'non-discrimination notice' requiring him to comply with the law. That notice is enforceable in the courts.
- (b) the power, under the Sex Discrimination Act, to issue codes of practice containing guidance on the elimination of discrimination and the promotion of equality of opportunity in the field of employment. Subject to the approval of the Secretary of State for Employment and Parliament, a code of practice is admissible in evidence in industrial tribunal proceedings.

- (c) the power, in certain circumstances, to assist an individual who is an actual or prospective complainant. Assistance may include giving advice, procuring a settlement, arranging for legal advice or representation or any other form of assistance which the Commission may consider appropriate.
- (d) the power to advise the Government on the working of the two acts on equality.
- (e) the power to institute legal proceedings in respect of discriminatory practices, discriminatory advertisements and instructions or pressure to discriminate.
- (f) the power to provide financial or other assistance for research and educational activities connected with the discharge of its statutory duties.
- (g) the specific duty to keep under review those provisions in the health and safety legislation that require men and women to be treated differently.

In Denmark, an Equal Opportunities Council was set up in November 1975. Its terms of reference and status were defined in a law enacted on 12 April 1978. Its task is to promote equality between men and women within society, and hence on the labour market, in education and training and in family life. It is made up of representatives of employers' and employees' organizations and the women's organizations, and its chairman is appointed by the Prime Minister. There are no plans to change the Council's duties or powers.

In Ireland, the Employment Equality Agency, a national body established under the 1977 Employment Equality Act, came into operation on 1 October 1977. This Agency is a management body composed of a chairman and ten ordinary members, including representatives of workers', employers' and the women's organizations.

The Agency's main task is to serve the public interest by:

- working towards the elimination of discrimination in employment;
- promoting equality of opportunity in employment between men and women;
- keeping under review the operation of the Anti-Discrimination (Pay) Act of 1974 and the Employment Equality Act of 1977 and, where necessary, making proposals for amending these Acts.

The 1982 grant for the Agency, which is financed out of monies provided on a yearly basis by the Oireachtas (Parliament), was more than three times the amount allocated to it in 1978, its first full year of operation. The staff complement of the Agency is currently being increased.

On the whole, the present situation would seem to be satisfactory. The most significant developments are those that have taken place in Britain. With its broad terms of reference and wide-ranging powers, the Equal Opportunities Commission has become a really effective instrument for the protection of women's rights since, apart from providing legal advice, it actively seeks to improve the laws on equality of treatment, to ensure that they are better applied and to enforce compliance with their provisions.

The trade unions

The results, published in December 1980, of the survey organized by the ad hoc committee showed that of the three main agencies instrumental in promoting equality of treatment - the Community institutions, national legislation and the trade unions - it was the activities of the trade unions with which the female workers interviewed were most familiar and which they considered to have best served their interests.

This finding is astonishing when we consider the data, incomplete though it is, supplied by the countries with which we are concerned in this annex. In the Netherlands, 13.8% of the members of the FNV and 18% of the members of the CNV are women (figures for 1981), while in the United Kingdom 30.4% of trade union members are women. In Denmark and Ireland, the percentage of female workers in trade unions is 66% (1976 figure) and 63% respectively. Compared with the numbers of paid-up members, which are not particularly high, the percentage of women on the national executives is very small indeed. In the Netherlands, 10% of the FNV executive and 2.3% of the CNV executive are women. No statistics are available in the United Kingdom and Denmark. In Ireland, the situation varies from one union to another. At one end of the scale there is the Irish Transport and General Workers' Union (women on executive = 0%; women as a percentage of membership = 33%), and at

the other, the Public Services Union (women on executive = 31%; women as a percentage of membership = 50%).

Women's trade union coordinating bodies exist in the Netherlands and Ireland. We have no information on the situation in Denmark. In the United Kingdom, some unions have specialist representation, such as women's committees, equality working parties, reserved seats on executive councils, or simply an officer with special responsibility for women.

In the Netherlands, there is a women's secretariat in both the FNV and the CNV. In addition, there is a women's committee for each occupational category and area and a coordinating group for female union members, the Women's League of the FNV. The sectors in which these bodies are most active are education and the services and the quaternary sectors.

In Ireland, there are women's coordinating bodies for the various occupational categories either at national level or at union level. They do not exist, however, at sectoral or industrial level.

Since the trade unions are evidently seen by women to play a useful protective role at the place of work and have to some extent earned their trust, there is every reason why they should introduce a quota system to ensure that women are represented at the highest levels within the union organizations and are thus able to stimulate greater interest in the problems associated with equality of treatment.

COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

Topic no. 2 of the
REPORT OF INQUIRY

on

the implementation to date of the third directive
('Social Security', target date - 1984)

Rapporteur: Mrs I. van den HEUVEL

8 November 1983

At its constituent meeting of 15 October 1981, the Committee of Inquiry into the situation of women in Europe adopted 18 topics of inquiry, including the implementation to date of the third directive ('Social Security', target date - 1984) for which Mrs Ien van den HEUVEL was appointed rapporteur.

The draft report was considered by the committee at its meetings of 16-17 June 1983 and 3-4 November 1983.

This report was unanimously adopted at the meeting of 3-4 November 1983.

The following took part in the vote: Mrs CINCIARI RODANO (chairman), Mrs van ALEMANN (vice-chairman), Mrs van den HEUVEL (rapporteur), Mr ESTGEN, Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN and Mrs SPAAK.

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For details of the procedure followed in carrying out this inquiry, see the introduction to the explanatory statement.

Articles to be included in the final motion for a resolution of the committee of inquiry

1. Regrets that the Commission has not submitted the report specified in the first indent of paragraph 2(d) of the resolution of 11 February 1981 on the progress made in the Member States in the transitional phase of application of the Directive on social security.

Takes note of the principles enunciated in Point 4 of the 1982-1985 action programme

- hopes that the Community directive announced in that programme on the issues not covered by Directive 79/7 will be submitted as quickly as possible,
- deplores the fact that certain governments of the Member States (France, Italy, Greece) have not replied to the questionnaire.

The Commission would therefore be advised to devote special attention to the situation in these countries.

2. It is a matter for concern that, during the transitional period for the implementation of the third directive, at least two Member States (Belgium and the Netherlands) have adopted measures which are aggravating the existing situation and run counter to the very principles of the directive. Both Parliament (doc.1-101/82) and the Commission (cf debate on action programme) have condemned such action.

3. The approach of these 2 countries, as evident in their replies, is essentially wrong in that they do not rule out benefits related to the partner's income.

4. In various Member States the granting, calculation and/or the continuation of social benefits are based on the family unit (whether or not marriage is involved). This is contrary to the letter and spirit of the Directive.

5. The Commission is urged at once to implement Article 169 of the Treaty in respect of those Member States adopting measures which obviously fall short of or run counter to the third directive.

6. There is every reason for the Commission to monitor carefully developments in the adjustment of legislation to the Directive, to remind Member States of the principles embodied in the Directive, and in particular to provide quickly a more precise description of the concept of indirect discrimination.

7. The Commission is requested to submit as soon as possible proposals on the basis of the action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women, extending the principle of equal treatment to areas not covered at present (such as family allowances or survivors' pensions) or those where exemptions could be granted (such as on retirement age, long-term increases in benefits, retention of benefits by women who have brought up a child, or opting out of a statutory scheme).

Introduction

The schedule for drawing up this report, which the rapporteur submitted to the chairman of the Committee of Inquiry in January 1983, turned out to be too optimistic.

The questionnaires sent to the ministers concerned in the Member States on 2 February (see annex I) were answered very late in a number of cases and in some instances not at all.

When this draft report was prepared, replies had still not been received from three Member States, namely :

- Italy - when visiting this country, the rapporteur took the opportunity on 4 November 1982 to speak to competent and/or expert bodies and persons, as a result of which she feels able to answer the question herself in general terms,
- Greece - on 23 September 1982, the rapporteur talked with the Minister of Social Affairs, Mrs Peraki. The data contained in this report are drawn from this conversation,
- France - no reply has been received. During a visit to Paris on 8-12 November 1982, the rapporteur attempted to arrange an interview with the Minister of Social Affairs and Solidarity. This was not possible however, although she was able to see the Chef de Cabinet of the then Minister for Womens Rights, Mrs Yvette Roudy, who promised her every assistance. The Department of Social Affairs has since claimed not to have received the questionnaire concerned. The Secretariat has enclosed a new copy of the questionnaire in every letter of reminder, unfortunately to no avail. The Committee of Inquiry's schedule unfortunately does not permit further delay and the French Government has been informed of this fact.

Answers in writing were passed on by the rapporteur to the committee members from the countries concerned for their comments. No one has found it necessary to reply, from which the rapporteur assumes that the committee members also accept the authenticity of the answers given.

I --- Existing Legislation

Question I of the questionnaire asks for a broad outline of existing social legislation safeguarding citizens against the consequences of

- . sickness
- . disablement
- . old age
- . accidents at work and job-related illnesses
- . unemployment

The replies received illustrate the diversity of social legislation in the various countries.

The following sets out as much as possible of the information provided by the Member States, edited only where necessary for clarity.

Belgium

Sickness and accident insurance

In conjunction with the Royal Decree of 4 November 1963, the law of 9 August 1963 regulating compulsory sickness and accident insurance provides citizens with protection against the consequences of sickness and invalidity.

Old-age and survivors' pensions

A. Pension scheme for wage-earners

This scheme applies to employees who have worked in Belgium under a contract of employment.

Legislation

Royal Decree No. 50 of 24 October 1967 on old-age and survivors' pensions for wage-earners (Belgian Official Gazette of 27 October 1967).

Implementing decree

Royal Decree of 21 December 1967 on the general regulation of the system of old-age and survivors' pensions for wage-earners (Belgian Official Gazette of 16 January 1968).

B. Basic benefit for persons who have not exercised an occupation or who only receive a small pension

This benefit is means-tested.

Legislation

Law of 1 April 1969 establishing a guaranteed income for the elderly (Belgian Official Gazette of 29 April 1969).

Implementing decree

Royal Decree of 29 April 1969 on the general provisions for a guaranteed income for the elderly (Belgian Official Gazette of 1 May 1969).

Accidents at work and job-related illnesses

Accidents at work : Law of 10 April 1971 concerning accidents at work,
Job-related illnesses : Laws on compensation for injury as a result of
job-related illnesses, coordinated on 3 June 1970.

Unemployment

The basic provisions in Belgian legislation for unemployment are laid down in :

- the Decree of 28 December 1944 on workers' social security (also establishing the National Employment Service)
- the Law of 14 February 1961 for economic expansion, social progress and financial recovery,
- the Royal Decree of 20 December 1963 on unemployment and the provision of work.

For certain categories of employees (miners, merchant seamen, handicapped workers employed in sheltered workplaces, elderly dismissed employees) special provisions apply (Decree of 10 January 1945 on social security for miners and equivalent workers, Decree of 7 February 1945 on social security for merchant seamen, Royal Decree of 24 June 1971 on unemployment benefit for handicapped workers employed in sheltered workplaces, Royal Decree of 19 February 1975 on the right of elderly dismissed employees to unemployment benefit, etc.).

In addition, there are other important Royal and Ministerial Decrees, such as the Ministerial Decree of 4 June 1964 concerning unemployment.

Recent years have seen numerous changes to the regulations concerning the implementation of the right to unemployment benefit : the Royal Decrees of 24 December 1980 and 30 March 1982 concerning the provision of work and employment.

Federal Republic of Germany

Sickness

- 10 Reich Insurance Code of 19 July 1911 (RGBL, p. 509)
- 11 Reich miners law of 23 June 1923 (RGBL. I, p. 431), as published on 1 July 1926 (RGBL. I, p. 369)
- 12 Social Code (SGB)
 - 120 SGB - General Part - 11 December 1975 (BGBL. I, p. 3015)
 - 121 SGB - common provisions for social insurance, 23 December 1976 (BGBL. I, p. 3845)
- 12 Law for the continued payment of remuneration for work in the event of sickness (continued wage payment law), 27 July 1969 (BGBL. I, p. 946)
- 14 Law on health insurance for farmers, 10 August 1972 (BGBL. I, p. 1433)
- 15 Law on social insurance for the handicapped, 7 May 1975 (BGBL. I, p. 1061)
- 16 Law on employment protection, 25 June 1969 (BGBL. I, p. 582), persons receiving unemployment benefit, unemployment assistance, maintenance benefit and tideover assistance are insured against sickness (Articles 155 et seq. of the abovementioned law).

Disablement (inability to exercise an occupation or to support oneself)

- 20 Section 4 of the Reich Insurance Code, updated as the new legal provision for workers' pensions of 23 February 1957 (BGBL. I, P. 45)
- 21 Public officials' insurance law of 20 December 1911 (BGBL. I, p. 989) updated as the new legal provisions for public officials' insurance of 23 February 1957 (BGBL. I, p. 88)
- 22 Reich miners law of 23 June 1923 (RGBL. I, p. 431) updated as the new legal provisions for miners' insurance of 21 May 1957 (BGBL. I, p. 533)
- 23 Social Code (SGB)
 - 230 SGB - General Part - 11 December 1975 (BGBL. I, p. 3015)
 - 231 SGB - common provisions for social insurance - 23 December 1976 (BGBL. I, p. 3845)

- 24 Law concerning old-age assistance for farmers, as published on 14 September 1965 (BGBL. I, p. 1448)
- 25 Corporative social provisions, particularly for members of the independent professions, mainly covered by Länder regulations.

Old-age

See 'invalidity'.

Insurance covering accidents at work and job-related illnesses

- 40 Section 3 of the Reich Insurance Code, updated as the new law regulating the right to statutory accident insurance, 30 April 1963 (BGBL. I, p. 241)
- 41 Law on workers' protection, 25 June 1969 (BGBL. I, p. 582), persons receiving unemployment benefit, unemployment assistance, maintenance benefit and tideover assistance are insured for certain activities.

Unemployment

Law on workers' protection, 25 June 1969 (BGBL. I, p. 582).

N.B. : The laws referred to above have been repeatedly amended and supplemented

Denmark

1. a) Law on sickness and maternity benefits, see coordinated law No. 66 of 21 February 1978. The law was later amended by law No. 233 of 4 June 1980.
- b) Law on public health insurance, see coordinated law No. 94 of 9 March 1976.
- c) Law No. 324 of 19 June 1974 on hospitals.
2. Law concerning disablement pensions, see coordinated law No. 677 of 15 December 1978.
3. a) Law on old-age pensions, see coordinated law No. 676 of 15 December 1978, and
- b) Law on supplementary labour market pensions, see coordinated law No. 203 of 3 May 1978.
4. Law No. 79 of 8 March 1978 on industrial accident insurance.
5. Law on job placement, unemployment insurance, etc., see coordinated law No. 373 of 15 August 1980.

France

No information.

Greece (Information from a personal interview with Mrs Peraki, Minister for Social Affairs).

Sickness and disability

When an employee has been sick, a committee examines whether a period of convalescence is required and how long it should last. During this period the employee receives benefit.

At the end of the period of convalescence, the amount of benefit paid depends on the extent of disablement.

After two years the case is re-examined. If the employee is more than 36% fit for work, he or she is obliged to return to work.

Old age

The pensionable age is 60 for men and 55 for women.

The amount of pension is related to the time spent in employment. As of recently, uninsured persons receive a small pension from the age of 60.

Unemployment

Benefit for a period of six months.

Assistance may then be obtained once a year per family.

Special assistance programme

Families may receive assistance related to the number of children.

Ireland

Sickness

Disability benefit is a weekly flat-rate social insurance payment made to persons during periods of incapacity for work. The payment includes increases in respect of adult and child dependants. Pay-related benefit (see

below) may be payable as a supplement.

Invalidity

Normally after 12 months on disability benefit an insured person who is deemed to be permanently incapable of work may qualify indefinitely for invalidity pension in place of the disability benefit. It is a weekly flat-rate social insurance payment with additions for adult and child dependants.

Unemployment

Unemployment Benefit is payable to an unemployed person who satisfies the contribution conditions and who is available for and genuinely seeking work. It is a weekly flat-rate social insurance benefit with additions for adult and child dependants payable for a maximum of 390 days in any one period of interruption of employment. Pay-related benefit may also be payable. After entitlement to unemployment benefit is exhausted, or when an unemployed person has no entitlement to unemployment benefit because of an inadequate or no insurance record, application may be made for unemployment assistance. This is a means-tested scheme and payment is a weekly flat-rate amount with increases for dependants.

Accidents at work and occupational diseases

Under the Occupational Injuries Insurance Scheme, injury benefit is payable to an insured person during a period of incapacity for work due to an occupational accident or disease. It is a weekly flat-rate amount payable for a maximum of 26 weeks with increases for dependants. Pay-related benefit may also be payable. When entitlement to injury benefit is exhausted an insured person suffering from loss of physical or mental capacity as a result of an occupational accident or disease will qualify for disablement benefit, normally a disablement gratuity if the degree of disablement is less than 20% or disablement pension if the degree of disablement is greater than 20%. If the person is still incapable of work and does not qualify for disability benefit, unemployability supplement may be payable. This is a weekly flat-rate amount payable at the same rate as disability benefit.

Old Age

From the age of 65 an insured person may qualify for a retirement pension if he is not in insurable employment. This is a weekly flat-rate amount. At 66 an old age contributory pension is payable to an insured person when

he retires from employment or not. It is also a weekly flat-rate amount. It cannot be paid with a retirement pension. A person aged 66 not qualifying for a pension under the insurance scheme may qualify for a non-contributory old age pension. This is a means-tested scheme. The pension is a weekly flat-rate amount.

Supplementary Welfare Allowance

Where need exists, whether or not any of the above benefits or pensions are paid, application may be made for supplementary welfare allowance, which may supplement or replace any of the schemes referred to above. Entitlement depends on the applicant satisfying a test as to need.

Pay-Related Benefit

In addition to weekly flat-rate payments, persons in receipt of disability, unemployment or injury benefit may qualify for pay-related benefit. This is calculated as a percentage (40% maximum) of pay between £25 and £190 per week. It is paid for a maximum of 63 1/2 weeks.

Italy (information gathered from personal interviews)

Sickness

In the event of sickness, persons are entitled to benefit amounting to about two-thirds of previous earnings.

Disablement

Persons are entitled to benefit if contributions have been paid for at least 5 years.

Old Age

Persons are entitled to benefit if contributions have been paid for at least 15 years.

Unemployment

Entitlement to benefit varies widely depending on the sector of employment.

Luxembourg

Book I of the social insurance code concerning manual workers;
law of 29 August 1951, concerning public officials and employees;
law of 23 April 1979, for the independent professions;
law of 13 March 1962, for farmers;
Grand Ducal Decree of 24 May 1979 concerning self-employed intellectual workers.

Book III of the social insurance code, for workers;
law of 29 August 1951, for employees in the private sector;
amended law of 29 May 1951, concerning craftsmen, traders and manufacturers;
law of 3 September 1956, for farmers;
law of 23 May 1964, concerning self-employed intellectual workers.

Book II of the social insurance code

The law of 30 June 1976

- 1) establishing an unemployment fund,
- 2) laying down provisions for the granting of benefit in the event of full unemployment.

Netherlands

Sickness

Law on health insurance (Z.W.)
Health insurance fund law (Z.F.W.)
General law on special sickness costs (A.W.B.Z.)

Disablement

General law on occupational disablement (A.A.W.)
Law on occupational disablement insurance (W.A.O.)
Law on health insurance (Z.W.)

Old Age

General law on provisions for old age (A.O.W.)

Accidents at work and job-related illnesses

Covered by the laws listed under sickness and disablement.

Unemployment

Law on unemployment (W.W.)

Law on unemployment benefits (W.W.V.)

National collective regulations for unemployed workers (R.W.W.)

United Kingdom

Main social security legislation covering sickness, disablement, old age,
accidents at work and job-related illness and unemployment

- . Social Security Act 1975
- . Social Security (Northern Ireland) Act 1975
- . Supplementary Benefits Act 1976
- Social Security (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 1977
- Social Security (Miscellaneous Provisions) (Northern Ireland) Order 1977
- Supplementary Benefits (Northern Ireland) Order 1977
- Social Security Act 1980
- Social Security (Northern Ireland) Order 1980

Question II of the questionnaire asked whether existing laws respected
the principle of equal treatment as formulated in the Directive on equal
treatment in matters of social security.

Question III concerned the adjustment of legislation, or existing plans to
that effect. In many of the replies from the Governments, both questions
were answered together. An outline is given below.

Summary

Sickness and accident insurance

Article 216(10) of the Royal Decree of 4 November 1963 concerning the
provisions relating to the continuation of insurance for working women who leave work to
care for their working husbands to qualify for the maximum old age pension,
did not conform to the provisions of Article 4 of the Directive of
December 1978.

Changes to this article have been considered but these depend on a
clarification of the legal provisions concerning old-age pensions.

Old-Age and survivors' pensions

Subject to the provisions of Article 7 of the Directive, the laws and regulations in this sector comply with the principles of Article 4 of the Directive.

In deference to the principle of equal treatment for men and women, the Government intends to give men the opportunity of early retirement with a pension at the age of 60. This rule will however be subject to an important restriction, in that permission will only be given if the employer takes on another employee.

Accidents at work and job-related illnesses

In compliance with the Directive.

Unemployment

The Royal Decree of 20 December 1963 concerning unemployment and the provision of work differentiates between various categories of unemployed (cf. Article 160) with different unemployment benefits for each of these categories.

The most recent amendments to Article 160 of this Decree date from 24 December 1980 and 30 March 1982.

Previously, unemployed persons were divided into only two categories, heads of households and non-heads of household. There are now three categories, i.e.

1. employee heads of household,
2. single employees,
3. other employees.

As before, all employees who are heads of household receive an unemployment benefit equal to 60% of last earnings, whereas after one year of unemployment, those who are single or cohabiting are only entitled to 40% of last earnings. After a period of two years plus three months for each year of employment, the last two categories however receive only a flat-rate benefit.

In addition, the concept of employee head of household was given a more general sense by the Ministerial Decree of 24 December 1980 amending the

Ministerial Decree of 4 June 1964 on unemployment, to mean any employee who cohabits with a spouse, or person of the other sex, and does not receive income from work or other substitute income.

A study published in the January issue of the monthly periodical of the I.V.A. (Board of Labour) shows that 39% of men who are fully unemployed and entitled to benefit are heads of household as against 61% who are not, whereas 5% of women who are fully unemployed and entitled to benefit are heads of household compared with 95% who are not.

The secretariat of the Women's Employment Committee, which was evidently asked by the Belgian Government to prepare the replies to the questionnaire, states that it is unaware of any plans to amend the unemployment regulations to meet the requirements of Directive 79/7/EEC.

Federal Republic of Germany

Article 3 of Directive 79/7/EEC states that the Directive does not apply to benefits for family members. Moreover, discrimination between men and women is in any case prohibited under Article 3 (2) of the Basic Law. Therefore, as regards statutory pension insurance, statutory accident insurance, regulations for corporative benefits, and old-age assistance for farmers, no regulation can currently be said to conflict with the above Directive.

Article 4 of Directive 79/7/EEC (no discrimination in the calculation of benefits) will require the Federal Republic to adjust its pension laws, under which different tables for men and women have hitherto been used for the calculation of the first 5 calendar years and certain periods without payment of contributions, i.e. periods of education.

Such a new regulation has also been made necessary by the decision of the Federal Constitutional Court of 16 June 1981 stating that the provisions of Article 32(4)(b) of the public officials' insurance law (Article 1255(4)(b) of the Reich Insurance Code) is contrary to the Basic Law, as it attributes to insured women lower gross annual earnings than to insured men. The Federal Government is currently preparing legal provisions to eliminate this unequal treatment. At the moment, it plans to incorporate appropriate proposals in the 6th Bill of Amendment to the pension insurance regulations and to shortly decide on this matter.

Denmark

The Ministry considers that existing legislation complies with the Directive and that Denmark therefore does not need to introduce new laws on account of this Directive.

France

No information.

Greece

Existing social legislation does not differentiate between men and women, apart from in the child benefit regulations, under which the father receives the benefit in the majority of cases and not the mother.

There are no plans for modifications to comply with the Directive.

Ireland

The features of the schemes referred to which are not in conformity with the terms of the EEC Directive concern the entitlements of certain married women. A lower rate of unemployment benefit, disability benefit, invalidity pension and occupational injury benefit is payable to certain married women than to other beneficiaries. Furthermore, in the case of unemployment benefit the duration of the payment is limited to 312 days as against 390 days generally. In the case of unemployment assistance the conditions under which married women can qualify are more restrictive than those applied to other categories. In relation to all benefits the conditions under which married women may qualify for increases in respect of dependants are different from those applying to other claimants.

An inter-departmental working party has since submitted a report on the problems of adjustment. The Government is to take this report into account in reaching its decision.

Italy

Benefit rights, which are based to a large extent on employment history, do not differentiate formally between men and women except as regards

ensionable age. In practice, this system brings disadvantages for women who are often unable to work for a number of years due to family commitments. Adjustment of this legislation is not thought to be necessary now that Law No. 903 establishing the basic principle of equal treatment has come into force.

Luxembourg

Under the farmers' insurance scheme for sickness costs, the husband of an insured woman only receives benefit, as a derived entitlement, if he is supported by her on account of disability. Alongside the possibility of early retirement with pension from the age of 60 for insured persons of both sexes, the pension insurance scheme for workers in the private sector also allows insured women to retire even earlier from the age of 55. A bill amending the pension insurance legislation will eliminate this unequal treatment for men and women.

The Netherlands

The general law on provisions for old age, the law on provisions for unemployment, and a regulation implementing the law on unemployment (rules on daily wages, Article 9(a)(2)) : opinions have been requested concerning plans to amend the unemployment regulations and the law on provisions for old age, the aim being to ensure that the same rights and obligations apply to each individual. In addition, a report on a general review of the social security system is currently being discussed in the Second Chamber of the States-General (Parliament), taking into account the above objective.

United Kingdom

Note of existing inequalities in treatment in matters of social security in the UK and plans to adapt legislation

<u>Aspect and benefit</u>	<u>Change in law</u>
1. Dependent children	
At present a woman who lives with her husband can only qualify for an increase of national insurance or industrial injury benefit in respect of her children if she can show that the husband is incapable of self-support by reason of physical or mental infirmity and is likely to remain so for a prolonged period. This restriction does not apply if the husband claims the increase.	Changes are being made in stages : by November 1984, legislation will have been introduced to put men and women on an equal footing in claiming for children.
2. Dependent spouse	
(a) Unemployment, sickness, industrial injury and maternity benefits	
At present, a husband must be incapable of self-support in order to qualify as a wife's dependent.	The requirement that a man should be incapable of self-support will, from November 1983, be replaced by one that his earnings do not exceed the amount of the increase claimed.
(b) Retirement pension/invalidity pension	
(i) At present a woman cannot qualify for an increase of retirement pension or invalidity pension for her husband. A man can qualify for an increase for his wife but there is a tapered reduction in the amount of the dependency increase in relation to any earnings she has.	The EC Directive 79/7 does not require equal treatment in the granting of dependency increased for dependent spouses of beneficiaries of long-term benefits. From November 1983, however, a woman will be able to get an increase of invalidity benefit for her spouse if her husband's earnings do not exceed the amount of the increase claimed. There will be no tapered earnings rule.

3. Other inequalities in payment of benefits on the basis of age, sex or marital status

(a) Retirement and invalidity pensions

(i) At present, a woman can get retirement pension on the basis of contributions paid by her husband. The man cannot have entitlement on his wife's insurance.

The EC Directive 79/7 does not require equal treatment in this provision.

(ii) Retirement age is 60 for women and 65 for men.

As above.

(b) Housewives non-contributory invalidity pension

At present, a married woman must be incapable of work and of performing normal household duties.

A Departmental review of the household test is nearing completion.

(c) Invalid care allowance

Not payable to married women (unless separated from and not maintained by their husbands) or cohabiting women.

Extension of ICA is one of a number of competing social security priorities which can be considered only when resources have become available.

(d) Family income supplement

Family income supplement is a benefit for working families bringing up children on a low income. In the case of a married or unmarried couple the man must be in full-time work of at least 30 hours a week.

From November 1983, either the man or the woman will be able to satisfy the full-time work condition.

4. Social assistance insofar as it supplements or replaces schemes referred to in the questionnaire.

The scheme currently provides that the requirements and resources of a married or unmarried couple are aggregated for supplementary benefit purposes but that only the man may claim and receive benefit on the family's behalf.

From November 1983, either one of a couple will be able to claim, subject to certain conditions being satisfied.

III The last 4 questions in the questionnaire concerned

- discrimination arising from reference to marital or family status and the use of the 'breadwinner' principle,
- the exclusions in the Directive that the countries intend to invoke.

The following conclusions can be drawn from the replies :

Belgium

- The classification of employees into various categories expressly links employment benefit to family status. Since the Directive came into force, on 24.12.80 and 30.3.82, the situation has significantly worsened.

Federal Republic of Germany

- No discrimination, direct or indirect, although the Government mentions that, to comply with Article 4 of the Directive respect of benefits based on paid contributions, calculation tables differentiating between men and women need to be modified where women would receive a lower gross payment as a result.

Denmark

- With respect to the supplement to old-age and invalidity pensions for wives aged 62 to 67 who are not entitled to a pension themselves, the Danish Government invokes Article 7(1)(c) of the Directive.

France

- No information.

Greece

- The modest system of social security that exists in this country can be said to be based on marital or family status in that payments are limited to a family maximum.

Ireland

- Where both spouses are in employment, both are entitled to benefit. Welfare benefit is however means-tested on a family basis. The Irish Government says it will ensure that there is no longer any discrimination as to who may apply for benefit.

Italy

- A number of social benefits are based on the family unit.

Luxembourg

- No increases - no reference to marital status. Article 7 of the Directive is invoked for benefits paid to mothers for one year after childbirth.

The Netherlands - The standpoint is that indirect discrimination will no longer exist once the inequalities noted have been removed. However, the Dutch Government plans to invoke Article 7 of the Directive so that it would continue to be possible for the amount of benefit to be made dependent on the income of the partner. Moreover, petition No. 64/82 submitted by Mrs KITTY ROOZEMOND on behalf of the 'Breed Platform Vrouwen voor Economische Zelfstandigheid' (Women's Association for Economic Independence) explains that, on 1 January 1983, the Dutch minimum daily wage rules in the employees' insurance schemes under the law on unemployment, the law on disablement benefits, and the law on unemployment benefits were amended in such a way that only married family wage-earners and unmarried family wage-earners with children of less than 18 years of age were eligible. This amounts to a reinforcement of existing discrimination during the transitional period for the implementation of the Directive.

United Kingdom - Under the supplementary benefits rule, the resources of a married or unmarried couple are aggregated, although only the man may claim benefit. The Government intends to amend these rules to allow either one of the couple to claim. Family income supplements (for low-income working families with children) are only granted if the man is in employment. Although the British Government considers that the Directive does not apply in this instance, it is to introduce changes to the rules in November 1983. The British Government intends to invoke the exclusion provisions of Article 7.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

concerning the directive on the progressive implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women in matters of social security

- I. Please give a broad outline of the social legislation in your country which safeguards the citizen against the consequences of
 1. sickness
 2. disablement
 3. old age
 4. accidents at work and job-related illnesses
 5. unemployment
- II. Article 4 of the directive on 'equal treatment for men and women in matters of social security' lays down that 'there shall be no discrimination whatsoever on grounds of sex either directly or indirectly by reference in particular to marital or family status.' Can you indicate which, if any, of the laws listed under I do not respect this principle.
- III. In your country what plans are there to adapt these laws within the time limit laid down in the directive?
- IV. In your country is the principle of equal treatment in social legislation ('no discrimination ... either directly or indirectly by reference to marital or family status') applied, or has it been applied in such a way as to avoid any form of preferential treatment for the breadwinner in a household? If not, can you provide statistics to prove that women do not thereby suffer discrimination in practice?
- V. Do you consider that the provisions of Article 4, third indent, apply regardless of whether the spouse in question has an income of his/her own?
- VI. To which of the exclusions listed in Article 7 of the directive do you propose to have recourse? If you do invoke them what is your attitude to the periodic examinations provided for in Article 7(2) of the Directive?
- VII. If, in your country, modifications to the Directive should prove necessary, are you prepared to submit proposals for such changes to the supervisory body, i.e. the Commission of the European Communities, so that citizens do not have to contend with legal uncertainty?

EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

TOPIC NO. 3

of the

Report of Inquiry

on

the situation of women in Greece

Rapporteur: Mrs Konstantina PANTAZI

21 October 1983

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PE 86.199/fin/c

At its Constituent meeting of 15 October 1981, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe adopted 18 topics of inquiry including the situation of women in Greece for which Mrs Konstantina PANTAZI was appointed rapporteur.

The draft report was considered by the Committee at its meetings of 18/19 October 1982, 21/22 September 1983 and 17/18 October 1983. This report was adopted (9 in favour, 1 abstention) at the meeting of 17/18 October 1983. The following took part in the vote: Mrs CINCIARI RODANO, Chairman, Mrs VAYSSADE and Dame Shelagh ROBERTS, Vice-Chairmen, Mrs PANTAZI, rapporteur; Mr ENRIGHT (deputizing for Mrs LIZIN), Mr ESTGEN, Mrs GAIOTTI DE BIASE, Miss HOOPER, Mrs SALISCH (deputizing for Mrs MACCIOCCHI), Mrs SPAAK and Mrs WIECZOREK-ZEUL.

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This topic of inquiry was retained by the Committee of Inquiry pursuant to Article 47 of the Resolution of 11/2/81. The Bureau of the European Parliament authorised the bureau of the Committee and its rapporteurs to hold a public hearing in Athens in September 1982 with a view to the drafting of this inquiry. Extensive questionnaires were submitted to the Women's Associations represented at that hearing (PE 79.960), (PE 81.915), (PE 80.710), (PE 80.891).

The results of this hearing are largely incorporated in this inquiry which also reflects the recent revisions of Greek Social Law.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Short historical survey of the women's movement in Greece

Organized efforts by Greek women to improve their position in Greek society and secure an equal role with men in the economic and social life of the country have been going on for about a century. The course of these organized efforts, closely linked as they have been with wider economic and social developments, as well as with the history of the country, has varied from one period to another as regards the objectives and specific aims pursued, the resources available, and the type of organization and activity carried out, and it can generally be divided into four stages:

(a) From the end of the 19th Century to the Balkan Wars and the First World War: a period which could be described as a stage of 'apprenticeship' in collective work.

A fair number of women's organizations were set up with, as their focus or pretext, some aim which was often charitable or cultural, and not exclusively 'feminist' in character. Any problems more specifically related to women cropped up in the normal course of their activity, or 'flowed in' in the course of their cooperation with the corresponding European or international organizations, with whom the largest Greek organizations* had mutual links. These links, apart from providing opportunities for contact and the flow of information about relevant international developments, also furnished some very useful models of internal organization and functioning.

(b) From 1920 to 1944, i.e. the inter-war period and the period of the Second World War: a period of development for the Greek women's movement. The Asia Minor disaster (1922) - the terrible disruption to the economic and social life of the country from the destruction and losses of the war and the influx of 1.5 million Greek refugees - acted as a catalyst to the women's movement. The organizations started to be very active in nursing and social work, as well as in education and occupational rehabilitation of women, demonstrating their usefulness and value. The first 'women's' organizations were set up (Association for the Rights of Women, 1920, the Young Women's Christian Association (HEN), the Union of Greek Women Scientists, 1924). Interest centred on issues relating to the training and employment of women, while for the first time the demand for the right to play a part in political life was put forward. In the same period, the principal women's organizations with international links, in a move to increase their effectiveness as a pressure group without losing their independence, set up (in 1924) the Associated Women's Guilds, an informal grouping which has been functioning effectively to this day. One of their objectives was to win the right to vote. Thus, in 1930 Greek women won the right to vote only in

*Lyceum of Greek Women, National Council of Greek Women etc.

local government elections and only if they were 30 or over and knew how to read and write. (It is worth noting that at that time some 65% of the female population was illiterate, mainly women of 30 and above). This important stage ended with the Metaxas dictatorship in August 1936, which put a stop to all progress on women's questions and votes for women, as well as with the period of the War and enemy occupation and the dramatic levelling experiences through which Greek women, by sharing in the struggles and sacrifices of all the Greeks, became accepted in the public mind as equal and worthy comrades.

(c) From 1944 to 1974: After the liberation of Greece from the Germans, the women who had taken part in the resistance realized that they would have to struggle if they were not to return to their position as dependants, as had happened after the national liberation struggle in 1821. For the first time in Greece, women's organizations were founded which were not aimed solely at a select group of educated and progressive women, but at all women from all social classes. In May 1946, the first Pan-Helladic Women's Conference, attended by a large number of progressive women's organizations, took place in Athens. This conference decided that there would be permanent cooperation by women's organizations and founded the Pan-Helladic Federation of Women (POG). This was a further stage, one of more mature action for the women's movement, and one which also brought the first fruits. It was a harvest which would certainly have been richer and faster in coming if the country had not gone through the additional disaster and disruption of the civil war (1947-1949). One result of this, among many others, was that many developments and innovatory efforts were postponed, and work on women's questions moved 'at a snail's pace'. The oppressive political climate prevailing after the civil war left no room for social action with any political content. After the women's organizations had been dissolved, the traditional - charitable - women's guilds were confined to holding various events without putting forward any specific demands. Thus, the demand for full political rights only came to the fore again in 1949, and the right to vote and stand in parliamentary elections was only granted to Greek women in 1952. Legal Decree 2620/1953, which ratified the United Nations Convention on the Political Rights of Women, signed in New York, formally abolished all forms of discrimination against women and was followed by reforms which granted women the right to be appointed to all public positions (except in the church and the army)*, while educational and employment opportunities have increased progressively, though not at the speed 'promised' in 1944.

Political development at the beginning of the 1960s accelerated the emergence of a somewhat wider women's movement (in 1964 the Pan-Helladic Union of Women (PEG) and other groups were founded). However, the military dictatorship of 21 April 1967 put a stop to all forms of activity by the women's organizations. The only women's organizations which continued to function were those which agreed to confine their activity within the limits laid down by the Junta.

* By Law 705/1977 Greek women were allowed to join the army under certain conditions and subject to a great many restrictions. 76 -

(d) From 1975 to the present day: (since the fall of the dictatorship and the restoration of democracy). This has been a new stage for the women's movement. In the more general climate which prevails and which is favourable to collective endeavours and political action in general, to a degree which is unprecedented in recent Greek history, a great many new women's organizations have been set up*, with wide-ranging aims which, among other things, permit activism for political ends. There is a conscious striving from within their ranks to develop the movement in a way which will embrace social groups and geographical areas which so far have not been touched. Within a few years, the number of organized women has risen by more than 50% and there has been an impressive improvement in geographical distribution. The new organizations, to increase their effectiveness as a pressure group, also set up an informal collaboration group, the Coordinating Committee of Representatives of Women's Guilds (SEGES). The same period has also seen the emergence of autonomous women's groups, a new element in the Greek women's movement. These are small informal groups of women who campaign actively on one or more issues which they consider extremely important, in a combative and usually original way, though to no great effect.

General Observations

Historically, serious attempts at mobilization by Greek women have always coincided with the high points of the popular movement and dwindled away with it under the forces of reaction - as in the period of the Metaxas dictatorship (1936-1940), the period of terrorism which followed, the civil war and the period of the recent dictatorship (1967-1974).

A typical feature of the Greek women's movement until 1974 - except for the 1944-1947 period - was the lack of a 'mass feeling'. It did not make any systematic or organized attempt to increase the number of its members. For this reason it was often criticized as not being sufficiently representative socially and geographically speaking.

The new features added to the Greek women's movement since 1974 are:

- (a) the fact that the demands and claims which it puts forward have become political in character. In other words, it does not confine itself to a struggle exclusively aimed at securing equality for women, but also fights and takes stands in favour of solving more general problems which are common to both sexes, without however losing its special character, still less its organizational independence, and
- (b) the fact that it has become a mass movement and extended its geographical influence.

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* Democratic Women's Movement (1976), Greek Women's Union (EGE) (1976), Federation of Greek Women (OGE) (1976), and others

2. WOMEN AND EMPLOYMENT

2.1. Laws affecting the working woman

(descriptive summary of current legislation in Greece)

The first employment law covering most sectors of employment in Greece was Law 4029 of 1912 'on the employment of women and minors' which was supplemented with enabling legislation. That enactment, many of whose provisions apply today, was also the basis for the first measures to protect mothers.

The legislative entrenchment of sexual equality, which initially related to the public sector, began with the ratification of the United Nations Convention on the Political Rights of Women of 1953, which enjoins equality between men and women in access, career development and, generally speaking, all conditions of employment in all civil service posts and functions. In implementation of this Convention, Law 3192/1955 was passed: this abolished the provisions laying down restrictions on the appointment of women to civil service posts and functions. In the matter of the salaries paid to civil servants and employees of public corporate bodies, all forms of discrimination on grounds of sex had been abolished by Statutory Order 1502/1950.

The most important step towards the fuller entrenchment of equality of the sexes in Greece occurred with the Greek Constitution of 1975, Article 4, Paragraph 2 of which stipulates that 'Greek men and Greek women have equal rights and obligations'. This equality covers all personal and social rights.

At the same time, Article 22, Paragraph 1(b) of the Constitution states that 'all working people regardless of sex or other distinction are entitled to equal pay for equal work'. In addition, by the terms of Article 116, Paragraph 3 of the Constitution, provisions in ministerial regulations, collective labour agreements or arbitration decisions relating to the fixing of wages which infringe Article 22, Paragraph 1(b) of the Constitution remain valid only for a period of 3 years, that is until 11.6.1978.

Shortly before the Constitution was adopted, Greece, by Law 46/75, ratified United Nations Convention 100 concerning Equal Remuneration for Men and Women Workers for Work of Equal Value.

On the basis of the Constitutional Order on sexual equality in the national collective employment agreement of 1975 (26.2), provision was made for the progressive equalization of the lowest wages paid to unskilled female workers throughout the country to bring them up to the corresponding levels for male workers within 3 years, that is, by 1 March 1978. Since then these wage levels have been equalized.

The principle of equality has not so far been extended by law to other areas concerning employment such as recruitment, career development, social security, education and so on, though the appropriate procedures to put this into effect have been set in motion by the Ministries concerned.

In addition, Article 21 of the 1975 Constitution enshrines in law the principle of protection of the working woman, her children and her family and stipulates that specific measures be taken to protect the health of pregnant women and mothers, and of their children before and after birth, particularly for the period during which children depend exclusively on their mothers for their survival, their good health and their normal physical and spiritual development and mental balance (pregnancy and maternity leave, days off or shortened working hours for lactation, allowances, medical care and drugs, a ban on certain dangerous occupations etc.). It also stipulates that the right of such women to work must be ensured (protection from dismissal). Special measures are laid down for working women of child-bearing age to protect them from environmental and other working conditions which may have a harmful effect on the normal reproductive function. Social rights relating to maternity and the raising of children apply equally to all women on the same conditions, as well as to their children, and no form of discrimination against them based on the marital status of the mother (married, unmarried) or the status of the child (whether born of a married or unmarried mother or adopted) is permitted.

Nevertheless, existing law for the protection of mothers is case-law and is complicated and in certain cases contradictory. What is more, it leaves certain categories of working women uncovered. The Ministry of Health and Social Security has announced that it is drawing up a draft bill to regulate this very sensitive area for the working woman, while the Greek Parliament recently passed Law 1302/82 ratifying United Nations Convention 103 concerning Maternity Protection in all sectors and branches of employment.

In more detail, the current arrangements for maternity protection are as follows:

1. Maternity leave and allowances - remuneration

(a) Civil servants and employees of public corporate bodies

Compulsory leave of two months before and two months after birth, on full pay, childbirth benefit (Articles 105, 114, 115 of the Civil Servants Code, Article 5 of Royal Decree 665/1962). The same protection is also given to women working in the Civil Service or in public corporate bodies on a private law contractual basis who hold established posts (Article 23, Paragraph 2 of Law 993/1979).

(b) Working women in the private sector

With regard to insurance benefits granted to working women on private sector contracts, only the main insurance organization, the Social Insurance Foundation (IKA), will be mentioned, since it is impossible to mention the other insurance organizations (numbering more than 200).

- Leave: i) For working women in clerical or manual occupations covered by the International Labour Convention No. 3 of 1920, which was ratified by Law 2274/1920: 12 weeks leave in all, of which 6 before childbirth (voluntary) and 6 after (compulsory). Women who do not use pre-childbirth leave are entitled to 8 weeks afterwards.
- ii) For women working in restaurants, confectioners' shops and similar establishments: 8 weeks leave in all, of which 4 at least after childbirth (Law 4029/1912). This leave is granted regardless of time previously spent in the job.
- iii) For working women who are not covered by International Convention 3 or Law 4029/1912 'on the employment of women and minors' special maternity and childbirth leave does not apply. Pregnancy and childbirth are viewed as illnesses and as such give entitlement to absence from work.

Benefits: For women directly insured with the Social Insurance Foundation

1. Pregnancy and childbirth benefits for 6 weeks before and 6 weeks after birth, as well as a single benefit payment in lieu of medical care and drugs from the Social Insurance Foundation (IKA) (Articles 39, 31 Paragraph 7, Statutory Order 1846/1951).
2. Supplementary benefit from the Manpower Employment Organization (OAED), to make up the working woman's earnings.

Remuneration: A working woman is entitled to paid leave as long as she has not used up the period of allowable absence for any other 'substantial unforeseen reason' (chiefly illness) in the course of the same year.

2.3. Reduced working hours - additional leave

Provision is made for these for both (a) civil servants and employees of public corporate bodies and (b) women working in the private sector, where there is provision for reduced working hours for breast-feeding.

2.4. Protection from dismissal

(a) Civil servants and employees of public corporate bodies

Article 104, Paragraphs 4 and 6 of the Constitution guarantee security of tenure regardless of sex.

(b) Working women in the private sector

The law prohibits their dismissal during pre- and post-maternity leave.

2.5. Paternity leave for working husbands

This type of leave is provided for in certain collective labour agreements.

2.6. Social infrastructure for the working woman

The Ministry of Social Services kindergartens currently functioning have a capacity of 40,500 places for children from 3 to 5 ¹/₂ years of age. The Patriotic Social Security and Prevention Foundation (PIKPA) has 29 infants' kindergartens with capacity for 2,200 children. Seven of the 29 infants' kindergartens have crèches. The National Provident Organization (EOP) has 3 independent kindergartens, 5 independent nurseries, 33 kindergartens and 69 nurseries. The EOP also operates 160-200 summer kindergartens covering between 1 and 3 months of each year which take in 4000-5000 infants during the months of greatest work stress.

In addition, the Ministry of Health and Social Security operates 15 subsidized baby and infant nurseries for the children of employees of the Civil Service and of large organizations and enterprises, which take in 1,500 children. There are also 35 subsidized private enterprise 'charitable' kindergartens and nurseries which provide space for 2,740 children.

To conclude, there are also private enterprise kindergartens with a capacity of 5,450 children.

Thus, overall capacity of the state kindergartens and nurseries is 45,226 places.

The immediate needs of mothers who are currently working and have children of baby or infant age are, by the most conservative estimates, 150,000 places. Consequently not even one-third of the real highest priority needs are being covered. And to the required places must also be added the needs of women who are not working because they are not able to leave their child at kindergarten. This latter number cannot be calculated¹.

2.7. Women are prohibited from working in dangerous occupations by a series of legislative provisions which set out in detail which occupations are regarded as dangerous (e.g. quarrying, underground mine working, occupations involving exposure to benzol, etc.).

2.8. Prohibited nocturnal occupations are also defined in laws which set out all the necessary preconditions.

2.9. Allowed nocturnal occupations

Exceptions to the restrictions on night work are only allowed in accordance with the preconditions and provisions set out in Articles 4 and 5 of International Convention 89. Every January the police authorities, provincial prefects and Labour Inspectors are required to submit to the Ministry details of working hours, the age of working women etc. Copies are submitted to the Labour Inspectorate and the police authorities.

¹ Source: Report by the Planning and Economic Research Centre (KEPE) on the Regional Development and Social Security Programme, 1980

2.10. Employment in practice

2.10.1. In Greece the part played by women in production is analogous to the part they play in the other fields of social life. Female employment is supplementary and ancilliary to male employment and is an extension of the role with which women are identified, in other words their role as wife, mother and housewife.

Consequently there are stark inequalities and discrimination as regards the occupations in which women are employed, the remuneration they receive and their career development in work.

2.10.2. The basic factors which have contributed to and generally encouraged the entry of Greek women into the production process are:

(a) industrialization, which has transformed female labour from the production of goods and services for individual consumption into regularly and systematically remunerated employment,

(b) the considerably increasing employment opportunities post-war, particularly in the '60s, created by rapid economic development in conjunction with the lower rates of pay for women enshrined in law, which directed the interest of employers seeking workers towards female employment,

(c) technological developments and improvements in production which have reduced the demand for muscle power, and

(d) the rise in the average standard of living of women, the reduction in the average age of marriage and the increase in child-bearing at an early age in conjunction with birth control; these have contributed to shortening the time during which women face the obligations of motherhood and to increasing the average period of employment for women.

2.10.3. From the point of view of women themselves, the basic factors which positively or negatively influence their decision to work are:

(a) their level of education: the more educated a woman is, the higher will be her remuneration and the greater the likelihood that she will work. Thus, whereas 69% of women who have taken a course of further education work, only 29% of women who finished secondary school work and of those who have primary school education, only 23% work. At this point we should also add women's heightened awareness of their capacities and the opportunities open to them, which are not put to the best use if they remain at home.

(b) the presence of pre-school age children in the family: the presence of small children combined with the absence of nursery schools and kindergartens is a significant obstacle to a woman's working. Only where there are relatives capable of looking after young children is a woman's decision to work made easier.

(c) Increased requirements of the family budget: the smaller the husband's income, the greater the likelihood that the woman will go to work to supplement the household income.

(d) The social position of the family is an important factor in a woman's decision whether to work. Research that has been done shows that women whose husbands are office workers (the criterion used to define the social position of the family) are more interested in working than women whose husbands are manual workers¹.

(e) The family's level of urbanization also has a significant effect on a woman's decision whether to work. Thus, married women in urban areas are more likely to be working (8% more) than married women in rural areas, because in urban areas there are more employment openings, and the social environment is less conservative and more readily accepts the idea of women working. In addition, a woman can find a great deal more help with housework and looking after the children in urban areas.

2.10.4. Actual employment situation

1. Workforce

<u>Year</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>%</u>
1971	2,347.4	72.4	897.3	27.6
1981	2,509.1	68.1	1,172.6	31.8

2. Employed

<u>Year</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>%</u>
1971	2,280.4	72.5	862.6	27.4
1981	2,243.3	68.7	1,105.9	31.3

3. Unemployed

<u>Year</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>%</u>
1971	67.0	65.8	34.7	34.1
1981	81.8	55.1	66.6	44.9

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE), Statistical Yearbook 1980,
National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE), Employment Survey 1981

¹ A. Zisimopoulos: 'Determining factors in female employment',
Planning and Economic Research Centre (KEPE), 1975

In the period from 1971-1982 there was a noticeable increase in the number of women in the workforce, whereas in the previous decade, that is, from 1961-1971, there was a reduction in that figure (from 32.0% in 1961 to 27.6% in 1971). The rise over the decade from 1971-1981 is chiefly due to improvements in education for women which is a positive factor in female employment, as well as to the expansion in the service sector which for the most part absorbs available female workers. There was also a reduction in emigration by women, chiefly of productive age.

2.10.5. Employment by age group

<u>In thousands</u>	<u>1981</u>				<u>1977</u>			
	<u>GREECE</u>				<u>GERMANY¹</u>			
	<u>Men</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>%</u>
14 years	8.1	0.3	4.5	0.4	(
15-19	98.1	4.0	60.4	5.5	(6.0	8.7	
20-24	122.3	5.0	109.4	9.9		8.4	14.2	
25-29	249.5	10.3	120.8	10.9		10.9	12.5	
30-44	863.0	35.6	379.0	34.3		40.3	32.8	
45-64	939.3	38.8	383.3	34.7		32.6	30.1	
64 and over	142.6	5.9	48.4	4.3		1.8	1.7	
Total	2,422.9	100.0	1,105.8	100.0		100.0	100.0	

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE) Employment Survey, Vol.2, 1981

The breakdown of the number of women in employment by age shows that, of all women working in Greece, those aged 14-29 are the greatest in number in comparison with working men of the corresponding ages. This is due to the fact that more men than women at that age are studying or doing their military service, while at the same time most women of those ages have not yet married (the average age of marriage for women is 23). In the age groups above 29 there are fewer women workers than men, which is chiefly due to the fact that women take on family obligations in marriage. We must, however, point out that comparing the figures for Greece with those for Germany we see that there are more women over 29 in the workforce in Greece than in Germany, while for those under 29, the number is smaller in Greece than in Germany.

¹ Source: EUROSTAT, Labour Force Sample Survey, 1977

2.10.6 <u>Employment of women by sector</u>				<u>In thousands</u>				
<u>1971</u>				<u>1981</u>				
	<u>Men</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>%</u>
<u>Primary Sector</u>		<u>37.0</u>		<u>55.2</u>		<u>26.0</u>		<u>41.6</u>
Agriculture, stock-breeding, etc.	834.4	36.2	478.1	55.2	622.3	25.6	460.5	41.6
Mining	19.5	-	1.5	-	18.8	0.4	0.4	-
<u>Secondary Sector</u>		<u>28.5</u>		<u>17.3</u>		<u>36.1</u>		<u>18.1</u>
Industry	404.3	17.5	150.1	17.3	485.9	20.0	194.7	18.1
Power	22.1	-	2.6	-	26.1	4.1	4.1	0.3
Construction	254.9	11.0	1.5	-	290.4	12.0	2.1	0.2
<u>Tertiary Sector</u>		<u>33.1</u>		<u>26.7</u>		<u>37.4</u>		<u>39.9</u>
Commerce	284.5	12.3	77.5	8.9	359.6	14.8	168.2	15.2
Transport	198.6	8.6	13.0	1.5	247.4	10.2	26.4	2.3
Banking	57.3	2.4	21.1	2.4	78.1	0.3	38.4	3.4
Services	227.9	9.8	121.1	13.9	292.9	12.1	210.8	19.0

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE), Population Census 1971
National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE), Employment Survey 1981

(a) Women in Greece are mainly employed in agriculture (42%) and services (40%).

Although in the last decade the number of women employed in agriculture has fallen somewhat, agriculture is still the sector which chiefly absorbs the Greek working woman. Although women working in agriculture are a unified group with common problems and characteristics, there are certain differentiating factors between women working for a daily wage at peak periods in other people's fields and those working in their father's or husband's fields. Women who work in other people's fields move from area to area in search of work and very often also work in factories, either on a seasonal basis or more permanently. Many women who have their own holdings also work in factories, to supplement the family income. We must point out here that in Greece the majority of farming families have their own holdings, so that the number of waged female farm workers is only 11,000 out of a total of 460,000 Greek female farm workers. The Greek female farm worker has a limited education. Out of the 460,000 female farm workers, only 400 have a certificate of further or higher education, 4,400 have completed secondary education, 7,400 have attended 3 years of secondary school, 240,000 have a primary school leaving certificate, 128,000 have not completed primary education and 80,000 are completely illiterate (cf the table on page 13).

A consequence of their low educational level is that they have taken their oppressed and exploited state for granted, and that they function passively and submissively and do not question their given role in the family and their social environment. At the same time they also hand on this received ideology relating to the roles of the two sexes to their children.

The Greek female farm worker has obligations but non-existent rights. She works hard for more than 14 hours a day without her work being recognized, since even the Statistical Service describes her as 'an ancillary unpaid member of the family'. She does not demand remuneration and rarely takes part in the family's economic decision taking. She does not have control over her own property but accepts and carries out the man's decisions, whether he be her father or her husband.

(b) The number of women in the secondary sector, particularly in industry went up somewhat in the decade from 1971-1981, though out of the total of women in work, the number employed in industry is only 18.1%, a percentage only slightly higher than that for 1971 (17.3%).

In this sector too the level of education of women is fairly low: out of 195,000 working in industry, 4,600 are graduates of higher or further education, 33,200 have completed secondary education, 11,000 attended 3 years of secondary school, 120,000 completed primary education, 20,000 completed some years of primary education and 7,000 are illiterate (see table on page 13).

The picture with regard to the educational level of these women, without inspiring any optimism, is much better than that for female farm workers, as is clear from the following table:

Employment of women by sector of economic activity and level of education

Educational level

Categories of economic activity	Overall total	Graduates of higher education	Attending or have attended establish- ments of higher education	Certi- ficate of secondary education	Three- year secondary education	Certi- ficate of primary education	Certi- ficate of at least one year's attendance at primary school	No schooling at all
Total	1,106,000	98,000	6,900	201,933	38,334	482,866	179,400	99,400
Agriculture, stockbreeding, forestry, hunting, fisheries	460,533	333	67	4,400	7,400	240,400	128,533	79,400
Heavy and light industry	194,733	3,600	1,000	33,200	10,667	119,400	19,733	6,933
Commerce, catering, hotel trade	168,200	6,267	1,867	55,933	11,933	74,733	17,400	5,887
Banking, insurance, etc.	38,466	10,333	1,000	23,467	400	2,400	533	333
Services	210,801	74,487	2,933	67,200	5,267	41,267	12,467	6,200

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE), Employment Survey, 1981

Women employed in the industrial sector are mainly directed into traditional branches such as the foodstuffs and textile industries (as is also clear from the table which follows) which require a low level of skills and are consequently paid at low rates. These branches have no prospects of dynamic development, and in the longer term they are becoming disadvantaged (a fact which applies today in EEC countries to the textile industry, ready made clothing, footwear, foodstuffs, etc.), and this creates unemployment problems for women.

The majority of women employed in industry regard their work as occasional and temporary and have no ambitions for career development; consequently, they do not take part in trade union activity to improve their working conditions, so that there is no prospect of an improvement in their position. An additional factor in explaining why women do not demand better working conditions is their vulnerable position as mothers and their aspiration to be able to combine housework with paid work.

Most women working in industry are farm workers who have moved to the large urban centres, where industry is mainly located; they therefore bring with them the attitudes of farm workers who, when compelled to adapt to new social models, often find themselves completely at a loss. They have difficulty adapting to the industrial environment and acquiring the consciousness of the industrial worker, with the result that they face great problems.

Employment in industry by branch and sex

1978	%	
	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>
Foodstuffs industry	13.5	24.9
Beverage industry	2.2	2.4
Tobacco industry	1.0	3.8
Textile industries	7.4	28.7
Ready-made clothing and footwear industry	2.1	3.1
Timber industry	8.2	2.2
Furniture industry	6.5	1.2
Paper industry	1.8	1.9
Printing - Publishing	2.8	2.8
Leather and Fur industry	2.4	2.9
Rubber and plastics industry	3.0	3.9
Chemical industries	3.7	5.9
Oil and coal extraction	0.2	0.3
Non-metallic minerals	7.5	3.7
Primary iron and steel industry	1.9	0.4
Finished iron and steel products excl. machinery	10.5	4.0
Machinery and equipment excl. electrical	4.6	0.6
Electrical machinery and equipment	5.2	4.1
Transport	13.2	1.3
Others	1.9	1.9
	---	---
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE), Record of heavy and light industry, 1978

(c) Women employed in the service sector are chiefly directed towards commerce, where they are mostly employed as sales assistants, and also in the tourism sector. It is characteristic that in the decade from 1971-1981 the number of women employed in commerce more than doubled (from 77,000 it went up to 168,000) and the number employed in tourism less than doubled (from 121,000 to 211,000). The service sectors mainly employ women because they are regarded as 'women's' occupations, they do not require a high level of skill and they are seasonal (as, for example, tourism), a fact which discourages men who are regarded as needing to have a regular income to maintain their families.

2.10.7. Employment of women by individual occupation and their place in their occupation

The occupations chosen by women are determined by 3 factors:

- (a) the social and economic environment of the woman, which determines certain of her characteristics, such as her level of education, as well as the direction she takes in her studies (the daughter of a doctor becomes a doctor etc.), her own attitudes etc.,
- (b) social prejudices as to whether an occupation is suitable for a woman or not, and
- (c) the requirements of the labour market and the state of the economy.

Employment by occupation and sex

	<u>Men</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>%</u>
Persons in scientific and liberal professions and their technical assistants	119.7	5.1	63.8	7.0
Directors and senior administrators	18.3	7.8	1.6	0.2
Office workers	162.4	7.0	81.6	9.0
Tradesmen, salesmen	187.5	5.0	44.9	5.0
Employed in providing services	153.8	6.6	85.0	9.4
Employed in agriculture, animal husbandry, forestry, etc.	835.4	35.8	477.9	52.8
Artisans, labourers (excl. agriculture) and transport operatives	825.2	35.4	141.3	15.6
Others	<u>27.0</u>	<u>1.1</u>	<u>9.0</u>	<u>1.0</u>
Total	2,329.3	100.0	905.1	100.0

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece, Population Census 1971

2.10.8. Numbers employed by occupational statusIn thousands

	<u>Men</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>%</u>
Employers	214.7	8.8	18.7	1.7
Self-employed workers	903.1	37.3	200.8	18.1
Ancillary and unpaid workers	92.2	3.8	402.1	36.1
Salary and wage-earners	1,213.3	50.0	486.0	43.7
Others	<u>8.2</u>	<u>0.1</u>	<u>4.0</u>	<u>0.4</u>
Total	2,431.5	100.0	1,111.6	100.0

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece, (ESYE), Employment Survey,
2nd Quarter 1981

From the above tables we can see that out of every 100 women working, only 0.2 are directors and senior administrators, while the corresponding figure for men is 7.8. Women are directed to a much greater degree than men into the provision of services, agriculture and office jobs. We must point out that although the relative number of women in scientific professions seems to be greater than the number of men, i.e. 7.0% as against 5.1% of men, breaking down the figures further we discover that out of the total number of women in scientific professions, as well as their technical assistants, 25% are technical assistants working on an employee basis, while the proportion for men is 11%, which means that in this category the majority of women are technical assistants, employees of men who are employers, self-employed professionals or scientists.

The dependent position of women in whatever occupation they are employed in is typical. Thus women employers account for 1.7% of working women, while the corresponding figure for men is 8.8%. At the same time women included in the category described in statistical terms as 'ancillary and unpaid workers' account for 44% of working women, while the corresponding figure for men is 4%. We must also stress that 75% of all women in this category are aged between 30 and 65, whereas with men 73% of those working in this category are aged from 15 to 29. This means that once women have raised their children to a certain age they are employed in the family business as assistants, without receiving any remuneration. The men described as 'ancillary and unpaid workers', on the other hand, are mainly young (73% are aged between 15 and 29), in other words, they are young boys who, before raising a family and starting a career in some profession, also help out in the family business.

The sectors with the largest numbers of individuals employed as 'ancillary and unpaid workers' are agriculture (80%), commerce, catering and hotels (14%) and craft industries.

2.10.9 Level of training of working women

<u>Numbers employed, by level of training and sex</u>		
	<u>%</u>	
	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>
Graduates of higher education	8.0	8.9
Attending or having attended establishment of higher education	6.6	0.7
Holding certificate of secondary education	15.6	18.2
Holding certificate of three years' secondary education	8.1	3.4
Holding certificate of primary education	54.5	43.6
Primary education not completed	10.9	16.2
No schooling at all	<u>2.1</u>	<u>9.0</u>
	100.0	100.0

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE), Employment Survey, Second Quarter 1981

The educational level of working women is higher than that of men. This is due from the fact that 9% of all working women are graduates and 18.2% hold a certificate of secondary education, whereas with men 8% are graduates and 15.6% hold a certificate of secondary education.

This observation, in conjunction with the disadvantaged position of women in the occupational structure, and their disadvantaged position within individual occupations itself which has been examined above, leads us to the conclusion that women are the victims of flagrant injustices in the employment field, not because of their low level of education, as quite the opposite is the case, but because of the discrimination to which they are subjected on account of their sex.

The table which follows shows the position in the career structure and the level of education of men and women employed in the public sector. Here the injustice against women is flagrant: their advancement is in inverse proportion to their qualifications.

2.10.10 Distribution of permanent staff in the civil service by sex, educational level and position in the career structure

(a) Graduates of higher education

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Position in career structure (Grade)</u> ¹								
	<u>1</u>	<u>DG</u> ²	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>
<u>Men</u>	97.4	98.3	93.3	88.3	80.1	79.7	57.9	50.9	52.0
<u>Women</u>	2.6	1.7	6.7	11.7	20.9	20.3	42.1	49.1	48.0

(b) Graduates of technical colleges

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Position in career structure (Grade)</u>							
	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>
<u>Men</u>	97.5	98.9	90.8	91.1	93.1	80.7	69.9	45.6
<u>Women</u>	2.5	1.1	9.2	8.9	6.9	19.3	30.1	54.4

(c) Certificate of secondary education

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Position in career structure (Grade)</u>						
	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>
<u>Men</u>	73.0	64.6	64.2	57.0	53.6	38.9	34.8
<u>Women</u>	27.0	35.4	35.8	43.0	46.4	61.1	65.2

(d) Certificate of primary education

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Position in career structure (Grade)</u>					
	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>12</u>
<u>Men</u>	88.9	86.7	94.3	92.6	91.4	94.6
<u>Women</u>	11.1	13.3	5.7	7.4	8.6	5.4

Source: Ministry attached to the Prime Minister - Civil service Staff Statistics 1978

2.10.11. Unemployment

Greece's post-war economic development can be said to have contributed to the fact that no unemployment was created during that period. A solution to the structural unemployment which was the outcome of the change in the structural production was found with the opening of the channel known as emigration.

Thus, Greek women during that period did not remain unemployed, but emigrated, mainly to West Germany, as can be seen from the table below:

Emigration by Sex

	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>
1961	22,628	36,209
1971	27,810	33,935
1976	6,295	10,215

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE) Statistical Yearbook 1980

In recent years, in other words at the end of the 1970s and at the beginning of the 1980s, Greek emigrant workers started repatriating. This, combined with the economic crisis of that period, created a grave unemployment problem which chiefly affected women, who are more vulnerable in the labour market.

Unemployment by age and sex, 1981

<u>Age</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>In thousands</u>
				<u>%</u>
14 years	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4
15-19 years	10.1	12.3	12.5	18.7
20-24 years	16.5	20.1	24.9	37.3
25-29 years	17.0	20.7	11.3	16.9
30-44 years	20.5	25.0	11.5	17.2
45-64 years	17.1	20.9	6.1	9.1
65 years and over	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.1
Total	81.9	100.0	66.7	100.0

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE) Employment Survey,
2nd quarter, 1981

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Numbers of unemployed and unemployment rates by area and sex, 1981

	<u>Men</u>	<u>% Unemployment</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>% Unemployment</u>
Total for whole country	81.9	3.3	66.7	5.7
Athens area	41.7	5.1	33.9	10.0
Thessaloniki area	10.6	5.9	9.6	13.3
Other urban areas	14.4	3.1	12.9	7.5
Semi-urban areas	5.9	2.2	4.9	4.4
Rural areas	9.3	1.2	5.4	1.2

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE) Employment Survey,
2nd quarter 1981

Although women are 31% of the workforce, they account for 45% of the unemployed, while men, who are 69% of the workforce, account for 55% of the unemployed. The figures show that women are the first to be laid off at critical periods.

Young women (aged from 20-24) are worse affected by unemployment than women in the other age groups, and than men in the corresponding age group, as well as men in all the other age groups. Women above 25 seem to be less affected by unemployment than men and this is mainly due to the fact that they withdraw from the labour market of their own accord when they do not find work.

As the above table shows, overall unemployment is much higher for women than for men, and varies from area to area. Urban areas are worse affected than semi-urban and rural areas particularly the Athens area and, to an even greater degree, the Thessaloniki area. This is because the main employment sector in the semi-urban and rural areas is the agricultural sector, where most individuals are self-employed and under-employed, whereas in urban centres the main form of work is waged and salaried work dependent on others.

Another basic reason for rising female unemployment is, on the one hand, the protective legislation covering motherhood, as well as the increasing pattern of absence among women who try to combine the roles of mother/housewife with that of working woman, with the result that employers are reluctant to take on women or keep them at work if any problem arises, and, on the other hand, the complementary and ancillary character of female employment.

1.10.12. Remuneration

As early as 1978, on the basis of the stipulation in the 1975 Constitution to the effect that 'all working people, regardless of sex or other distinction, are entitled to equal pay for equal work', minimum wage and basic salary levels were made the same for men and women.

In practice, however, many ways are devised of violating this regulation de jure. In addition, the fact that the majority of waged and salaried men are paid above the lowest levels laid down by law makes it possible for women, who are usually considered unskilled, to be paid at the minimum level, while men who do the same work are classified as skilled workers and indirect discrimination thus takes place. A result of this unequal treatment is that the wages paid to female workers in industry are 69% of the wages paid to men, and salaries paid to women, again in industry, are 58% of corresponding men's salaries (1981 figures)¹. Also, average pay for female employees in retail trade in 1979 was 70% of the corresponding pay for men.

The evolution in remuneration of men and women in heavy and light industry is shown in the following table:

Average hourly wage paid to workers in heavy and light industry

In drachmas

<u>Year</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Women's wage as % of men's</u>
1976	50.5	35.4	70
1977	61.7	42.4	69
1978	76.4	52.8	69
1979	93.1	63.3	68
1980	118.3	80.2	68
1981 1st quarter	138.7	96.3	69

¹Source: The following table

Average salaries of office workers in industry

In drachmas

<u>Year</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Women's salaries as % of men's</u>
1976	15,525	8,622	55
1977	18,567	10,489	56
1978	22,119	12,518	57
1979	26,246	14,942	57
1980	31,957	18,290	57
1981 1st quarter	36,456	21,247	58

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE), Quarterly Remuneration Survey

Two interesting conclusions can be drawn from the figures given in the two tables. Firstly, the difference in remuneration for men and women is less with wage earners than it is with salary earners, and the reason for this is the over-supply of women who have completed secondary education and wish to do office work, where needs are fewer, and, on the other hand, the reluctance of women with rudimentary primary school education or even with no education at all to work as industrial workers, while industry's requirement for workers is much greater. Thus, the negotiating power of female workers in industry is greater than that of female office workers in industry.

The second conclusion to be drawn is that in the 1976/1981 period there was no reduction at all in differences of remuneration for male and female workers in industry, while the improvements in the pay variation for private-sector employees was very limited. Thus, despite the fact that the constitutional requirement for equality of pay for men and women in Greece was in force in March 1978, existing prejudices and stereotyped attitudes influenced the evaluation of various types of work, resulting in disguised forms of discrimination against women. Thus for example, certain types of work carried out exclusively or mainly by women are under-valued and classed in low pay-scale categories. This is due to the fact that these types of work are not regarded as 'heavy', and qualities which the persons doing such work are required to have, such as concentration, dexterity, accuracy, etc., are under-valued.

Legislation for equal pay for men and women has not in practice led to any improvement in women's pay.

2.10.13. Legal recourse

(a) To ensure that the right to equal pay is enforced, both for salaried workers in a private contract basis in the Civil Service and for salary earners in the private sector, existing legislation provides for the following forms of legal recourse:

- action before the civil courts, in accordance with Article 663 of the Code of Civil Procedure
- application for annulment to the arbitration appeal tribunals, in accordance with Article 9 ff. of Law 3239/55.

(b) As far as civil servants are concerned, their remuneration is regulated by law uniformly for both sexes. Current legislation does not provide for methods of legal redress comparable to those applying for salary earners in the private sector and salaried workers on a private contract basis in the Civil Service.

Legal redress can be sought either by the affected individual, who takes legal steps individually, or by the professional organization to which he or she belongs (Articles 663, 668 and 669 of the Code of Civil Procedure).

2.11. Implementation of Community Regulations

The three guiding directives

Enabling legislation for Directives 75/117/EEC, 76/207/EEC and 79/7/EEC has not been passed.

The government has announced that in the very near future Greek law will be brought in line with the directives concerned.

(For the moment the principle of equal pay and equal treatment is based on the 1975 Constitution, International Labour Convention No. 100 and collective labour agreements).

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3. TAXATION ON INCOME RECEIVED BY GREEK WOMEN FOR DEPENDENT OR INDEPENDENT WORK¹

3.1. Marital status of income tax payers

(a) Any natural person who has earned taxable income must, within the deadline set by law, make an annual individual tax declaration, on the basis of which the tax to be paid is calculated, regardless of whether that person is a man or a woman.

(b) For married persons, the husband and wife are required to make a joint tax declaration covering their incomes, the tax on which is calculated separately, and each of them is responsible for paying the sum due in proportion to his or her income. In such cases, any negative income balance for either of the two partners is not carried across to be deducted from the income of the other partner.

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Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs, Income Tax Directorate, Section A

If the income of the husband derives from a temporary (public or private limited) partnership between the spouses or from a business belonging to the wife which is economically dependent upon her husband, such income of the wife is added to her husband's other income and taxed in his name.

(c) The wife is required to make a tax declaration for her income from all sources in cases where the couple are separated and do not live together.

(d) The income of minors under 18 is added to the income of their father and, if there is no father or if he has lost his paternal authority, to the mother's income. The income of minors below 18 is taxed separately as an exceptional case when such income derives:

- (1) from their personal work,
- (2) from property settled on them either through a gift, with the exception of gifts made to them by their parents, or from an inheritance,
- (3) from pensions awarded to them because of the death of their father or their mother.

Women liable to income tax may deduct the following from their total income according to each case:

3.1. Married, divorced or widowed women paying income tax

- The personal allowance, i.e. 20,000 drachmas or 100,000 drachmas respectively.
- Tax-free allowances for under-age children and, in the case of a divorced woman, for under-aged children in her custody. Tax-free allowances are deducted for minor, for unmarried daughters regardless of their age, and, for boys, until they are 18 years old or, while they are studying at recognized educational establishments, up to the age of 25, as long as they are living with their mother and do not have an annual income of more than 55,000 drachmas.
- Tax-free allowances given for other dependants (parents, unmarried brothers and unmarried sisters with more than 67% disability, relatives up to the 3rd degree of kinship and up to the age of 16 who have lost both parents) as long as they live with the woman liable to income tax and their annual income is less than 55,000 drachmas (for those with 67% disability, income less than 150,000 drachmas).
- In the special case of a widowed tax payer with at least one child up to 12, her deceased husband's personal allowance is still deductible.

3.2. Married women liable to income tax

- If her husband has no income or if his income is not sufficient to cover deduction of the aforesaid tax-free allowances, the whole amount or the

difference, as the case may be, is transferred and subtracted from his wife's income.

- Through her tax declaration, a wife may ask, either initially or subsequently, for the tax-free allowances granted to herself, her parents, her unmarried brothers and unmarried sisters with 67% or more disability, and her relatives up to the 3rd degree of kinship and aged up to 16 who have lost both parents, to be deducted from her total income, in proportion to the level of income of each spouse, in other words, on the basis of their final tax liability as a family.

Certain items of expenditure actually incurred can also be deducted from total taxable income, on the grounds that they reduce tax paying ability, without distinction between men and women.

Specifically, a working woman, married or unmarried, may deduct from her income, without supporting documents, expenditure on the maintenance of her under-age children up to 6 years old living with her and not having an income of more than 55,000 drachmas or 150,000 drachmas if they are 67% or more disabled, equivalent to 10% of her income from paid services and professional work.

3.3. Child benefit

- The following applies to established civil servants regardless of sex. Approximately the same also applies to employees of the Civil Service and public corporate bodies working on a private contract basis.
- Child benefit is 5% for each child up to a total of 5 children and 7% for 6th and further children, and is calculated on the basis of the basic salary at a particular grade (the 6th) in the civil service career structure .
- It is granted to children born in wedlock, natural children, adopted children and legitimized or acknowledged children as long as they are unmarried and aged up to 18 or, if above 18, as long as they are physically or mentally incapable of carrying on any form of livelihood.
- Specifically for children attending courses at establishments of higher or further education, such benefit is also paid during their period of attendance as defined by each such establishment, though not beyond the age of 23.
- Where both spouses are civil servants, or employees of public corporate bodies or private corporate bodies regulated or funded by the State (public utilities, State subsidy agencies and banks), or where one spouse is a civil servant and the other is a pensioner, or where both are pensioners, such benefit is paid to one of the two.

The same prohibition also applies by convention in the private sector in cases where both spouses have the same employer.

- In cases where the spouses are divorced or separated, the above benefit is paid to whichever of the two spouses, regardless of sex, is responsible for the maintenance of the children.

Spouse benefit

- In accordance with Greek law applying to established civil servants, married persons, regardless of sex, are paid a spouse benefit which is calculated at 10% of the basic grade 6 salary.
- The same benefit is also paid as a rule to employees working for the State or for public corporate bodies on a private contract basis.
- In cases where both spouses are employees of the State or of public corporate bodies or private corporate bodies regulated or funded by the State (public utilities, State subsidy agencies and banks), or where one is so employed and the other is a pensioner, or where both are pensioners, the above benefit is paid to one of the two. The same prohibition also applies by convention in the private sector in cases where both spouses have the same employer.
- In the case of married civil servants and employees of public corporate bodies who are separated, the Court of Auditors has accepted on the basis of precedent that neither of the two is entitled to the above benefit.

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PENSION AND INSURANCE ARRANGEMENTS FOR WORKING WOMEN

(in the three large pension organizations - the Social Insurance Foundation (IKA), the Agricultural Insurance Organization (OGA), the State.

Social Insurance Foundation (IKA)

As regards those insured with IKA, which is the largest insurance organization in the country, there is a huge difference in payments between men and women, in many cases amounting to 50%. This leads to a comparable difference in pensions paid to those insured with IKA.

An attempt is being made by the Greek General Workers' Confederation (GSEE) to eliminate this disparity by concluding the National Collective Agreement.

4.2. Agricultural Insurance Organization (OGA)

Under Law 4169/1961 (the first to give pensions to Greek agricultural workers), a Greek female agricultural worker did not have independent insurance and pension arrangements; her husband was given a family allowance to cover her.

From August 1981, under Law 1140/1981, a female agricultural worker was able to take out insurance and receive a pension. However, her pension was greatly reduced (a man received 4,000 drachmas pension but a woman only 1,500 drachmas). A condition of availing herself of this opportunity was that her husband should not be insured with any other fund apart from OGA. In addition, she was not allowed to insure her husband or her children, or to draw family benefit.

Since 5 October 1982, by Law 1287/1982, the full and independent right of a Greek female agricultural worker to receive a pension and take out insurance has been recognized. This law provides that a married female agricultural worker is entitled to insure herself with OGA, regardless of whether her husband is insured with another fund (e.g. the Professional and Craft Industry Insurance Fund of Greece (TEBE) or the Social Insurance Foundation (IKA)), and she is entitled to childbirth allowance etc.

4.3. State system

Men and women insured under the State system have the same rights and receive the same payments.

Any previously existing differences between men and women insured with the State have been abolished with the passing of Law 754/1978 'on uniform pay scales'.

The provision favouring female civil servants, whereby a married woman or a widowed mother is able to receive a pension after actual service of 15 years, under Statutory Order 3768/57, Article 5, Paragraph 1 is, the government has announced, to be repealed as being unconstitutional, because it conflicts with the provisions of Article 4, Paragraph 2 of the 1975 Constitution whereby Greek men and women have equal rights and obligations. It is proposed to maintain the 15-year period for women appointed up to 31.12.1982 and for the 25-year period to apply (as it does for men) to all women appointed to the civil service from 1.1.1983 onwards, though with the proviso that (a) a mother (married or unmarried) has a right to take one year's unpaid leave for the birth of each child, her pension right being safeguarded for that year, and (b) appropriate preconditions (kindergartens are established to give genuine protection to the working mother and her under-age children).

In addition, unmarried daughters may draw 3.5 parts of their fathers pension (Law 666/1970).

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5. WOMEN AND THE FAMILY

5.1. Demographic Situation

1) Population

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>
1951	7,632.8	3,721.6	3,911.2
1961	8,388.5	4,091.9	4,296.7
1971	8,768.4	4,286.7	4,481.6
1978	9,360.0	4,585.4	4,774.0

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE), Population Growth Statistics 1978

2) Population growth

<u>Year</u>	<u>Live births (per 1000 population)</u>	<u>Stillbirths (per 1000 population)</u>	<u>Deaths (per 1000 popula- tion)</u>	<u>Infant mortality (below 1 year of age) (per 1000 live births)</u>
1951	20.31	10.34	7.51	43.58
1961	17.94	13.55	7.61	39.85
1971	15.98	13.60	8.36	26.90
1975	15.73	11.95	8.85	23.96
1979	15.66	9.83	8.71	18.73

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE), Statistical Yearbook of Greece, 1980

94.6% of the total of births in 1978 took place in hospitals, clinics or maternity homes and 5.3% at home.

13.7% of all children born in 1978 were born out of wedlock.

The maternal mortality rate in 1978 was 0.2% per 10,000 births, in other words 2 mothers died. The corresponding figure per 10,000 births in 1956 was 9 mothers dead.

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE), Statistical Yearbook of Greece, 1980

3) Marriages in 1978, by age of bride and groom

<u>Age</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>
Under 15	733	4
15-19	21,511	1,864
20-24	27,667	19,081
25-29	13,029	27,588
30-34	4,719	13,114
35-39	1,867	4,594
40-44	1,192	2,580
45-49	767	1,406
50-54	502	806
55-59	300	497
60-64	125	372
65-69	74	326
70-74	29	120
75 and over	8	101

4) Population by sex and marital status

	<u>In thousands</u>	
	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>
Unmarried	1,797.6	2,088.6
Married	2,167.9	2,095.6
Widowed	472.4	80.4
Divorced	42.0	20.1

5) Percentage men/women by marital status

<u>Year</u>	<u>Unmarried</u>		<u>Married</u>		<u>Widowed</u>		<u>Divorced</u>	
	<u>W</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>W</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>W</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>W</u>	<u>M</u>
1951	50.2	59.5	37.6	38.1	11.8	2.2	0.4	0.3
1961	44.9	53.7	43.4	44.0	11.0	1.9	0.7	0.4
1971	40.1	48.7	48.4	49.0	10.5	1.9	0.9	0.5

<u>Divorces</u>		<u>Marriages</u>	<u>Divorces/Marriages</u>
<u>1970</u>	3,492	67,000	5.2
<u>1975</u>	3,726	76,000	4.9
<u>1978</u>	4,322	73,000	5.9

7) Population by sex and age

<u>Age</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>In thousands</u>
	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>
0-14	1,142.4	1,081.4
15-19	338.5	327.5
20-24	328.8	307.3
25-29	245.2	259.3
30-34	283.7	320.5
35-44	635.4	677.3
45-54	449.8	493.7
55-64	444.2	476.0
65-79	349.9	428.5
79 and over	68.6	109.9
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Total	4,286.7	4,481.6

Source of tables 3, 4, 5, 6: National Statistical Survey of Greece (ESYE), Greek Population Growth Statistics, 1978

Source of table 7: National Statistical Survey of Greece (ESYE), Population and Dwellings Census 1971

5.2. Legal position

In implementation of the constitutional requirement for equality, the Socialist Government of Greece (elected on 18 October 1981) tabled a bill in the Greek parliament on 29.11.1982 which was passed on 24.1.1983 as Law No. 1329/83 entitled: 'Application of the constitutional principle of equality of men and women in the Civil Code and its Introductory Schedules, commercial legislation and the Code of Civil Procedure, and partial updating of the provisions in the Civil Code relating to family law'. The main changes brought in by this law both from the point of view of sexual equality and from the point of view of updating family law are the following:

I. Age of majority

The age of majority is reduced from 21 to 18. 18 is also fixed as the minimum age for marriage for both sexes, whereas hitherto it was 14 for women and 18 for men.

II. Dowry

Dowries are abolished. This abolition does not prevent settlements of property by parents on their children, either for the purpose of setting up or maintaining economic or family independence, or for starting or continuing in an occupation. Favourable tax arrangements apply to such settlements, similar to those which used to apply to dowries, but only in so far as such settlements are not disguised gifts.

III. Relations between spouses

Article 1387 of the Civil Code, which provides that 'the man is head of the household etc.', is amended. The new Article 1387 stipulates that spouses decide jointly on all matters affecting their married life together, and only if one of the spouses is physically or legally incapable (not, however, incapable on the grounds of, for example, lack of experience, knowledge, skills, an occupation etc.) does the other spouse take decisions alone. Also, in accordance with the new article, the regulation by spouses of their life together must not prevent the occupational or other activity of either, or infringe upon his or her personality.

IV. Paternal authority

The new Article 1510 of the Law abolishes paternal authority and replaces it with parental care which is exercised by both parents.

If the parents disagree in the exercise of parental care and the interests of the child demand that a decision be taken, such a decision is taken by the courts. In cases where parental care ceases because of death, a declaration that one parent is missing, or forfeiture of rights by one parent, the right of parental care devolves exclusively upon the other.

The provision in Article 1594 of the Civil Code whereby, if a woman was pregnant at the time of her husband's death, the courts were able to appoint a guardian for the unborn child, in other words someone to look after the property of the child in the womb, is also abolished.

V. Spouses' surnames

The new Article 1388 of the Civil Code establishes the principle of the unchangeability of the spouses' surname for their lawful relations. This therefore also applies to all forms of public documents, for example, identity cards. It does, however, stipulate that in social relations each spouse may use the surname of the other if the other agrees, or add it to his or her own.

VI. Contribution to the costs of married life

In accordance with Articles 1389 and 1390 of the new Law (which replace the provisions of Articles 1398 and 1399 of the Civil Code) husband and wife must contribute jointly to the family's needs. The spouses are obliged, each in accordance with his or her abilities, to contribute jointly towards meeting the family's needs. The contribution is made in the form of individual work, their incomes and their property. More specifically, this obligation includes a mutual obligation by the spouses to maintain each other, a joint obligation to maintain their children and, generally speaking, an obligation by both to contribute to the functioning of the joint household.

VII. Children's surname

Under the new Article 1505, parents are required to stipulate the surname of their children by a joint irrevocable declaration before marriage. This declaration, which is made to the functionary carrying out the marriage ceremony, is obligatory. The declared surname will be common to all the children and must be either the surname of one of the two spouses or a combination of their two surnames. If they do not make the declaration, their children will take the father's surname.

VIII. Shared property rights in marriage

The new Article 1398, moreover, for the first time establishes the right of each partner in a marriage, in the event of it being dissolved or annulled, to a share in any property acquired by the other partner in the course of the marriage (except for gifts, inheritances and bequests), in the proportion to which the first partner contributed to it. To make the burden of proof easier, it is taken as a rebuttable legal presumption that such a contribution amounts to one-third of the property acquired by the other partner. Work done in the home and the raising of the children are also considered as contributions. The partners may agree by marriage contract on a system of dividing the property into equal parts (community of property).

IX. Divorce

The new Law modernizes the institution of divorce. The new provisions introduce for the first time the notion of divorce by consent, with two restrictions: one is that the partners must declare their intention to the courts on two occasions, at an interval of a least six (6) months and not more than two years, and the second, which applies when there are children, is that the partners must decide on the question of custody and access to the children. In addition, while doing away with any enumeration of specific absolute reasons such as adultery or bigamy, the new Article 1439 establishes as a reason for divorce serious breakdown of the marriage from whatever cause, as a general reason for divorce. When husband and wife have been living apart for at least four (4) years, there is a non-rebuttable presumption of serious breakdown, regardless of which of the partners is to blame.

X. Custody

In the event of divorce or annulment of the marriage of the parents, the discrimination that used to be practised in giving custody of both children to the mother until they were 10 years old and custody of any boys to the father after the age of 10 has been abandoned. Under the new arrangements, the exercise of parental care is entrusted by the courts to whichever of the parents is considered most suitable, with the interests of the child always taken as the criterion (e.g. the courts will take into account the child's links with its parents and its brothers and sisters up to that time); the child can, of course, be called and heard by the courts.

XI. Legal residence

The requirement that the husband's residence be considered the legal residence of the wife ceases to apply. The new provisions recognize the married woman's right to acquire a residence in her own right. This arrangement does not constitute the abolition of the obligation on husband and wife to live together in marriage.

XII. Assimilation of children born outside wedlock with those born in wedlock

The distinction between legitimate and illegitimate children is abolished. Instead of the term illegitimate, the law uses the term 'children born of unmarried parents'. Such children henceforth have the same rights as legitimate children (maintenance and inheritance rights) as regards both the father and the blood relatives of the father. The duty of parental care of a child born of unmarried parents devolves on its mother. If the father acknowledges the child as his own, he too acquires the duty of parental care, which in any case he exercises if the mother has ceased to exercise parental care or is unable to exercise it for legal or practical reasons. On application by the father, the courts, in any other circumstances and particularly if the mother agrees, can confer the exercise of parental care or part of it on the father as well, insofar as the interests of the child so require.

XIII. Private international law

The new Law 1329/1983 amends the relevant clauses of the Civil Code. Under the new provisions the decisive factor in any dispute is no longer the citizenship held by the husband, but chiefly the most recent habitual place of residence of husband and wife. This is considered preferable because it enables the law generally known in the environment where the persons concerned live to be applied. More specifically: (1) in matters involving personal and property relations between husband and wife, as well as divorce, the law to be applied is decided as follows, in order: (a) the law applying to the last shared nationality of husband and wife in the course of the marriage, (b) if husband and wife do not share a nationality, the law applying in their last shared habitual place of residence in the course of the marriage is applied, and if there was no such residence either, account is taken of the links binding both husband and wife most closely to a particular body of law which, of course, will be assessed by the courts. (2) the law to be applied in matters involving relations between parents and children is decided as follows, in order: (a) the law applying to the shared nationality of parents and children (instead of the law of the most recent shared nationality of the father alone and the child, as applied before),

(b) if there is no shared nationality, the law applying in the last habitual place of residence of parents and children, and if no such residence exists, the law applying to the nationality of the child (instead of the law applying to the nationality of the father, which used to be the case before).

(3) for a child born of unmarried parents, its relations with its mother are governed by the law of their shared nationality, and if they do not share nationality, by the law applying in their last shared habitual place of residence, and, if no such residence exists by the law applying to the mother's nationality. The child's relations with the father are regulated by the laws applying to their most recent shared nationality, and, if there is no such nationality, by the law applying to the nationality of the father. Finally, the relations between the mother and the father of a child born of unmarried parents are regulated by the law applying to their most recent shared nationality during the pregnancy, and, if there is no such shared nationality, by the laws applying in the place where they most recently habitually or merely in fact resided during the pregnancy.

XIV. Commercial Law

Article 31 of the new Law repeals Articles 2-7 of the commercial law, including Article 4 which obliged a wife to seek her husband's permission for her to carry on a trade, and gives the wife the right of equal participation in cooperative ventures.

XV. Finally, Article 7 of Law 1329/1983 abolishes the provision in Article 921 of the Civil Code as incompatible with the dignity of women and as a natural consequence of the abolition of the institution of dowries. (Article 921 of the Civil Code, which was included in the section of the Civil Code on 'Unlawful Acts', provided that 'if by means of a punishable act of after threats or mendacious promises a woman's honour has been insulted through carnal contact with her, the compensation owing to her (which is payable to her under Article 914) shall entail the payment of a proportionate sum of money in damages to her.

For the same reasons, Article 8 of Law 1329/1983 amends Article 931 of the Civil Code. (Article 931 of the Civil Code which is also included in the section of the Civil Code on 'Unlawful Acts', used to provide that 'In awarding compensation, particular account is taken of disablement or disfigurement suffered by the victim if the victim's future is affected by it, especially in awarding damages to a woman'). The new Article 8 of Law 1329/1983 provides that: 'in awarding compensation particular account is taken of disability or disfigurement suffered by the victim if the victim's

future is affected by it', in other words, the new article does not include the phrase '...especially in awarding damages to a woman', but lays down equal treatment for men and women (compensation is awarded if disfigurement has an effect on the future concerned, be it a man or a woman).

5.3 WOMAN AS HOUSEWIFE

5.3.1. A woman whose occupation is housework is called a 'housewife', as distinct from a working woman. What characterizes a housewife is not that she has any responsibility for housework, but that she is exclusively occupied with it, away from the productive process. In Greece this category accounts for two-thirds of the total female population. The Greek housewife is an individual who is totally dependent on a man for board, lodging and clothing; he insures her with his own fund and passes his pension on to her. When she marries, she loses the security afforded by her father or her brother as guardian; if she leaves her husband, she has 'nowhere to lay her head'.

In recent years, the 'housewife' question has been one of intense concern both to women's organizations and to the State, as regards whether and to what extent the size of the contribution she makes at home is such that it ought to attract a monthly wage and, in any case, independent rights to medical care and a pension. The argument behind such a position is that although the product of housework has no tradeable commercial value, it does undoubtedly have important social value. This position, however, comes up against the objection that the demand for wages for housewives perpetuates the notion that men and women are by nature destined to play different roles in society and in the family.

5.3.2. Despite the social work that she does, society is indifferent to the non-working mother; what she does is considered her own affair, of no wider interest of significance for society.

5.3.3 The main problem facing a woman who stays at home in Greece is her social isolation, particularly in large urban centres, where both the sense of belonging to a 'neighbourhood' and the extended family which once used to encompass a housewife or a non-working mother and provide her with certain social relations, assistance or anything else, are no longer present and nothing at the moment seems to be taking their place. The result of this isolation is very often that a non-working mother begins to feel that raising her children is a thankless and spiritually degrading occupation and to consider that any kind of work outside the home is preferable because it enables her to get into contact with the outside world.

5.4. MOTHERHOOD AND HEALTH

5.4.1. Social concern for mother and child

From the State side, prenatal care is provided by:

- (a) advisory stations in rural surgeries
- (b) advisory stations in health centres
- (c) the maternity sections of general hospitals
- (d) maternity hospitals

The problem of providing prenatal care in rural areas is a serious one because the work in practice is often entrusted to unskilled doctors and midwives (in a fair number of cases, not even they exist), while, for the actual birth of the child, pregnant women are compelled to go to the cities.

5.4.2. Mortality among mothers

Although the specific mortality rate from complications in pregnancy, childbirth and confinement is very low (0.6 deaths from such causes per 100,000 women), the mortality rate among mothers (deaths of women from complications in pregnancy, childbirth and confinement per 100,000 live births) is considered to be a particularly important indicator from the point of view of social medicine, and in our country amounted to approximately 20 in 1978, whereas in America the figure was 10.

We would point out that 95% of births in Greece take place in medical establishments: the figure is 99% for the urban population and 86% for the rural population. This may explain the difference between the maternal mortality rate in urban areas, which is 20 per 100,000, and rural areas where the rate is 26 per 100,000.¹

5.4.3. Infant mortality

Although the total infant mortality rate has fallen considerably in Greece in recent years, especially since 1960 (from 40.4 per thousand in 1962 to 18.8 per thousand in 1979), the level is unsatisfactory compared with that of other developed European countries.

1

Source: Report by A. Kalantidis from the Five-Year Programme of the Economic Planning and Research Centre

What is particularly interesting is to break down the infant mortality figures into those for newborn babies (aged between 0 to 27 days) and babies in late infancy (aged from 28 to 365 days). It is a well-known fact that mortality among newborn babies has to be combated by developing medical centres and material and technical infrastructure, whereas mortality in late infancy reacts readily to social, economic and sanitary measures. A statistically significant correlation has been found between overall infant mortality (especially in late infancy) and per capita national product, which is an indicator of economic development.

It should be noted that while there was substantial reduction in mortality in late infancy from 1960 onwards (the figure was cut by half), the reduction in mortality among newborn babies was not at the same rate.

Tables I and II which follow show the development in mortality among newborn and older babies in the various parts of the country for the period from 1956 to 1978. Two observations need to be made : firstly, the mortality rate among newborn babies in rural areas was not recorded properly, and secondly , the mortality rate in late infancy was affected by the demonstrably higher level of economic development in the cities. Mortality among newborn babies in the capital and the urban areas, although it has shown a tendency to fall since 1970, is still at high levels. In the rural areas it appears to be lower, but here again the explanation is the deficient registration of deaths in such areas. Mortality in late infancy is falling satisfactorily throughout the country, particularly in the urban centres.

Table I shows the mortality rate among newborn and older babies in the nine regions of the country. Although the infant mortality figures in Greece have improved, certain regions (Thrace, Eastern Mainland and the Islands) are still having problems which are probably being underestimated through poor registration.

Table II shows infant mortality by cause in Greece compared to other European countries. In the last ten years there has been a significant reduction (to a quarter) in infant deaths from contagious diseases, even though the rate is still high compared with other countries.

It can be cut still further if appropriate medical and social measures are taken and the standard of living is improved. Another serious group of causes of infant deaths in Greece is anoxic and hypoxic conditions and immaturity, which, insofar as they reflect real conditions, need to be combated by developing the appropriate material and technical infrastructure and training qualified staff. The rise in mortality from such causes in comparison with other European countries (more than double the number) is an indication of a particular problem which needs to be investigated and combated.

Although infant mortality in Greece has fallen significantly in recent years, a comparison with other developed countries shows that with the appropriate material and technical infrastructure, qualified staff and, more generally speaking, a rise in the standard of living and culture, it can be reduced still further, particularly in certain areas.

It is also calculated that between 150 and 200 children are born every year with Cooley's disease (Mediterranean anaemia). This number is being steadily reduced by progress in the Mediterranean anaemia prevention programme by pre-natal diagnosis¹.

¹ Source: Ministry of Health and Social Security

TABLE I. Infant, newborn infant and late infant mortality rates (averages for 1976 to 1978) for the whole country and the nine regions, and the three mortality rates in the nine regions expressed as percentages of the corresponding rates for the whole country.

Regions	Infant mortality		Newborn infant mortality		Mortality in late infancy	
	o/oo	o/o	o/oo	o/o	o/oo	o/o
Total for whole country	20.7	100	15.6	100	5.1	100
1. E. Mainland & Islands	21.3	102.9	17.6	112.8	3.7	72.5
2. Central & W. Macedonia	19.6	94.7	14.8	94.9	4.8	94.1
3. Peloponnese - W. Mainland	20.6	99.5	14.5	92.9	6.1	119.6
4. Thessaly	15.4	77.4	11.7	75.0	3.7	72.5
5. Eastern Macedonia	17.7	85.5	12.8	82.1	4.9	96.1
6. Crete	18.6	89.9	12.2	78.2	6.3	123.5
7. Epirus	20.6	99.5	14.7	94.2	5.9	115.7
8. Thrace	36.2	174.9	18.5	118.6	17.7	347.1
9. E. Aegean Islands	19.0	91.8	12.4	79.5	6.6	129.4

TABLE II. Deaths of boys from certain groups of causes in Greece in 1967 and 1978 and in other European countries in 1978 (per 100,000 boys born live)

	Greece		West	Sweden	Poland	Netherlands
	1967	1978	Germany			
Contagious diseases	1.155	297.0	159.6	558.6	533.8	62.2
Related malformations	449	458.6	359.0	332.3	540.4	322.4
Injuries during birth	171	55.2	124.2	48.1	327.9	98.9
Anoxic and hypoxic conditions	472	572.9	298.3	115.0	413.0	213.4
Immaturity and other unspecified causes in newborn period	953	508.5	385.7	125.4	372.2	114.5
All other causes	447	184.0	330.0	206.9	392.5	285.3
Total	3.647	2.0762	1.656.8	884.1	2.579.8	1.097

5.4.7. Preventive medicine for child and mother

What there is:

(1) Vaccines: since the practice of keeping the Child's Health Record was established, vaccination of children in the first years of life (such as the triple DPT vaccination, Sabin's vaccination for poliomyelitis, vaccinations against tuberculosis, measles and so on) seems to be proceeding satisfactorily. Compulsory mass vaccination is also carried out on older children at school, especially when there are outbreaks of epidemic diseases (more than 90% of children are vaccinated).¹

(2) Screening tests: these are voluntary and carried out free of charge at many health centres including the University Gynaecological and Maternity Clinics of Athens and Thessaloniki.

5.4.8. Family planning - abortions - contraception

(A) family planning: there were considerable delays in establishing family planning in Greece because the mistaken idea prevailed that such a form of planning would increase the existing fall in the birth rate. Finally, however, the view prevailed that it would in fact affect the birth rate positively by reducing the incidence of secondary sterility which often follows miscarriage.

The first attempt to establish family planning was made by Professor Nikolaos Louros in 1973, when he set up the Greek Family Planning Society based at the Alexandra Maternity Hospital and launched an intense programme of activity with public discussions and popularizing talks.

This was followed by the founding of the Family Planning Society, whose main aim, was to raise the awareness of the public. Family planning centres also operate at the Marika Iliadi Maternity Hospital, the Ayia Sofia Children's Hospital in Athens, and in Yannena.

The state adopted family planning under Law 1036/1980, and is attempting, through the Consultative Committee which it has set up, to establish a unified body which will set up the appropriate infrastructure to bring family planning into the network of health services provided by the Ministry of Health and Social Security.

(B) Abortions - Contraception: In Greece abortion is considered illegal and is punished under Article 304 of the Civil Code. Abortion 'induced miscarriage', is permitted only '... up to and including the twentieth week, in cases in which modern methods of prognostic investigation (pre-natal diagnosis) have

¹Source: Ministry of Health and Social Security.

revealed serious abnormalities in the foetus, such as would entail the birth of a pathologically affected child' or '... up to the twelfth week in cases where a risk to the mental health of the mother has been certified by a psychiatrist working in a state medical institution', in accordance with Law 821/78 'On removal and transplantation of biological substances of human origin'.

This question is a very serious one in Greece, since illegal abortions are still the most frequently used method of birth control. And since an abortion in which all the rules of hygiene are observed costs approximately 12,000 to 15,000 drachmas, it is easy to appreciate the risks to the health of women involved in most abortions carried out when that money is not available. However, contraception methods are also practised completely superficially. Pills are usually bought at chemists' shops without a doctor's prescription, which is dangerous because every woman is a separate case and there are women who should not take such pills at all. Coils are fitted either by private doctors or at Family Planning Centres. The level of ignorance surrounding methods of contraception is very high.

5.5. PROTECTION OF THE UNMARRIED MOTHER

Aside from the fact that social prejudices and existing attitudes put the unmarried mother beyond the pale of society, the legal protection she is given by the State - especially since the reform of Family Law - does not differ from the protection afforded to the married mother.

Where there is a great deal of backwardness, however, is in the area of the social assistance provided. Apart from the 'I Mitera' Infants Centre, there is no other establishment dealing with the unmarried mother. There is a great need throughout the country for such establishments to be set up, where unmarried mothers would be able to go for help and be kept under medical surveillance both until childbirth and after it until they were able to go back to work.

6. WOMEN'S INVOLVEMENT IN POLITICS AND TRADE UNION ACTIVITY

- 6.1. Although there could be said to have been significant progress in the political sphere in comparison with the wilderness that existed before the fall of the dictatorship, the situation is still not particularly impressive.

It has to be stressed, however, that young women in particular have become aware that it is in their own interests to be represented by women in Parliament where decisions affecting them are taken; this is a very important fact if we remember that only a few years ago women used to vote with an already completed voting slip given to them as they left their houses by their husbands, fathers or brothers.

The number of women standing for election on party lists in October 1981 was the largest ever registered in Greece (268 candidates out of a total of 2,589 or approximately 9.12%). The percentages of women candidates in the parliamentary elections in October 1981 were as follows, by party:

New Democracy 2.64%, PASOK 4.84%, KKE 11.8%, KK Internal 14%, KODISO 12.15% and EDIK 14.9%.

After the elections to the Greek Parliament, 13 out of 300 seats were held by women. Eight were from PASOK, three from New Democracy and two from the Communist Party of Greece. Two women members of the European Parliament were also elected out of a total of 24 (both of them were from PASOK).

The position of women in the parties is still weak. According to figures provided by the parties themselves, women's involvement in their work is as follows:

New Democracy: 3% of parliamentary seats. Out of 75 members of the Executive Committee, 15 are women. In branch and local committees they account for 20%.

KODISO: in the Central Committee, women account for 16% of the members, in the Political Bureau 17% and in regional and branch organizations 10.12%.

KKE: Central Committee 11.2%, Political Bureau 27.2%.

KK Internal: overall female membership 25%.

Central Committee: 8 out of 60 members are women.

Executive Bureau: 1 of the 11 members is a woman.

PASOK: Overall female membership are women.

There are no women in the Executive Bureau, and two women in the Executive Secretariat (out of a total of nine members).

In the local elections of 17 October 1982, an exceptionally low number of women stood as candidates and in 276 communes throughout the country only four women were elected mayor, and 335 municipal councillor, and in 5,761 parishes 22 women were elected council chairman.

We must, however, point out here that the Socialist Government of Greece (for the first time in the country's history) has appointed six women as Prefects - the number is not an impressive one, but it is a very important step towards putting the principle of equality between men and women into effect. It has also for the first time established the post of Special Adviser to the Prime Minister for women's affairs and, by Law 1288/82, it set up the Government Council for Sexual Equality (see page 56).

6.2. TRADE UNIONS AND WOMEN

In Greece the right of association was recognized for the first time by Article II of the Constitution of 1864. Nevertheless, this recognition was purely formal, since the Law of 1833 which described striking as a criminal offence continued to apply.

Attempts to coordinate the trade union movement were completed in 1918 with the founding of the General Confederation of Greek Workers (GSEE). Since that time, the Greek trade union movement has followed a difficult path determined to a large degree by country's backwardness in economic development and the abnormal political conditions.

This is the context in which we must also view the involvement of Greek working women in the trade union movement. Their involvement is still at a very low level¹, despite the fact that their working conditions are very much less favourable than those enjoyed by men.

The view that 'trade unions are a man's affair' still prevails among women themselves. Mobilizing women into trade unions does, of course, come up against certain objective - but not physiological - obstacles. Chief among these are the genuine lack of time as well as the prejudiced view that women do not have the capacity for trade union work in other words, that they do not have the necessary potential demanded by the office of trade union representative.

Nonetheless, in recent years we have seen women trade unionists reaching the highest rank in trade union work and sometimes even representing groups of workers where men are in the majority.

¹ There are no official figures for the numbers of Greek working women involved in the trade union movement in our country

7. WOMEN AND EDUCATION

- 7.1. The Greek Constitution states that education is a fundamental responsibility of the State. Compulsory schooling comprises primary and secondary school and lasts for nine years. Children begin primary school at the age of five and a half.

After secondary school, secondary education is supplemented by colleges where attendance is optional and lasts three years. Colleges are divided into general colleges which prepare students for tertiary education and technical and vocational colleges which prepare children for jobs in the technical and vocational branches. Graduates of technical and vocational colleges may also go on to take courses in tertiary education.

There are also the secondary technical schools, to which children go after secondary school. Courses last one to four semesters and prepare the children for careers in particular technical or vocational skills.

Tertiary education comprises the centres of higher technical education and the universities.

The number of women attending courses at all levels of education, and the development in those numbers, are shown in the following tables:

7.1.1. Numbers receiving education, by sex and education level

In thousands	1978-79				1973-74			
	Men	%	Women	%	Men	%	Women	%
Education level								
Pre-school (kindergarten)	70.7	51.6	66.4	48.4	56.0	51.7	52.4	48.3
Primary	478.0	51.8	444.7	48.2	481.3	52.1	444.1	47.9
Secondary Education	397.5	56.0	312.8	44.0				
General	298.5	51.0	286.6	49.0	257.0	51.0	247.2	49.0
Technical - Vocational	97.1	78.8	26.2	21.2	114.5	85.9	18.8	14.1
Further and Higher Education	76.7	60.8	49.5	39.2				

Higher Education	57.5	60.0	38.4	40.0	53.0	66.1	27.9	33.9
Further Education (Teacher's training etc.)	2.1	47.7	2.3	52.3	1.6	39.8	2.9	62.2
Further technical - vocational training	17.0	66.1	8.7	33.9	9.1	72.8	3.4	27.2

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece, Educational Statistics 1978-79

There are equal numbers of males and females attending courses of primary and secondary general education. The small differences in the percentages are due to the fact that men outnumber women in the 0-24-year-old age group. The first differentiation appears in secondary technical and vocational education, where only 21.2% of girls are following courses (in 1978-79). There has obviously been an increase in the number of women attending such courses compared with 1973-74.

At the universities, 40% of students are women. The percentage in 1973-74 was 34%, which means that more and more girls are studying, and doing so in establishments of further education. There is a particularly high number of girls at teacher training colleges where women (with 52.3%) outnumber men, as the teaching professions are considered to be more suitable for women. It is, however, worth pointing out that the number of women studying to be teachers has fallen in comparison with 1973-74 (when the figure was 62.2%), which means that attitudes are beginning to change. Finally, the number of women attending courses of further technical and vocational education is very low, at 33.9% in 1978-79, despite the fact that the number has risen as compared with 1973-74 (when it was 27.2%).

The following table shows the subjects women choose to study:

7.1.2. University students by sex and subject studied

<u>Faculties</u>	1978-79			
	Men	%	Women	%
1. Humanities - Theology	0.5	20.0	2.0	80.0
2. Fine Arts (architecture, painting, drawing, sculpture etc.)	0.14	50.0	0.14	50.0
3. Law	1.6	56.0	0.75	44.0

4. Social sciences (economics, business administration, political sciences)	2.9	63.0	1.7	37.0
5. Natural sciences and Mathematics (biology, maths., physics, natural sciences, chemistry)	1.4	75.0	0.6	25.0
6. Engineering and Technical Studies (civil, mechanical, electrical and chemical engineering, metallurgy, surveying, shipbuilding etc.)	1.2	99.3	0.01	0.7
7. Medicine	1.3	68.8	0.6	31.2
8. Agriculture & forestry	0.2	85.6	0.03	14.4

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece, Educational Statistics 1978-79

The humanities are clearly a focus of attraction for women. 80% of students in these subjects are women. In fine arts, the percentages of men and women are the same because they are disciplines in which there are no preconceived notions about sex. There is a fairly high number of women studying law (44.0%), social sciences (37.0%) and medicine (31.0%). In technical studies, however, they hardly figure at all (less than one per cent).

In recent years there has been an increase in the number of women attending courses of higher education, though the pattern of subjects chosen by women has changed very little.

7.1.3. Educational level of the population over 14 years of age

	<u>1981</u>	<u>MEN %</u>	<u>WOMEN %</u>
Graduates		6.8	3.6
Attending or having attended a course of higher education		2.2	1.5
Holding certificate of secondary education		14.3	15.6
With 3 years' secondary schooling		11.7	8.4

With primary schooling	49.0	43.1
With at least 1 year's primary schooling	12.0	15.3
With no schooling	3.6	12.4
	-----	-----
	100.0	100.0

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece, Employment Survey, 2nd quarter 1981

The educational level of the population has risen in the last decade. The educational level of women, of course, is lower than that of men, though this mainly concerns elderly women. 12.4% of all women are illiterate, whereas for men the percentage is only 3.3, whereas in 1971 21% of women and 6% of men were illiterate. To summarize, more and more women today are receiving education, but the educational sectors where they are to be found are still determined by prevailing attitudes as to what constitute male and female occupations.

7.2. Vocational training

As technological progress is applied in the productive sector, it creates a need for workers with occupational skills. In Greece, even today, the inequality in the standard of vocational training available to women compared with that available to men remains a serious problem. Girls are still vocationally trained in traditionally 'female' skills which play a secondary part in the productive process. In 1978, out of 29,316 students who graduated from technical schools, only 7,133 were girls and most of those were trained for jobs in the ceramics, textile and clothing manufacturing industries.

Specific, coordinated efforts have recently been made both by the Ministry of Labour and by the Ministry of Agriculture and the Manpower Employment Agency to promote vocational training for women in occupations traditionally viewed as male.

A series of special vocational training programmes for women, most of which are financed by the Social Fund, is already being developed.

These include, for instance:

The active training programme for eight hundred women arranged by the Manpower Employment Agency (second half-year of 1983). The aim of the programme is to provide vocational training for women in non-traditional occupations such as mechanical and electrical engineering, carpentry etc.

Two programmes arranged by the Ministry of Agriculture specially for women. The first covers the handling of tractors and agricultural machinery and the second rural tourism work.

7.3. Sexual discriminataion in school books

Young Greek children acquire their first images of and attitudes to acceptable roles in society, views which determine their future development, in primary school, as they are presented to them through the official educational machinery, especially through their reading books, which encourage schoolchildren to take a uniform view of the family.

As Table 1 (see below) shows, 35% (194) of the passages used in all primary school reading books (535) refer to the family and the roles of its members. The number of passages referring to the family reaches a peak in the third year of primary school. The total of such passages in the first three years greatly exceeds the total in the last three.

TABLE I¹

Primary school

<u>CLASS</u>	<u>Passages referring to the family</u>	<u>Total number of passages in reading book</u>
1st	50	112
2nd	54	113
3rd	52	92
4th	12	69
5th	12	77
6th	14	90
	<u>194</u>	<u>553</u>

¹ from a study by Dimitra Makrinioti, MA in Sociology, University of Essex, published in the magazine of the Association for the Rights of Women, 'The Woman's Struggle'

The picture of the position of the sexes in the Greek family given by primary school text books is not in the least realistic.

An enormous distinction is made between male and female roles:

A woman's place is in the home, where housework keeps her so busy that she has no time for any activities outside the house. Her economic dependence on her husband is such that the texts under discussion show her working only when her husband has died and she is forced to maintain her family. Even under these circumstances, she chooses one of the 'clean' female occupations (dressmaking, cleaning etc.)

A woman's role and character change only in time of war. The 'Greek Mother' becomes active, abandons the small world of her home, controls her feelings and her maternal love: 'a son killed in war hasn't died'. Thus the ideological model now turns her into a heroine¹.

8. WOMEN IN ADVERTISEMENTS AND THE MEDIA

The images of women which swamp us in the streets, in magazines and on television tend to put them forward as objects or consumers, in other words in their least human and least productive activities

In Greece the advertising industry takes its lead, most of the time, from the most far-fetched American models and is moving further and further away from reality, conveying attitudes and creating "role-patterns" which shape individuals and their environment in accordance with the values of the communications industry. It imposes a particular image which encourages individuals in their stereotyped roles. From kitchen to sitting-room, from bathroom to bedroom, 'advertisement-woman' does all the work about the house or is transformed into a 'dream creature' - an idle, available temptress.

¹ The Ministry of Education has assured us that in the new Modern Greek text books for schools being published at the moment, in collaboration with representatives of the women's organizations, efforts are being made to include arguments for the equality and equal rights of the two sexes, and the new books will be imbued with these ideas.

When men and women are shown together in advertisements or in the various Greek or foreign television serials, they are presented in a way which stresses firstly the gulf between the two sexes and secondly the traditional supremacy of the male. A woman is shown in subordinate roles, unlike man, whose stronger physique also serves to symbolize his higher status and the protective role he plays towards women at various levels, in the family, sexually, and professionally.

To summarize, advertising and the media usually portray women in debasing roles with distorted personalities, never or hardly ever showing their true personalities and the contribution they make to society as a whole.

9. ATTITUDES

In our country, society's notion of the essential role of women is still what it always has been.

Women are mainly wives and mothers and, as citizens, never the equal of men. Our society considers unmarried women to be socially inferior to married women since, according to the prevailing view, their destiny is to marry and have children.

Nor does our society look favourably on unmarried cohabitation.

Prevailing attitudes in the provinces and in the countryside are more strict. Even today, the rules of family morality require that sisters be married, or settled, as it is called, before their brothers. People are reluctant to recognize a widow's right to start a new life, and divorced women face serious problems of adjustment.

As far as pre-marital relations are concerned, society as a whole does not now consider women who form pre-marital ties immoral. It is chiefly the attitude of young people on this issue which has changed. And this is having a positive effect on the behaviour of young women.

10. COUNCIL FOR SEXUAL EQUALITY

By Law 1288/1.1.10.1982 (Government Gazette No. 120), the Socialist Government of Greece set up a consultative council to promote and achieve

equality between the two sexes.

The Council consists of the Chairman and 8 members. The Chairman, who is always a woman, and the members are appointed and dismissed by decision of the Prime Minister, who may on each occasion increase the number of members according to the needs of the Council.

The Council recommends the necessary and appropriate measures which the State, local government bodies and other institutions in society need to take to achieve its aims, and monitors and checks on the implementation of these measures.

The Council, which comes directly under the Prime Minister, operates as a self-contained department of the Ministry attached to the Prime Minister, and now has a specific allocation under the Ministry's budget to cover its requirements.

The Council is served by a Secretariat, whose responsibilities, organization and mode of operation are laid down by decision of the Minister attached to the Prime Minister.

The Minister attached to the Prime Minister, on proposals from the Council:

- (a) appoints the staff of the Secretariat,
- (b) appoints special scientific associates, to carry out, at a fixed rate of remuneration, specific tasks by a stated deadline, and these decisions are published in the Government Gazette.

The Council's internal Rules of Procedure are drawn up by the Council and approved by decision of the Prime Minister which is published in the Government Gazette. The internal Rules of Procedure also establish the posts of special scientific advisors, of whom there may not be more than two.

The Council for Sexual Equality was constituted on 8 March 1983.

11. GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

We conclude our study by saying that Greek women still have a long way to go before they are genuinely emancipated and truly achieve their aims. There are still a great many problems unsolved: the establishment of crèches and kindergartens to cover real existing needs, the legalization of abortion, an equal share in decision-taking, the socialization of services connected with serving the family, and the dissemination of facts and information which will gradually lead to a change in social prejudices.

The fact, however, that the present government has included the issue of sexual discrimination in its programme for the socialist transformation of Greek society, and is going ahead with specific actions and legal reforms to eliminate such forms of discrimination, gives us cause for optimism.

12. PROPOSALS

Whereas:

- The effects of the economic recession are having extremely serious repercussions on the less developed countries in the Community, in which the sectors which traditionally employ women are more important,
- The same applies to a much greater degree in the case of Member States such as Greece, in which the agricultural sector plays a determining role in formulating GNP,
- Unemployment is having a particularly serious effect on the Community's Mediterranean economies and particularly on the female population in those economies, in which the greater part of income derives from agriculture or traditional craft industries,
- Women, apart from anything else, are burdened with the duties of motherhood, raising children and all the duties flowing from family life,

Calls:

- on the Greek Government to pass as quickly as possible the necessary implementing measures for the regulations which have already entered into force (75/117(EEC) - 76/207(EEC), and to ensure that the deadline of December 1984 is complied with in respect of Council Regulation 79/07(EEC);
- for European Community funds to be provided to finance pilot programmes to improve the education and educational opportunities of women, particularly rural women;
- in the context of the Community-financed integrated activities in favour of Greece, for a proportion of the total programme budget to be earmarked for financing branches which create new employment openings in sectors of interest to women;
- in cases where the integrated activities relate to disadvantaged areas (frontier and island regions etc.), for this percentage to be doubled.
- Considers that this finance must be directed towards branches which develop indigenous potential in the regions, chiefly small and medium-sized undertakings, cooperative undertakings, popularly funded undertakings (as defined under Article 205 (6), Act 1065/80 of the Municipal and Local Authority Code, based on the provisions of the Civil Code governing limited companies) etc;
- In the context of reforming the Social Fund, for account to be taken of the fact that in the less favoured and disadvantaged regions of the Community, and in particular those in Greece, the provision of education and training in new technologies is a premature measure which cannot be implemented owing to the low level of education among women and the widespread patriarchal mentality. It is therefore essential that resources be earmarked in the new Social Fund specifically for these regions for educating and training women in traditional occupations;
- In the context of reforming the ERDF, for implementation of Parliament's resolution of 11 February 1981, in particular of Article 46 which calls for '... more emphasis to be give to the position of women in defining the specific needs of each region in the context of the forthcoming ERDF reform'

- Considers that this assistance must contribute to creating the requisite social infrastructure to enable women to combine family responsibilities with a career. The assumption of family responsibilities should not have a prejudicial effect on womens' incomes.

COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

Topic No. 4
of the report of inquiry
on
the reduction and reorganization of working time

Rapporteur: Mrs H. WIECZOREK-ZEUL

7 November 1983

At its inaugural meeting of 15 October 1981 the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe decided to deal with 18 subjects including 'the reduction and reorganization of working time'. Mrs Wieczorek-Zeul was appointed rapporteur on this subject.

The committee considered the draft report at its meeting of 21/22 September 1983.

At its meeting of 17/18 October 1983 it adopted the report by 8 votes to 0 with three abstentions¹.

The following took part in the vote: Mrs Cinciari Rodano, chairman; Mrs Vayssade, Mrs Lenz, Dame Shelagh Roberts and Mrs von Alemann, vice-chairmen; Mr Brok (deputizing for Mrs Maij-Weggen), Mr Enright (deputizing for Mrs van den Heuvel), Mr Estgen, Mrs Gaiotti de Biase, Mrs Hooper, Mrs Lizin and Mrs Wieczorek-Zeul.

¹ It was decided to forward the conclusions of this report to the Committee on Social Affairs and Employment as the opinion of the committee on the draft Council recommendation on the reduction and reorganization of working time (Doc. 1-846/83)

CONCLUSIONS AND COMMENTS WHICH SHOULD BE INCLUDED IN THE
FINAL REPORT BY THE COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY

The Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe

- welcomes the fact that on the basis of the Memorandum it submitted on the Reduction and Reorganization of Working Time, the Commission has responded to the demands of the European Parliament and proposed a common approach to the Council;
- notes however that the present draft recommendation fails to take account of Parliament's resolution¹ on reducing working hours in a number of areas, for example in that it does not provide for 'practical measures by the Community' or specify Community objectives in terms of which measures to reduce working time can be evaluated;
- calls for the aim of 'a significant reduction in daily, weekly and/or yearly working hours in the short term'² to be explicitly formulated and for the submission of a proposal on a legally binding instrument which will enable coordinated action to reduce working time to be taken in all Member States, and in such a way that this can then be arranged on a national and industry-wide basis between trade unions and employers. A further aim is to increase the involvement of women in the working world;
- notes that the maximum effect on employment of reductions in working time will be achieved if
 - = these are implemented as quickly as possible,
 - = reductions are on as large a scale as possible so that new recruitment becomes necessary. In this context the aim should be the 35-hour week,
 - = reduction of working time takes the form of a reduction in weekly working hours,
 - = due account is taken of the need to achieve progress towards economic recovery in the Member States,
- stresses that with changing social values and the new division of roles between men and women it is urgently necessary, in reducing weekly working hours and reorganizing working time, to reduce 'daily working hours which will enable couples to achieve a more equitable division of labour as regards housework, care of children and employment' (Maij-Weggen report)³, and recommends both sides of industry to take account in negotiations of this method of reducing working hours;

¹ OJ No. C 135, 24.5.83, p. 33 ff

² Doc. 1-846/83 (COM(83) 543 final), para. 3 of Introduction

³ Para. 14 of resolution of 11.2.83; OJ No. C 50 of 9.3.81

- welcomes the fact that the recommendation explicitly refers to the advantages of reducing daily working hours to promote 'equal employment opportunities for women and create the necessary conditions which allow a greater sharing of family responsibilities';¹ wishes however that a reference of this kind had been included in the 'principles recommended' to Member States;
- welcomes the fact that the present draft expressly includes the principle of equal treatment for men and women;
 - calls on the Commission to submit a directive to restrict overtime working, as otherwise the potential effect on employment of reducing working hours could be vitiated by overtime; believes however that a reduction in overall working time could be organized in such a way that for certain types of employment with seasonally determined peaks, extensions of working hours would be possible and then compensated for at other times of the year;
 - advocates in the interests of women, who often belong to the lower and medium wage brackets, that the earnings and purchasing power of the lower and medium wage brackets should be safeguarded and in particular supports the recommendations of the Commission in Paragraph 22 of the Memorandum to the effect that the earnings of the lower wage brackets must be fully safeguarded when working hours are reduced;
 - hopes that the Member States will also encourage agreements between the two sides of industry by compensatory measures to protect wages;
 - requests the Commission to support and propose pilot projects involving new ways of organizing working time;
 - reaffirms its resolution on part-time working of 16 September 1982 and its proposed amendments to the proposal for a Council directive in which Parliament expressed its views on matters of principle on the question of greater flexibility of working time;
 - emphasizes once again the importance of adopting a comprehensive directive to regulate part-time working and new forms of flexible working, so that this process does not take place at the expense of full-time employment of women and calls on the Council to adopt the directive as soon as possible;
 - criticizes the fact that in a number of important areas the Commission has failed to take account of Parliament's proposals to amend the directive;
 - hopes that part-time working in its new form of flexible working (all working hours less than full working hours) will play a part in allowing a better division of household and family duties between men and women and at the same time allow both men and women to pursue a satisfying occupation and observes that part-time working is no substitute for a general reduction in working time.

¹ Doc. 1-846/83, p. 2 of draft recommendation

PRELIMINARY OBSERVATION:

This report has already been annexed to the CERAVOLO report (Doc. 1-71/83). It must be noted that, in conjunction with the resolution adopted by the European Parliament on 28 April 1983, an amendment¹ was also adopted which reads as follows:

'provide for the introduction of parental leave which permits a more equitable distribution of the work involved in assuring the financial security of the family and looking after children. Steps should be taken to ensure that a Community directive on parental leave is submitted, adopted and implemented as soon as possible.'

Parental leave is thus firmly established as a principle of the European Parliament.

¹ Tabled by the rapporteur on behalf of the committee

1. Basic principles

1. This opinion deals only with the question of the reduction of the working week and the working day¹.

The opinion is based on passages from the report by Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN and the resolution of 11 February 1981.

The resolution of 11.2.1981 states: the European Parliament 'asks for a general reduction in working hours and a redistribution of employment between men and women, to enable women to participate more fully on the labour market. This reduction in the working hours should relate primarily to daily working hours in order to facilitate a better division of efforts between partners in the household, in the raising of children and in active employment;'

2. Extent of unemployment amongst women

Growing unemployment is one of the most serious problems facing Community countries.

Between 1970 and 1982 the number of registered unemployed rose from 2.12 million to 11.6 million.

It has been estimated that in 1985 one in every nine workers in the Community will be out of work. This means a figure of 18 million unemployed. Three times more workers will be in search of work than in the previous 20 years. More than one million new jobs must be created in the Community between now and 1985 simply to ensure that the present levels of employment and unemployment are maintained.

Women are particularly badly hit by unemployment.

¹ The committee has already drawn up separate documents containing its views on part-time work and temporary employment

While 592,000 women were out of work in the Community in 1970, the figure for November 1982 was 4.88 million. This means that unemployment amongst women has increased by a factor of 8 as compared with a doubling of unemployment amongst men over the same period. Women consequently now make up a considerably greater proportion of the unemployed (42.2% in 1981) than their numbers on the labour market might suggest (approx. 7% of persons in paid employment in 1981). Added to this is an uncertain amount of hidden unemployment which will increase further with growing overall unemployment. Hidden unemployment is particularly significant amongst women:

- girls who decide at the outset to stay in the family because of the poor chances of being admitted to a training course or finding a job;
- women who give up looking for work and who no longer appear in unemployment statistics;
- women who apply for 'unimportant' part-time work and who are therefore not even registered as being in search of work.

The appearance of the 'baby boom' generation on the labour market will create an additional demand for jobs.

3. The causes of unemployment

The great increase in unemployment in the last decade has been caused by a number of structural and political factors:

- the effects of the international division of labour
- the more rapid and less capital intensive rationalization of work and the wholesale trend towards the use of the new technologies
- single tariff economic policies
- democratic developments: more people than before looking for work.

3.1 The international division of labour has led to the transfer of a large number of jobs traditionally occupied by women to industrial centres not only in the Third World but also in Eastern Europe. Examples of this are the textile and clothing industry, the footwear industry and other originally relatively labour-intensive sectors.

At the same time rationalization and automation is now going ahead rapidly in the services sector which until the early 1970s was the main catchment area for people just entering the labour market or leaving industry and agriculture. In particular the application of new technologies in the office today enables great 'savings' to be made in jobs - jobs which were mainly held by women.

3.2 There is also a new factor encouraging the rationalization of the production and service industries by the use of 'microprocessors' which did not apply when earlier investment decisions were taken with the aim of making savings in the work force. Before microprocessors arrived, automation required high capital expenditure with a long expected period of amortization, but it is possible in the present investment situation to carry out a continual 'saving' of jobs through investments amortized in a very short time. This also explains why the reduction of jobs in this area is taking place so quickly and is affecting large, medium-sized and small companies at the same time.

3.3 The nature of this rationalization is responsible for the fact that women are the principal victims of both the reduction in the number of jobs and the change in the conditions attaching to them. The cut in the number of jobs primarily affects unskilled activities, i.e. the area of the split labour market which is occupied mostly by women. At the same time the remaining downgraded jobs are mainly taken by women. The flexibility of the newly introduced technologies is leading to changes in working conditions which are of very great relevance to the strategies to be adopted for a reduction in working hours. For example video display systems make it possible for fixed work stations in the company to be done away with completely and the text to be sent over telecommunications equipment to the operator sitting at a terminal at home. This trend towards more flexible working hours and conditions brings with it the danger that an increasing amount of unstable employment will be created in place of the full-time jobs existing hitherto and that a kind of 'KAPOWAZ system' will be introduced in the office. The European Parliament's reports on shift-work and part-time work have already drawn attention to the problems these developments may create for the employment of women.

3.4 With the avowed aim of fighting inflation most European governments have in recent years been practicing a policy of more or less rigorous monetarism with limits being imposed on money supply. The effect of this has been a failure to introduce state employment policies and a budgetary policy which no longer gives any stimulus to employment.

Since 1979 the number of people out of work has doubled.

Despite this, the aim of monetarist economic policy has not been achieved: in 1979 the average rate of inflation in the European Community was 10.6%. Today it is 10.2%.

3.5 It is also true that because of demographic developments the number of people in search of employment has risen sharply. Because of the different ways employment statistics are drawn up in the Member States it is however impossible to find out the exact number of those who are looking for work but are not included in the unemployment statistics.

3.6 According to the Commission's calculations a rate of growth of between 3 and 3.5% would be necessary simply in order to keep unemployment at its present level of over 10%. No economic forecast for the Community is currently predicting economic growth of this order. Even if such economic growth were obtainable, it is doubtful whether new investment would in fact create sufficient jobs to offset the loss of jobs due to rationalization and automation. As a consequence, there will be an increase in the number of people willing and able to work who are unable to find employment with appropriate remuneration and with stable working conditions. Conversely, there will also be an increase in the number of those who are without appropriate remuneration or who are in casual employment. Similarly, there will be more people willing to work who carry out - without remuneration - the socially important tasks of bringing up children and housework.

Since a policy of growth no longer has any prospect of success, the most suitable means for combating unemployment is a policy of comprehensive reduction in working hours and redistribution of work. It should, of course, be added that although jobs are being lost this does not mean that our society is doing away with 'work' as such. A policy measured no longer in terms of growth but in terms of the quality of life will in fact be able to contribute towards the creation of new jobs, e.g. in the areas of urban renewal, ecological agriculture, new technologies to protect the environment, energy saving measures and social and humanitarian services. Even when these factors are taken into account, the reduction of working hours and a redistribution of work are nonetheless political aims which must make an important contribution to removing unemployment, even under a policy of qualified growth.

Should this not happen - at least at the same rate at which unemployment is being created - there will be a catastrophic effect on the situation of women in the labour market.

In the absence of a speedily implemented policy to reduce working hours and redistribute work

- women will increasingly be forced into precarious conditions of employment or may be excluded totally from the labour market
- a nonsense will be made of the Community's equal treatment directives since, firstly, the trend towards rationalization described above will increase the concentration of women in the lower income groups and, secondly, there will no longer be any question of equal access to professions and employment.

4. Methods of reducing working hours

A general reduction in working hours can take various forms:

- a reduction of the working day or the working week;
- a cut in shift-times and the introduction of a new shift timetable;
- a reduction in the working year (holidays and/or leave for educational purposes);
- reducing the length of working life by lowering the retirement age or extending education.

In its memorandum, the Commission also considers more flexible arrangements of working time, e.g.:

- a shorter working week with longer working days;
- a reorganization of working time in companies working a shift system, with, for example, a full-time shift of 7 hours and one 'part-time shift' of 3 hours or
- the introduction of a system of two full-time shifts of 6 hours which would have the effect of increasing the utilization of the machines by 50% and reducing working hours by 25%.

National trade unions and the ETUC consider the demand for a reduction of the working week to be a matter of absolute priority. In the Member States, however, other methods of reducing working hours, such as, for example, the extension of paid leave or a reduction in working life, have been the subject of demands or indeed collective agreements. In Southern Italy agreements have been reached at company level between trade unions and employers to

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introduce a shorter working week, distributed over a few days, so that the workers who are all involved in farming have the opportunity to carry on with this without any additional problems.

A policy for reducing working hours should allow these reductions to be adapted to the needs of workers and employers.

Of the methods mentioned, employers have indicated their preference for a reduction in working life, partly in view of the fact that this method throws the greatest burden on the social security system and does not affect the companies' own costs. Surveys of companies in the Federal Republic of Germany have shown, however, that undertakings differ considerably in their assessment of the effects of a shorter working day on their costs. Some consider that the introduction of a more flexible shift system will enable greater use to be made of capital which will lead to more rapid amortization of the equipment.

It is therefore all the more surprising that in the Federal Republic of Germany the demand for a reduction in the working week figures on the employers' list of taboo subjects on which they are not prepared to negotiate.

5. Reduced working hours and women's interests

The European Parliament's report on women advocated a reduction in the working day because this method of shortening working hours does most to alleviate the two-fold or three-fold burden which working women have to bear and meets the growing wish among many men and women to share the tasks of housework and bringing up children. To this extent a reduction in working hours represents a means not only of combating unemployment but also of redistributing work in accordance with changing social situations.

5.1 Increasing numbers of married women are coming onto the labour market. One half of all married women are gainfully employed and even amongst women with three or more children, one in every three is employed. The proportion of women aged between 25 and 40 engaged in gainful employment has increased by 10% over the past decade. In the 30 to 40 age group the proportion is 56%. Fewer and fewer women give up work when they marry or have a child and more and more return (or would like to return) earlier to work. The OECD Conference summarized this development in the following terms:

'Some social developments such as smaller family sizes, the increased education of women, and changed social attitudes are clearly the outcome of the complex interaction of economic and social factors. There are, however, parallel social developments which also influence labour force participation. The first is the improvement in contraception over the last twenty years. Family size limitation has been practised in many countries for decades, if not centuries, but current methods are much more reliable than those of the past so there will be fewer unwanted pregnancies. Women can now plan their families to fit in with their careers. In some cases this has meant a postponement of childbearing until the early 30s after they are well established in the labour force. In others it means a completion of childbearing in the early to mid 20s and a continuous career thereafter.

The second important social development is the increase in the number of mothers who are the sole supporters of their children. In some member countries such families are almost ten per cent of the total. This development has two origins. The first is the increasing tendency of some women who have never married to choose to have children and to raise them themselves rather than have them adopted (although such families are a very small proportion of the total, the numbers are increasing rapidly). The second is the increase in the incidence of divorce and separation partly brought about by legal changes in many OECD countries, and partly by a change in attitudes towards the acceptability of divorce. Although divorced people have a high remarriage rate, many women who later remarry nevertheless find themselves as sole supporter of their children for a number of years. The net result of these changes is that in most OECD countries a family with a working husband and a non-earning wife is no longer typical, and is certainly not the only household type.'

(OECD, High-Level Conference on the Employment of Women, 1980; 'Women in the Labour Market: Analytical Report').

5.2 It is becoming increasingly apparent that the three-phase model depicted by Alva Myrdal and Viola Klein: employment - care of children - return to employment, no longer reflects the participation of women in the labour force.

There are several reasons for this:

- as a result of the fall in the birth rate and the reduction in the average number of children per family, partners spend less time bringing up their children. The raising of children is no longer of predominant importance in terms of the number of years involved. This means that many women wish to continue working even while they are raising their children.
- There has been a considerable increase in the life expectancy of women in Europe. A 40-year old women in a Community country today has almost half her life before her. In addition to the fall in the birth rate there has also been a progressive drop in the upper age limit for child-bearing. In 1960 there were 68.6 live births for every 1,000 women over the age of 35, but by 1978 this figure had fallen to 24.5. This means that women now return to the labour market at a considerably earlier age.

The impossibility of finding work may lead these women to suffer severe personal problems (depression, illness, alcoholism). It is also debatable whether society can afford simply to neglect this potential.

6. Reduction of working time and changing values in society

In connection with these demographic and social changes, there is also evidence of a shift in values among both women and men. This change involves the adaptation and harmonization of both partners of their aims in life. As a result of the developments referred to above, women attach far greater importance to career development and prospects. Men, on the other hand, no longer regard gainful employment as their single purpose in life. There is a growing desire on the part of both partners to share the relatively short period of child-raising and to increase their social and political involvement. This was pointed out at the 17th European Conference on the Family (Rome, May 1981), which, not entirely incidentally, took as its motto 'time for work, time for the family'. The Ministers observed that the family duties and responsibilities of both child-raising and housework were shared by parents. The Ministers made particular reference at the Conference to a survey carried out by the Commission of the European Communities (Europeans and their children,

Brussels 1979), in which most of the people questioned - both men and women - stated quite clearly that they did not have enough time for their families.

Discussions on ways of humanizing working life, which attracted increasing attention in all European Community countries in the 1970s, also indicate that there is a growing wish on the part of employees to adapt their gainful employment to the overall planning of their lives and not vice versa.

Professor Nell-Breuning, one of the foremost representatives of Catholic social teaching, expressed this in the following terms:

'To earn for the sake of earning or constantly increasing one's spending does not constitute a meaningful existence'. If the call for reductions in working time is considered in this context of changing social situations and concepts, a reduction in the working day would offer women and men a particularly appropriate opportunity of combining family and other social obligations with gainful employment. The danger of a reduction in the working week in the form of a longer weekend or a reduction in annual working time in the form of longer holidays is that child care and other duties will become purely leisure activities which do not involve any change in roles as regards housework and the rearing of children. As a result, it will still by and large be left to women to try to combine household responsibilities and a job.

While a reduction in the working day offers the greatest relief to young families, a reduction in total working life could also be made to benefit young families. Why should the reduction always be made at the end of working life, through the lowering of the retirement age? This point is particularly relevant in the case of those for whom work is an essential part of life and who suddenly feel 'old' when they are no longer gainfully employed. It could also be suggested that 'free-time' should be provided where it is urgently needed: in families with small children (i.e. for employees between the ages of 25 and 40).

The French Government is currently drafting legislation which will permit employees to leave work for one to two years, with continued payment of social security contributions, and subsequently to return to their jobs. Such measures are to be wholeheartedly welcomed since they accord with the aim of reducing the two-fold burden on women and ensuring a more equitable division of labour between men and women in gainful employment, in the family and in the household, and offer a means of reducing working time in order to combat unemployment.

7. Effects of a reduction in working time on employment

7.1 The Commission's memorandum makes two important observations regarding the connection between a reduction in working time and the creation of jobs: First: the reduction in working time must be substantial so that it actually has an effect on employment. The greatest effect on employment would be achieved by a reduction in the working week or the working day. Second: the reduction must be implemented rapidly so that it can benefit the employment situation rather than resulting in increased workloads, reorganization of work or rationalization.

Both these conditions would be met by the introduction within the next five years of a basic 35-hour week. This should therefore be the main aim of Community policy.

Various political declarations of intent by the governments of the Member States at both national and Community level offer reason to hope that this is a perfectly realistic goal. In France the working week was reduced by law from 40 to 39 hours and the French Government estimates that between 70,000 and 80,000 jobs were maintained or created as a result.

In Belgium, the Government is hoping to achieve a 5% reduction in annual working time in 1983, coupled with a possibly obligatory increase of 3% in the numbers of persons employed by undertakings.

In the Netherlands and Italy employers and trade unions are discussing ways of reducing unemployment by means of general reductions in working time.

The European Trade Union Confederation states that during its campaign to inform all European governments of its aims as regards the reduction of unemployment, it discovered a readiness on the part of governments in almost all Community countries to include reductions in working time as part of their programmes to improve the employment situation.

The governments of the Member States are showing increased willingness to accept the specific and flexible proposals for a Community strategy put forward by the French Government. The Italian, Belgian and Luxembourg governments, together with a growing number of others, recognize that without a substantial reduction in working time, regardless of the varying directions taken by their economic policies, there can be no improvement in the employment situation.

7.2 The Commission memorandum contains model calculations of the effects which would result from a reduction in working time. The model calculations are, of course, bound to differ at present since the models, or rather the variables in the models (maintaining or increasing production time/wage compensation/ increasing or maintaining productivity), cannot be checked in practice.

All studies of past reductions in working time reveal, however, a clear connection between the reduction of working time and the creation of jobs.

In a research study carried out for the 'Bundesanstalt für Arbeit', Professor Henise calculated that a 5% reduction in the working week without wage compensation would increase employment by 3.6%, while a reduction with full wage compensation would increase employment by 4.4%. In this instance the wage compensation would be paid jointly by the state and employers, with the result that the consequent increase in inflation could counteract the major effect on employment. On the basis of a macro-economic model, a research group from the Universities of Tübingen and Freiburg concluded that there is most likely to be an effect on employment in the short and medium term when the reduction of the working week is accompanied by full wage compensation. This is because it is assumed that the effect on employment will be less great if the reduction in working hours leads to a loss of purchasing power.

The Palasthy model tested by the Belgian Plan Bureau aims to redistribute work by reducing working hours and introducing a two-shift system. According to this model, unemployment could be totally eliminated if a two-shift system and a 30-hour working week were introduced on a general basis. This would mean that undertakings would have to change to a system of two 6-hour shifts rather than one 8-hour shift. Unit costs would be reduced as a result of the more efficient use of investment capital, which would in turn lead to further employment. Wages could be maintained because there would be less expenditure on unemployment allowances and there would therefore be undiminished demand for goods and services, including those in the social sector (creches), which would once again have an effect on employment. This model is, however, incompatible with the European Parliament's report on women which called for shift work to be reduced.

The model used by the Danish Ministry of Finance in assessing the effects of a reduction in the working week is based on a reduction in working time of one hour per year. According to this study, the best results in terms of employment would be obtained if the reduction in working time did not lead to a loss in capacity and if this were achieved by means of an increase in demand for capital goods rather than by guaranteeing purchasing power. It is however

questionable whether the assumption made by this type of model is correct, particularly since the calculations indicate that there will be a 4% drop in real income in 1983 if there is no wage compensation and capital is nonetheless lost.

The model used by the Danish Economic Council assumes that increased productivity would reduce the calculated effect on employment by 30%.

According to this analysis, private employment would increase by 2.5%. Average real income would show a small increase since more people would be employed. This model also examines the possibility of reducing annual working time by means of sabbatical arrangements with payment at the same rate as employment benefits. This arrangement would have 1% less effect on employment than a reduction in the working week.

The VINTAF II model used in the Netherlands indicates that reductions in working time (2.5% per year over 5 years) can only have a significant effect on employment if production time is maintained. Comparison of this model with other calculations carried out in the Netherlands shows clearly that the question of whether wage compensation has an effect on employment depends essentially on the initial assumptions made. The model put forward by the University of Amsterdam assumes that a reduction in wages would have a positive effect on employment. The Social and Cultural Plan Bureau, on the other hand, points out that if the reduction in working time were accompanied by a decrease in wages, the income of a large number of households would fall below the minimum wage. This represents a clearly undesirable consequence of a reduction in working time without wage compensation; expenditure on unemployment benefit would be reduced but this would not affect the total welfare budget since expenditure on other social allowances would increase.

The analysis carried out by the British Treasury demonstrates clearly the differences in the assumptions made by model calculations. The Treasury calculates that the most beneficial effect on employment is to be achieved through a reduction in working time without wage compensation. What is interesting is the fact that in its own forecasts the British Treasury points out that if a monetarist policy is maintained, reductions in working time will have a negative effect on employment.

The study undertaken for the Commission itself indicates that wage compensation has little effect on the level of employment.

The Commission points out that the assumptions made in the calculations lead to varying results. These assumptions are based on an evaluation of past experience and of basic political and economic trends. On the whole, those models which reject wage compensation are inclined to adopt the same standpoint as employers: high wage increases would reduce export potential and competitiveness.

These studies do not, however, take account of the fact that this attitude implies that there should be a round of wage cuts at world level. This could result in further stagnation of the world economy or even economic collapse, which certainly would reduce export potential.

Aside from this, experience in the matter of wages in the Community Member States also refutes the view that high wage costs reduce export potential; Great Britain has lower wage levels than the other Community partners and clearly fares less well in the export field.

7.3 The following political conclusions may be drawn from the models discussed in the memorandum:

1. According to the calculations it is not clear whether reductions in working time 'without wage compensation' have a more beneficial effect on the labour market than reductions with 'full wage compensation'.

In terms of the employment situation, therefore, there is no logical reason for giving precedence a priori to a reduction in working time 'without wage compensation' ('full wage compensation' would mean a reduction in working time accompanied by wage increases at the same rate as previously).

2. Varying conclusions may be drawn as regards the extent to which a reduction in working time can be compensated for by increased productivity. There is no doubt that the beneficial effect on employment will be considerable, and that it will be increased if the reduction in working time is accompanied by the introduction of restrictions on overtime as part of labour market policy. It will also depend on whether the participation of trade unions in company decision-making can be increased to ensure that reductions in working time do not result simply in an increase in workload.

3. In the case of the models proposing a reduction in working time without wage compensation, the less importance they attach to the growth in demand resulting from increased purchasing power, the greater is the calculated effect on employment. A policy to reduce working time without wage compensation is incompatible with the aim of reducing the social budget and possibly limited social insurance contributions. The savings achieved by a reduction in the costs of unemployment are outweighed by the cost of the uncontrolled and uncontrollable increase in the number of people entitled to social benefits. The European Parliament's resolution on poverty excludes this as a possible political alternative.
4. Only a few models consider in sufficient detail the different ways of reducing working time and their effects on employment.

These models which do distinguish between ways of reducing working time show that the best effects in terms of employment are to be achieved by a general reduction in the working week or the working day. The main reason for this is that a reduction in the working week is most likely to involve a reorganization of work within the undertaking which will result in the creation of new jobs. The Palasthy model illustrates this in that it involves the introduction of a two-shift system, which also permits better utilization of production capacity.

5. A critical examination of these models reveals that they in no way oppose the aims set out in the Maij-Weggen report. The varying results with regard to the question of wage compensation should, however, be evaluated in terms of their implications for women.

8. Apportionment of the cost of reductions in working time

The apportionment of the costs of a reduction in working time is one of the most difficult aspects of this political question of the redistribution of work. There are many sides to the problem and they involve more than just wage compensation.

The costs may be apportioned among the following:

- employees, by means of proportional wage cuts
- undertakings
- the state.

8.1 In the case of the first group, the following points should be borne in mind:

If there is a reduction in working time without any wage compensation, employees will have to accept individual wage losses. In overall economic terms a reduction in working time will reduce private demand and therefore have a negative effect on employment and on the economy as a whole.

The Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe has the following reservations regarding reductions in working time without wage compensation: since the majority of women belong to the low and middle-income groups they are most severely affected by wage cuts. For this reason any proposed solution must at least provide for wage compensation for middle-income groups and appropriate wage increases for low-income groups.

8.2 Undertakings are required to bear the financial cost if wage compensation is paid. The greater the increase in direct wage costs, the higher the financial commitment required. For this reason undertakings tend to prefer those methods of reducing working time - such as lowering the age of retirement - which do not place a financial burden on them. On the other hand the model calculations show that reduction of the working week and the working day can lead to a re-organization of working time, which places a financial burden on the undertakings, and is therefore advantageous. Reference should be made in this context to the model prepared by Professor Henise for the 'Bundesanstalt für Arbeit' which examines different combinations of cost apportionment:

- (a) with wage compensation being paid by employers in an amount equal to the savings occurring from the productivity gain resulting from the shorter hours;
- (b) with wage compensation being paid by the government in an amount equal to the deficit reduction (increased tax intake and decreased unemployment expenditure resulting from the higher employment levels obtained);
- (c) with 100% wage compensation where employers contribute in an amount equal to the cost savings occurring from productivity gains and the government contributes the rest.

8.3 As far as the state is concerned, the following points are of particular relevance:

- (a) Unemployment increases the cost of the social security system. Any improvement in the labour market is therefore welcome since it permits the government to make use of urgently needed funds, e.g. to promote investment and research. A reduction in working time without any wage compensation creates difficulties for the state because employees pay lower social security contributions and taxes and because the wage cuts themselves bring low-income households below the level of the minimum wage, with the result that increased funds must be made available for social assistance rather than unemployment.
- (b) Bearing in mind the way in which reductions in working time have been achieved in recent years, the most realistic approach is probably that adopted in trade union circles, the aim of which is to negotiate packages providing for a combination of reductions in working time and wage increases on the basis of increases in productivity. This also means that greater reductions in working time would result in lower wage increases. The trade unions attach particular importance to guaranteeing the incomes of the low and middle-income groups under such an arrangement. This is particularly necessary in the interests of women.

COMMITTEE ON INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

Topic No. 5 of the

REPORT OF INQUIRY

on

Vocational training for women in Europe

Rapporteur : Mrs M. von ALEMANN

11 November 1983

At its constituent meeting of 15 October 1981, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe adopted 18 topics of inquiry, including vocational training for women in Europe for which Mrs. Mechtild von ALEMANN was appointed rapporteur.

The draft report was considered by the Committee at its meeting of 21/22 September 1983 and 3/4 November 1983.

This report was unanimously adopted at the meeting of 3/4 November 1983.

The following took part in the vote :

Mrs. CINCIARI RODANO (Chairman), Mrs. von ALEMANN (Vice-Chairman and rapporteur), Mr. ESTGEN, Mrs. MAIJ-WEGGEN and Mrs. SPAAK.

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The Committee on Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe organized a public hearing in Luxembourg in April 1983 on the education and vocational training of women in Europe (see summary, PE 84.838). On that occasion, Mrs. von ALEMANN addressed a questionnaire (PE 82.564) to the Governments of the 10 Member States and to various experts throughout the Community. This inquiry is based on the findings of that hearing, and answers to the questionnaire.

Articles to be included in the final motion for a resolution of the Committee of Inquiry

The European Parliament,

1. Notes that scant attention has been paid by the Commission to the recommendations contained in Chapter III of the resolution of 11 February 1981, in particular those set out in paragraphs 30, 31, 32, 33 and 34 thereof;
2. Notes that the measures and recommendations for a Community vocational training policy are incoherent and piecemeal and subordinate to the different political guidelines of the governments of the Member States; in particular, the Commission is being subjected to heavy pressure by the Council over the shape of the policy concerning vocational training and professional qualifications for women and the attendant support arrangements.

There is an urgent need to introduce coherent and apposite programmes capable of improving the vocational training services and meeting the requirements of the social groups worst affected by unemployment, among which women figure prominently during the present crisis.

The Committee of Inquiry therefore expects the Commission to submit a report summarizing all the measures taken by it in connection with careers guidance, vocational training, further training and improving the situation on the job market;

3. The Commission's action programmes for the development of vocational training should therefore aim chiefly to put an end to the segregation which still affects women and girls, by improving basic and advanced training.

To this end it is necessary, in particular:

- 1 - to develop the vocational training of girls in step with the modernization of industries with a traditionally female workforce, but also to promote the integration of women into traditionally male skilled sectors by extending training to include new fields;
- 2 - to encourage free advanced training in working time by removing obstacles connected with travel, childminding, etc;
- 3 - to make training more integrated by creating training schemes leading to a real qualification and by decompartmentalizing certain work and training schemes;

- 4 - to encourage service-sector training of a high standard in connection with the introduction of information technology and office automation.

Careers education and vocational training are all too often based on a labour market divided according to sex. These stereotyped roles must be eliminated in the initial and subsequent training of advisors and in careers advice techniques.

Girls must receive careers guidance and careers experience at an earlier stage than at present, so as to gain familiarity with the world of work and make up the advantage which boys acquire through manual and craft activities and other knowledge of industry and technology.

Women seeking to retrain after a break in their careers require assistance from specially trained and informed advisors. The Commission should encourage the Member States to train such advisors. Supplementary guidance and support should also be provided after retraining when women are looking for jobs and when they begin work.

Every woman has the right to vocational training and it should be possible to organize this after a 'family-raising' phase. The Commission is urged to ensure that this basic principle is applied in action programmes and draft budgets as a complement to the Council Resolution of 11 July 1983 on vocational training policies in the European Community in the 1980s.

4. The Statistical Office of the European Community should publish an up-to-date version of the study 'Economic and social position of women in the Community', or special supplements to the individual chapters if these are technically easier and quicker to produce.

The Statistical Office and Commission should organize a study to determine what data would be needed for a better assessment of the employment of women. This study should take account of the experience gained in the USA from household surveys.

5. More specific and comprehensive information concerning the programmes already being implemented in the Member States is equally important for the further development of Community policies in respect of vocational training for women, since it will enable them to be structured in such a way as to complement and underpin these programmes. The Commission should provide further information on the following points :

- scope and nature of existing programmes;
 - whether they are financed from national or Community funds;
 - which programmes are being implemented in the Member States:
 - . in respect of full-time training and vocational training,
 - . in respect of part-time training, adult training courses and further training,
 - . in respect of minority groups;
 - how such programmes are financed, for example by:
 - national, private or Community funds, i.e. the ESF, ERDF, the EAGGF or others;
6. Consideration must be given to the budget headings which could provide grants for training in what are traditionally women's careers (particularly in agriculture). Special attention should be given to regions where job prospects for women are largely restricted to agriculture or the service industries;
 7. Positive measures are needed as regards both the supply of training places and applications for training, particularly in the business and technical sectors. The Commission and Council are asked to devise appropriate projects;
 8. Calls on the Commission to draw up a special vocational training programme for women designed to introduce them to and/or qualify them for all those employment sectors where technological reorganization is in progress or radical changes are foreseen owing to the introduction of new technologies, especially through the selection of constructive projects. Calls on the Commission to monitor closely the implementation of national training schemes and to request the Member States to make every effort to guarantee the participation of women (through the creation of social services to promote courses and the appointment of counsellors to advise on matters of equality and to provide psychological guidance in the matter of courses);
 9. The Commission should submit proposals for pilot projects for 'support systems' during periods of vocational training.

INTRODUCTION

1. Equality of opportunity for girls and women in basic and further education is a vital prerequisite for genuine equality of opportunity in later working life.
2. In all the Community countries, fewer girls and women than men receive vocational training. A study by the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP) shows that the training courses chosen by women are less demanding, lead to lower qualifications and open up fewer careers. Everywhere women are concentrated in a limited number of 'women's jobs, primarily in the services sector, and everywhere they are disproportionately affected by unemployment.
3. Employment for girls and women in all types of jobs and not merely in the traditional women's jobs must be an overriding aim for the Member States of the Community in bringing about economic, professional and social equality of opportunity for women. In addition, the shortage of skilled labour which is already manifest in some Member States can only be remedied if women have increased access to non-traditional jobs.
4. It is not enough formally to declare men and women equal. To allow girls and women access to all jobs, a special intensive advisory and support programme is required to promote vocational and further training in non-traditional jobs.
5. A comprehensive initial and continuous advisory service is also essential because the existing school system still fosters the early programming of boys and girls to follow traditional role and career stereotypes.
6. A comprehensive and intensive advisory service for girls and women during basic and further vocational training is therefore a prerequisite for the realization in practice of the principle of equality of opportunity and an absolute necessity if women and girls are to be placed in a position in which by carrying out a job they can provide for their own and their family's material needs and derive personal satisfaction from their work.
7. Measures and recommendations concerning vocational training policy at Community level seem to be determined less by the principles for a common policy on vocational training put forward by the Council on 2 April 1963 and more by economic trends and, in the specific case of basic and further education for women and the associated advisory services, by political pressure on the Commission and the Council.

A. Experience with and shortcomings of advisory services for girls and women before and during basic and advanced vocational training

I. Advisory services for girls before and during basic vocational training

1. Traditional advisory services are inadequate when it comes to placing girls and boys on an equal footing when they come onto the job market.

(a) Neither school nor careers advisory services help girls to gain access to non-traditional jobs. In all the Members States, girls between the ages of 14 and 16 have to choose between a course of vocational training and further school education. The rapid transition from school education to vocational training means that a fundamental decision has to be made in favour of a job; this decision is generally irreversible and can only be corrected by a change of career later on.

At this point, the decision in favour of a traditional job is made which then places women at an economic, professional and social disadvantage.

(b) The existing school system does allow very early specialization in any of a wide range of vocational subjects through differing emphases in secondary schools. But the obligation to take this early decision can help to reinforce the stereotyped role of women through the choice of a traditional 'women's' career.

2. Studies by the Commission of the European Communities¹ show that teachers and careers advisers must be made more familiar with the problems and typical signs of stereotype programming of the sexes, new developments in the field of child psychology which place doubt on whether there is any inherent mental or intellectual difference between the sexes and methods of identifying and counteracting the harmful effects of the 'hidden curriculum'.

Observations from France support this finding. Careers advice is provided by specialist civil servants working in the national education system who receive six years intensive training after completing an advanced level of secondary education but are somewhat cut-off from the economic and business world proper, despite efforts to remedy this'.²

¹ Byrne, Eileen 'Equality of Education and Training for Girls (age group 10 to 18)', Commission of the European Communities, 'Studies', Education Series No. 9, Brussels, see also: McMullen, I.R. 'Guidance and orientation in secondary schools', Commission of the European Communities, 'Studies', Education Series No. 2, Brussels 1976, pp. 43-50.

² Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women, European Parliament, answers by Mrs Evelyn Sullerot to the questionnaire by Mrs von Alemann and Mr Estgen, PE 83.448 of 9 March 1983, p. 1.

A heavy burden is placed on careers advisers by the large numbers of young people in certain generations. The '1983 Report on Vocational Training' by the German Federal Ministry for Education and Science³ states that '... it may be assumed that the more difficult the placement situation, the more likely it is that young people will turn to employment offices for assistance. In addition, young people are being urged to consult careers advisers. Comparison of the vocational training situation (number of available places per 100 applicants) with the number of young people consulting careers advisory services during the period 1976 to 1982 confirms this view. In years where there were not sufficient training places available, the number of young people consulting careers advisory services increased'. (see Table 1).

Table 1
Available training places and numbers of applicants registered with the Federal Employment Office 1978 - 1982 (at 30 September each year)

Year	Registered places available		Registered applicants		Places available per 100 applicants
	Number	Percentage difference over preceding year	Number	Percentage difference over preceding year	
1978	382,616	10.8	463,517	6.1	82.5
1979	444,753	16.1	477,466	7.1	93.1
1980	501,970	12.9	459,300	- 3.8	109.3
1981	498,738	- 0.6	443,346	- 3.5	112.5
1982	467,525	- 6.3	508,934	14.8	91.9

Source: Federal Employment Office, careers advisory service statistics, 1978 - 1981 final figures, 1982 provisional figures

Careers education and careers advice are still too often based on a job market divided according to sex. These role stereotypes must be eliminated from the training received by advisers and from advisory techniques.

³ Federal Republic of Germany: Federal Minister for Education and Science: 1983 Report on Vocational Training, Schriftenreihe Berufliche Bildung 15, pp. 19-20, 22

3. Careers advice for girls generally comes too late (and is too shortsighted) to have any useful effect on training.

- (a) Advice is generally given shortly before the end of the second level of secondary education, following which girls have to choose a particular course of training. Advice is thus not given early enough to make girls aware before they specialize in school (at the end of the first level of secondary education or at the beginning of the second level of secondary education) of their future role in family and working life, and thus to correct the stereotyped specialization within the school system conditioned by upbringing and environment.
- (b) Between the ages of 14 and 16 girls are at a later stage in their physiological and psychological development; this means that they identify with the traditional stereotype of woman as housewife and mother, which is still generally prevalent, earlier than boys of the same age identify with the corresponding traditional male roles. Careers advice is not given until the psychological transition from girlhood to stereotyped womanhood has already been made.
- (c) Girls must therefore be given careers advice and in-service training at an earlier stage so that they are familiar with the world of work, which is controlled largely by men, and can compensate for the advantage which boys have in terms of manual skills and other knowledge of industry and technology.

Traditionally, careers advice ends once a girl has chosen a particular course of vocational training. Should a girl choose a 'typical man's job', she is given no support in the present system of careers advice if she encounters problems at her place of training, in her family environment or amongst her friends:

- Difficulties for girls at the beginning of the training in the use of technical tools and machines, their lack of the basic technical and scientific knowledge and general technical know-how which as a general rule boys possess far more than girls of the same age.
- Greater constraints on girls in asserting themselves in 'men's' courses of training because as a rule the undertaking, instructors and male colleagues consider them less capable than the male trainees.
- Lack of understanding on the part of parents about their daughter's unusual choice of career and lack of information about the 'untypical' job.
- Mockery or incomprehension amongst friends and acquaintances when an 'untypical' job is chosen.
- Career expectations of the girls themselves, who often only choose a 'man's job' if their 'dream job' is unattainable.

A CEDEFOP report on vocational training measures for women in the European Communities adduces all these factors as evidence of the need for a system of support for girls in 'untypical' jobs⁴.

⁴ CEDEFOP, Equal opportunities and vocational training, a Survey on vocational training initiatives for women in the European Communities, Berlin, 1982, pp. 45 ff and 93 ff

Traditional careers advice services cannot offer any programmes for assistance and support during and after training. This does not help to reduce rates of abandonment of training and difficulties over the transition from training to jobs. Unfortunately, it is not possible to give figures for the abandonment rate since no precise figures or estimates from the Commission or other organizations are available.

II. Advisory services for women before and during advanced vocational training

1. The reintegration and further training of women who have either been unemployed for a long time or who have not held a job because they were working in the home and family necessitate special advisory services.

Advisory services for adult women are generally even more inadequate than those provided for girls as the advice is generally given by overworked advisers who have no knowledge of the special problems of women torn between family and career.

Special and thorough advisory services for women seeking work given by specially trained and informed advisers are rare and to date provided by private schemes or as experimental projects.

2. Women who wish to take a job after a long time away from work are generally even less well-informed about the situation on the job market than are girls at the end of their schooling. Effective advisory services should thus give women an overview of possible areas of work and opportunities for further education and promotion and at the same time draw attention to the conflict of roles for women caught between career and family and offer possible solutions.
3. Advisory services should not be geared as in the past to short-term or outmoded trends on the job market which force women into the less-skilled and lower paid 'typical' jobs; they must promote access into qualified fields with prospects.
4. The particular difficulties of women, especially in technical jobs in industry must be taken into account in the preparatory advice given and the essential supportive advice during further training.
 - (a) There must be a motivation phase to inform both women and undertakings and the general public that women in men's jobs are a social and economic necessity and must be accepted as a matter of course.
 - (b) It is necessary to remedy educational shortcomings (basic skills such as spelling, style, arithmetic and mathematics) not only to fill the gaps in women's knowledge but also to accustom women to a learning and working environment with which they are unfamiliar because of the length of time during which they have not worked.
 - (c) It is important to ensure the psychological stability of women to give them self-confidence, self-awareness and independence. The demands on their time from both career and family, conflicts of role, lack of sympathy from the spouse and possible guilt feelings regarding children must be counteracted by sociological measures.

5 See CEDEFOP study, op cit. pp. 53 ff

5. Accompanying and supportive advisory services must also be provided following further training in the search for a job and during the performance of a job, to overcome resistance when starting a job and carrying it out. In France, the 'Retravailler' scheme, which concerned itself with the re-assimilation of women into the working world, established that even when a steady job had been found, there were great difficulties over integration in certain fields of 'typical' men's jobs⁶.

B. Vocational training and opportunities for training

1. It may be assumed that there are fewer training opportunities for girls than there are for boys in all the European Member States. The Statistical Office of the European Community points out in its 1981 publication 'Economic and Social Position of Women in the Community' that the number of girls and women who have completed vocational training courses is far smaller than the number of men in the same age group. Unfortunately, these figures relate to 1973⁷.

The 'Report on Women' produced by the Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs of the Land of North-Rhine Westphalia (Federal Republic of Germany) in 1982 states that: 'Of the available training places notified to employment offices in North-Rhine Westphalia in 1980, 53% were for young men and 47% for young women. 47% of the applicants were young men, and 53% young women'⁸. (See Table 2).

Table 2

Training places and applicants registered with employment offices
(North-Rhine Westphalia 1980)

	Available training places	Applicants	Difference	Number of places per 100 applicants
Men	44,920	59,527	14,607	75
Women	39,762	67,692	27,930	59

Source: North-Rhine Westphalia Employment Office, careers advisory service 1979/80, p. 45 and Tab. 32/33, calculations of the SFS

⁶ Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe, EP, answers by Mrs E. Sullerot, PE 83.448, 9.3.83, p.10.

⁷ Statistical Office of the European Communities, Economic and Social Position of Women in the Community, Luxembourg, 1981, pp. 314 ff.

⁸ Federal Republic of Germany, Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs of North-Rhine Westphalia, Düsseldorf 1982, Report on Women, pp. 82-83.

The calculations show that on average, 25% of male applicants and 40% of female applicants could not be found training places by the employment offices. This situation gives grounds for serious concern, particularly with regard to young women, when account is also taken of the variations in the figures in different areas and the fact that the places offered frequently do not provide the broad training with a wide range of applications which the applicants want. Of the registered applicants in North-Rhine Westphalia still seeking places on 30.9.1980, two-thirds were young women (66.8%). 93 of these young women had a school-leaving certificate or certificate of higher education. Of the training places still free at this time, only 30.6% were available to young women'.

2. The choice amongst the opportunities offered to girls is far more limited than it is for boys. This point was emphasized at the hearing on the Education and Vocational Training of Women organized by the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe in April 1983 in Luxembourg⁹.

The 'Report on women' by the Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs of North-Rhine Westphalia referred to above states: 'It is a recognized fact that there are 25 jobs on which almost 9 out of every 10 young women concentrate, most of them 'typical women's jobs' (75% or more occupied by women). This concentration has remained the same for some time (86.3% in the Federal Republic of Germany in 1973; 82.4% in 1981). In North-Rhine Westphalia in 1981, 16.1% of all female trainees were trained as sales assistants (including saleswomen in the food industry) and 10.3% as hairdressers. Almost one in four trainees therefore began their working lives in one of the two careers most pursued by young women'.

The Italian Institute for the Development of Vocational Training and Further Training for Workers - ISFOL - makes the following comments with regard to the situation of women under the Italian vocational training system¹⁰:

- women on vocational training courses at regional level account for 42% of total students (Isfol figures for 1981); women concentrate particularly on courses in commerce and the hotel and catering trade and hardly any attend courses with an industrial bias (engineering, electronics, etc.);
- women account for around 46% of the students at state vocational training schools; for the most part, they attend commercial courses and are poorly represented on industry-based courses;
- there are no reliable figures to show how many women attend in-service training courses;
- there is also an extremely small number of training opportunities offered only to women; these are mostly education projects for women, financed on a regional basis by the European Social Fund. The courses, which are so small in number as to be negligible, relate primarily to the services sector (tourism, the hotel and catering trade, etc.).'

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Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe report on the Hearing on the Education and vocational Training of Women in Europe, Luxembourg, 25 and 26 April 1983, PE 84.838

¹⁰ ISFOL, Istituto per lo sviluppo dell addestramento della formazione professionale e dei laboratori, replies submitted for the Hearing on the Educational and Vocational Training of Women, Luxembourg, 25/26 April 1983, PE 87.215, pp. 6 and 7

3. Girls who seek a place on a training course for a technical job in industry often have difficulty in completing their training. The above-mentioned report on the situation of women in North-Rhine Westphalia points out that of the 85 girls who had commenced a course in 1978 as part of an experimental project to open up technical jobs in industry to women, 19 were unable to complete the course. This abandonment rate is high. The report explains: 'The following principal reasons were given by those abandoning their course:

- dissatisfaction with the training, particularly with the work on the course and the manner of its organization,
- difficulties with the instructors or master-craftsmen, particularly the feeling that there was no individual recognition and encouragement;
- considerable difficulties keeping up with the work, for various reasons (e.g. because of comparatively poor previous education, considerable demands made by the family or personal problems);
- difficulties in the organization of private life, which made it appear impossible to cope with the demands of the training course at the same time;
- pregnancy and motherhood.

It is clear from an examination of individual cases of abandonment that there was seldom only one decisive reason; usually, external problems and difficulties with the training combined to cause young women to abandon the course.

In general, we find that the abandonment rate is considerably higher for women than for men. The greater susceptibility of female trainees to breaking off their training is explicable by reference to the socialization specific to their sex, the traditional division of roles in the family, the structurally-determined difficulties in the development of a stable attitude to a career, etc. The higher abandonment rate for young women can thus also be viewed as a reflection of the social disadvantage of women. Promotion of careers for girls must thus begin in the various areas in which the seeds of their failure are sown¹¹.

4. Experts agree that advice on available training opportunities and a realistic assessment of the job situation are essential to enable young girls to reach a decision. In order to ensure, however, that they are informed of all possibilities, measures have been adopted to publicize training opportunities in careers which are not considered to be specifically for women. The Equal Opportunities Commission in the United Kingdom made some interesting remarks on this subject in its statement for the committee's hearing on the education and vocational training of girls¹². It points out that publicity campaigns make girls, teachers and parents more aware of the possibilities of training and future employment in non-traditional fields. They should also make clear that in the case of girls, it is necessary to consider very carefully the consequences of the choice of subjects which they normally make at the age of 13.

¹¹ Federal Republic of Germany, Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs of the State of North-Rhine Westphalia, op. cit., pp. 107-108.

¹² Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe, European Parliament, replies by the Equal Opportunities Commission to the questionnaire for the Hearing on the Education and Vocational Training of Women, Luxembourg, 25/26 April 1983, PE 84.113, pp. 18-19, pp. 23 ff.

The 'New Community action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women'¹³ puts forward specific plans. It remains to be seen whether the Member States implement the action programme within the specified time.

5. It is generally assumed as a matter of course that working life for men and women follows roughly the same pattern in terms of time, i.e. after school comes vocational training, then a job and possibly further training. Unfortunately, very few people realise that this pattern does not apply to the majority of women. As explained earlier, they will undergo a brief period of vocational training or none at all, look for a job, which they carry out for a few years, and then marry. A large number of women leave their job on the birth of their first child. Once the children are at school, these women look for work again, usually for financial reasons and in the hope of making some social contact through their work which they do not have through the modern nuclear family. If they are already trained for a career, their knowledge and skills will in many ways have been superseded in the interim so that they can find a job only with great difficulty. Even if this is not the case, the years spent at home mean that women no longer have the confidence to return to their former position or do not have the courage required to make a fresh start. Programmes such as the 'Retravailer' scheme in France have shown how necessary it is for these women to be given adequate and comprehensive careers advice and help with training and/or reintegration into working life (see also point A II. - Advisory services for women before and during advanced vocational training)¹⁴.

C. Basis for and activities under a Community vocational training policy

I. Basis (directives and Council decisions)

1. European vocational training policy is based on the provisions of the Treaty of Rome which directly concern careers advice and placement in jobs: Article 128 and the instruments adopted for the purposes of its implementation (see below); Article 117, which cites the need to promote improved working conditions and an improved standard of living for workers; Article 118, which gives the Commission the task of promoting close cooperation between Member States in the social field, particularly in matters relating to employment ... and basic and advanced vocational training.
2. In implementation of the above articles, the following implementing decisions and recommendations were adopted:
 - Council Decision of 2 April 1963 laying down general principles for implementing a common vocational training policy (63/266/EEC)
 - Commission recommendation of 18 July 1966 to the Member States on the expansion of careers advisory services (66/484/EEC)

¹³ Commission of the European Communities 'New Community action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women (1982-1985)', COM(81) 758 final.

¹⁴ Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe, answers by Mrs E. Sullerot, op. cit. pp. 5 ff.

- Social action programme of 21 January 1974 (OJ No. C 13, 12.2.1974)
- Resolution of the Council and of the Ministers for Education, meeting within the Council, of 9 February 1976 on an action programme in the field of education
- Resolution of the Council and of the Ministers for Education, meeting within the Council, of 13 December 1976 on measures to be taken to improve the preparation of young people for work and to facilitate their transition from education to working life
- General guidelines, OJ No. C 81, 12.1.1971 (Council)
- Regulation establishing a European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP) (OJ No. L 39, 13.2.1975)
- Directive 76/207/EEC of 9 February 1976 on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training and promotion, and working conditions
- Resolution of the Council of 18 December 1979 on Linked work and training for young persons
- Resolution of the European Parliament on this subject of 13 March 1981 (Prag report)
- Commission report on the state of implementation of the Council directive of 9 February 1976 (access to employment, etc.)
- Resolution of the European Parliament of 11 February 1981 on the position of women in the Community
- Action programme of the Commission on the Council Resolution of 12 July 1982 on the action programme to promote equality of opportunity for women of 9 December 1982 (COM(81) 758 final)
- Council Resolution of 12 July 1982 on Community action to combat unemployment
- Commission communication on the above subject (Bulletin EC 11/82)
- Resolution of the Council of 24 May 1982 on a second series of model projects 1983-1986 in the field of the transition from school to working life (OJ No. C 193, 28.7.1982)
- Communication from the Commission to the Council on vocational training policy in the European Communities in the 1980s (COM(82) 637 final)
- Communication from the Commission to the Council on vocational training and new information technology - new Community initiatives for the period 1983-1987 (COM(82) 276 final)
- Resolution of the Council of 2 June 1983 concerning vocational training measures relating to new information technologies, (OJ No. C 166, 25.6.1983)
- Resolution of the Council of 11 July 1983 concerning vocational training policies in the European Community in the 1980s (OJ No. C 193, 20.7.1983)
- Resolution of the Council and the Ministers for Education, meeting within the Council, of 19 September 1983 on measures relating to the introduction of new information technology in education, (OJ No. C 256 24.9.1983).

II. Activities

1. The European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP) is financed from Article 632 of the Community budget. It prepares, carries out and evaluates studies on vocational training, careers advice and cooperation between Community countries in this area. CEDEFOP has the task of assisting the Commission in promoting vocational training and in-service training. In addition, the Centre provides a forum for the constant exchange of ideas and experience between all experts and institutions concerned with vocational training in the Community countries.

Since its foundation in 1976, careers guidance and training for young girls and women has been one of the main areas of emphasis in the Centre's work. In accordance with the avowed aim of the Commission, and with the encouragement of both sides of industry, CEDEFOP organized a seminar on equality of opportunity and vocational training in September 1977. At that time the participants at the seminar, who came from all the countries of the European Community, called on CEDEFOP to take practical steps in view of the stagnation and the marginalization of women on the job market. They called for an action programme geared to the realization in practice on the job market of the equality of opportunity which men and women already enjoy in the eyes of the law.

With the aim of bringing about changes, the Centre first looked at measures in favour of women which were already in operation in the Member States of the European Community and which were financed by the European Social Fund as model projects. CEDEFOP covered these projects in a documentary study in each individual country. The first step was to compile and store all useful information on these training programmes which are designed to increase the career options available to girls and to open up to women careers in which they are generally under-represented.

In 1980 the Centre published the results of the study¹⁵. Each country had drawn up a report. The individual reports were then distributed, often with the help of national institutions. A list of CEDEFOP publications on the subject of equal opportunities and vocational training is set out in Annex 1.

2. Since 1978, the European Social Fund has been financing specific programmes for the reintegration and further training of women:

	<u>No. of women</u>	<u>million ECU</u>
1978	12,000	7,690,867
1979	14,000	18,348,000
1980	11,000	21,090,000
1981	10,000	22,546,000
1982	14,000	27,348,000

¹⁵ CEDEFOP 'Equal opportunities and vocational training, Catalogue of Training Innovations in the Member States of the Community', Berlin, 1979-1980

3. Activities relating to general education and vocational training are financed from Chapter 63 of the budget. They include: the preparation of young people for working life, the implementation of the education programme, measures in the field of vocational guidance, measures for training people in the new information technology, and continuing training, including cooperation between residential centres for adults.
4. The Commission has taken specific measures to implement the 'action programme to promote equality of opportunity' of December 1981 (see page 12). The Commission's advisory committee on equal opportunities for men and women is considering proposals relating to point B 11 - Vocational choices - the aim of which is to extend the Danish system of equal opportunities consultant (see page 15) to other countries. These proposals have not yet been submitted to the committee of inquiry.

II. Statistics

The resolution adopted by the European Parliament on 11 February 1981¹⁶ calls, in Chapter 1 (improvement of existing Community measures) for:

'... a provision which obliges the Member States to prepare coordinated statistics in which the specific structural problems relating to the employment of women are clearly defined and on the basis of which an assessment can be made of how far the aim of the Directive has been achieved'.

The Statistical Office of the European Communities supplies the basic statistical information for the preparation of Community initiatives and directives to improve the situation of women and draws up Community social statistics compiled separately for men and women. This information on the economic and social situation of women appears in a large number of different publications. The Office therefore commissioned from the CISP (Comitato Italiano per lo studio dei problemi della popolazione) a series of statistical tables showing the economic and social situation of women in the Community. This study, which appeared in 1981¹⁷, was submitted to the Statistical Office in November 1978. The Office arranged for its translation into English and French and updated the figures on the basis of the data available at the beginning of 1980.

Unfortunately, figures were in many cases only available for the period 1973 to 1975 and occasionally for the years up to 1978. It would, therefore, be desirable either to commission a new study, or at least to update those chapters which are important to women's organizations, public authorities and other relevant bodies (i.e. the chapters on vocational training, further training and, if available, information on the relationship between vocational training and employment or unemployment). The funds required must be made available from the Community budget.

Publications concerning vocational training for women, improvement of vocational training and female employment point out time and again that statistics relating to the employment and unemployment of women are not sufficiently detailed. It is beyond the scope of this report to give a precise list of all the information necessary for a more accurate assessment of the situation. It would, however, be useful if the Commission were to arrange for a study to be carried out to ascertain precisely which statistics are required and the way in which they should be obtained.

¹⁶ OJ No. C 50, 9.3.1981

¹⁷ Statistical Office of the European Communities, 'Economic and Social Position of Women in the Community', 1981, op cit.

D. Selected programmes and results from Denmark and the USA¹⁸

I. Denmark

Equal opportunities consultants in the Danish public employment service¹⁹

In the Danish public employment service, 14 posts as equal opportunities consultants have been created from 1 January 1981.

The creation of these posts was due to a proposal advanced by the Danish Council on Equality.

The proposal was made because

- the Danish Equal Treatment Act passed in 1978 has only resulted in small changes in the training and occupational opportunities of women,
- the rate of unemployment among women has remained at the same high level for a long period, and
- women do not benefit from the employment measures being implemented to an extent which corresponds to their share of the unemployment.

The Danish public employment service plays a vital role in the contact between employers and workers, in the choice of training and occupation, and in the campaign against unemployment through certain measures designed to encourage the development of employment.

The performance of the duties of the public employment services as stated above is conditional upon the staff of the public employment service being able to counteract the sex-linked concept of men's and women's opportunities and skills found among job-seekers, employers, institutes of education, among the staff members of the public employment offices themselves, etc. However, the public employment service has not been able to perform this task which also presupposes the development of other methods and procedures in the service.

Therefore, efforts are now being made - through the supply of additional resources - to develop the public employment service so that it can solve the problem of women's integration into the labour market.

The main functions of the equal opportunities consultants are as follows:

- To ensure that all the work of the public employment service is based on the principle of equal opportunities for men and women and reflects this attitude. Therefore, it is the duty of the consultants to instruct, counsel and advise the staff in this field.
- To take part in developing methods of communication and guidance aimed at changing the traditional way of thinking as regards men's and women's qualifications and opportunities in the labour market, a way of thinking which is to be found among employers as well as workers.
- To take part in launching experiments which may increase the amount of knowledge of how and why women and men respectively are getting on in non-traditional occupations.
- To take part in organizing and evaluating training and employment measures on the basis of the principle of equality of opportunity.

¹⁸ For programmes and experiences from other Member States see the results of the hearing organized by the Committee of Inquiry, op. cit.

¹⁹ Lotte Valbjørn, Danish Directorate of Labour: Report of OECD Answers by Mrs Sullerot and EOC, Manpower Services Commission, 1982

All the duties mentioned must be performed in close collaboration with the staff of the regional employment offices.

For organizational purposes, the equal opportunities consultant is to be found in the secretariat of the Regional Labour Market Board because

- the consultant must have the possibility of collaborating with all groups of staff in the regional employment offices i.e. employment officers, labour consultants, vocational guidance officers and administrative staff.
- the consultant is to take part in the planning by the Regional Labour Market Board of the regional labour market policy, having regard to the principle of equal opportunities for men and women.
- the consultant is to prepare for the Regional Labour Market Board proposals for the regional policy in respect of equal opportunities for men and women in the form of an annual plan for the work in the region.

The equal opportunities consultant works under the direction of the regional manager, but in the Directorate of Labour there is a University-trained employee whose object is to develop the equal opportunities consultant scheme in the public employment services. She has a consultant as her immediate assistant.

For the purposes of monitoring the work and forward planning, the equal opportunities consultants have to prepare an annual plan for the work on equality of opportunity, integration of women into the labour market, and in the regional employment offices. The annual plan is to be discussed with employees and employers and approved by the Regional Labour Market Board.

The annual plan must include a few realistically attainable tasks. The equal opportunities consultants are to follow the implementation of the plan and evaluate it at the end of the year.

II. USA

In the 70s a significant social change took place in the United States: the number of working women above 16 as a proportion of the civil working population rose from 43% in 1970 to 51% in 1979. Between 1970 and 1979, on average, almost one million women per year started work.

Many factors account for this development: the extra income of a wife was needed for the children's schooling, holidays or other things. Divorce or separation left many women as the sole breadwinner of the family. (In 1981 the wages and salaries of working women contributed 23.7% of family income and 38.7% of family income if only full-time workers are considered²⁰. The women's movement ensured that women became aware that they had a right to a demanding and well-paid job and awakened them to the various possibilities of the job market and the injustice inherent in a job market divided up into jobs specific to one or other sex.

²⁰ US Department of Labour, Office of the Secretary, Women's Bureau: Economic Responsibilities of Working Women, Wash., DC, Nov. 1982.

The largest increase in the number of women on the job market took place in the 25-34 age group in which many women traditionally stopped working when they married or after the birth of their first child. Today they no longer do this. The proportion of 25-34 year olds amongst the working population rose by 19% between 1970 and 1979 and in 1979 made up 64% of working women. This is remarkable, because 70% of the women in this age group are married and live with their husbands and children under 18. Despite the sharp increase of women on the job market, they were taking up the same old jobs: more than half of all working women are to be found in only 20 of the 441 jobs in the official American job classification system. As in Europe, this derives from the early traditional conditioning in a role though the choice of school subjects and disciplines. Advice which steers girls away from the 'difficult' subjects of mathematics towards subjects which prepare them for their future role as wife and mother put the girls at a disadvantage, as in addition to their work as wife and mother they must also earn money, and they generally work in jobs which are not as well paid as those of men.

In general, however, the situation with regard to training is the same in the USA as in the European Community: girls and women learn more by chance than by judicious advice about new jobs; there is a higher rate of abandonment of training among women than among men; they have more difficulty finding a foothold as a skilled worker (apprenticeship), particularly when a trade union controls access to the job.

For this reason, there are women's self-help organizations to provide careers advice, employment services and support. All the experts agree that women in 'untypical' jobs only manage to complete their training or retraining if they are given assistance and support. The opinion in the USA is that this aid should be arranged by those in need of it, as only women working under similar circumstances can know exactly where the problems lie in vocational training for jobs previously occupied only by men.

This support system can take many forms:

- publication of a magazine with contributions from the women concerned²¹;
- a careers advisory service which also offers support during vocational training (in this instance a private organization in Minneapolis, Minnesota - CHART);
- or, as at the Technical Institute in Minneapolis, Minnesota, one teacher can be made responsible for the support of female pupils. There are now women on all the vocational training courses (except for mechanics). However, women find it very difficult to cope in a course if their number is too small. Only if there is a certain number of young women taking a course together are they able to offer one another mutual support when the pressure of competition and the difficulties occasioned by male colleagues are too great. The above mentioned teacher was employed to overcome these problems. According to women pupils aged between 25 and 40, the age of the teacher was a very important factor. In general it was said that older teachers had more sympathy than younger teachers for the problems of female pupils. The female pupils agreed unanimously that their experience of training for a traditionally male job would have been easier if they had been familiar with technical matters from their childhood. One woman expressed it thus: 'If we had learned how to repair household appliances in our domestic science lessons as well as cooking, life would be easier for me now.'

²¹-----
 Tradeswomen Magazine, P.O. Box 5735, Berkeley, California, USA

- in an area of New York with a bad reputation, a teacher at a technical vocational college and a number of male and female pupils visit other schools to canvass for female pupils. As a result of the increase in female pupils (after 2 years the school has 200 girls), the school's reputation has improved. There is now less violence in the school and the learning environment has improved considerably. Girls being trained in men's jobs receive the same teaching as the boys and fit in well.



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CEDEFOP PUBLICATIONS 'EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING'

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Results of a seminar, Berlin, 28-30 September 1977
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Equal opportunities and vocational training
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Report on a survey carried out in the Member States of the
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European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training
(CEDEFOP), Berlin 1980

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for the European Centre for the Development of Vocational
Training (CEDEFOP), Berlin 1980
Florence Morgan-Gérard

Equal opportunities and vocational training
Training and employment measures to benefit women at work in
the Federal Republic of Germany
Dr Barbara Hegelheimer
German contribution to a comparative study carried out in the
Member States of the European Community for the European Centre
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Equal Opportunities and Vocational Training
Training and Labour Market Policy Measures for the Vocational
Promotion of women in Ireland
Joy McCaffrey, Christine Whyte, Brenda McGennis
Contribution of Ireland to a survey initiated and sponsored by
the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training
in the nine Member States of the European Communities
Berlin 1979

Lige muligheder i erhvervsuddannelsen

Uddannelses- og arbejdsmarkedspolitiske foranstaltninger til støtte for selverhvervende kvinder i Danmark

C. Nørregaard, B. Petersén, L. Valbjørn

Det danske bidrag til en sammenlignende undersøgelse i Det europæiske Fællesskabs medlemsstater udarbejdet for Det europæiske Center for udvikling af Erhvervsuddannelse (CEDEFOP), Berlin 1979

Einige Kapitel in DE

Egalité des chances et formation professionnelle

Actions de formation en faveur de l'emploi et de la promotion professionnelle des femmes en Belgique

M. Abicht, C. Jonckheere, S. Kohnenmergen

Contribution belge à une enquête menée dans les Etats membres des Communautés européennes par le Centre européen pour le développement de la formation professionnelle (CEDEFOP), Berlin 1979

Gelijke kansen in de beroepsopleiding

Maatregelen op het gebied van het opleidings- en arbeidsmarktbeleid voor de verbetering van de beroepspositie van vrouwen in België

M. Abicht, C. Jonckheere, S. Kohnenmergen

Belgische bijdrage aan een vergelijkend onderzoek, uitgevoerd in de negen Lid-Staten van de Europese Gemeenschappen op last van het Europees Centrum voor de Ontwikkeling van de Beroepsopleiding (CEDEFOP), Berlijn 1979

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R. Jaarsma, Y. Leeman

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vergriffen

Deutsche Arbeitsübersetzung verfügbar

Parità di opportunità nella formazione professionale

Interventi di carattere formativo a favore dell'occupazione e della promozione professionale delle donne in Italia

L. Calisse, A. Nobile, D. Pescarollo

Contributo italiano per uno studio comparativo negli Stati membri della Comunità Europea su incarico del Centro europeo per lo sviluppo della formazione professionale (CEDEFOP), Berlin 1979

vergriffen

Equal opportunities and vocational training
Training and employment measures to benefit women at work in the
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Marie C.R. Alexander
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Report prepared on the basis of publications and experts'
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Carin Riis-Jørgensen
 Berlin 1981

Qualifications et besoins en formation des conjoints aidants dans
les petites et moyennes entreprises

Carin Riis-Jørgensen
 Berlin 1981

Qualifiche ed esigenze in materia d'istruzione delle persone
che coadiuvano il coniuge nell'ambito di una piccola o media
impresa di sua proprietà

Carin Riis-Jørgensen
 Berlin 1981

**Kwalificaties en opleidingsbehoeften van meewerkende echtgenoten
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Karin Riis-Jørgensen
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Femmes et formation professionnelle

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Littérature des Etats membres des CE

Auswahlbibliographie
Selected Bibliography
Bibliographie sélective

Delia Güsselfeld

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Le cas de la Grèce, de l'Espagne et du Portugal

Rapport de synthèse

Yota Kravaritou-Manitakis
Berlin 1983

Egalité des chances et formation professionnelle
Le cas de la Grèce

Yota Kravaritou-Manitakis
Août 1982

Igualdad de oportunidades y formación profesional
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María Pilar Alcobendas Tirado
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Le cas de l'Espagne

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Igualdade de oportunidades de formação profissional das
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Muelia Silva
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...
égalité des chances et formation professionnelle des femmes
le cas du Portugal -

Muelia Silva
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Equal Opportunities and Vocational Training
-company training: proposals for future action

Briël Fragnière

Result of a comparative analysis of seven national reports on
-company training programmes for women, July 1982

...
égalité des chances et formation professionnelle
formation en entreprise: propositions d'action

Briël Fragnière

Resultat de l'analyse comparative de sept rapports nationaux
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Skrivelse af 4 selvstændige studier af kvinder i uddannelser,
som kan sikre dem rimelige beskæftigelsesmuligheder i et
integreret samarbejde med mandlige kolleger

Arbejdet af Lotte Valbjørn og Carl Nørregård for CEDEFOP,
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...
Description of 4 separate studies of women on training courses
which can ensure for them reasonable opportunities of employment
integrated co-operation with male colleagues

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Equal opportunities and vocational training
In-service advanced training and careers advancement of women in the
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Dr Barbara Hegelheimer
German contribution to a comparative study carried out in the
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.....
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Summary

Equal opportunities and vocational training
Case studies of career development for women in undertakings
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Gelijke kansen in de beroepsopleiding
De arbeidsmarkt doorbreken (Nederland) ..
Samenvattend rapport van een inventariserend onderzoek naar de
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managementfuncties, die voornamelijk door mannen bekleed worden

Tineke de Rijk
Berlijn 1982

Equal Opportunities and Vocational Training
Breaking down barriers on the labour market (The Netherlands)
An investigation into the training of women for technical and
management occupations predominantly carried out by men

Tineke de Rijk
Berlin 1982

Égalité des chances et formation professionnelle
Briser le cercle vicieux du marché de l'emploi
Rapport résumant une étude de recensement des formations pour
femmes en vue de fonctions techniques et de fonctions de gestion
exercées principalement par des hommes

Tineke de Rijk
Berlin 1982

Égalité des chances et formation professionnelle
Programme de formation de femmes à des métiers traditionnellement
masculins par cinq employeurs belges

Commission du Travail des Femmes
Berlin 1982

Parità di Opportunità e Formazione Professionale
Rapporte finale di sintesi ai casi italiani

CREL - CERES - IRES
Berlin 1982

COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

TOPIC No. 6

OF

THE REPORT OF INQUIRY

on

the introduction of new technologies
and its effect on the employment of women

Rapporteur: Mrs A. SPAAK

5 July 1983

At its constituent meeting on 15 October 1981 the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe drew up 18 topics of inquiry including the introduction of new technologies and its effect on the employment of women for which Mrs Antoinette SPAAK was appointed rapporteur.

The draft report was considered by the Committee of Inquiry at its meeting of 14 and 15 March 1983.

This report was adopted unanimously at the meeting of 21 and 22 June 1983.

The following took part in the vote :

Mrs VAYSSADE, acting chairman; Mrs LENZ and Dame Shelagh ROBERTS, vice-chairmen; Mrs SPAAK, rapporteur; Mrs LEROUX and Mr PURVIS (deputizing for Mrs HOOPER).

Articles to be included in the motion for a resolution of the Committee of Inquiry

-) Urges the Commission and the Council to abandon the hitherto non-committal stance with regard to women in their documents and proposals on employment and new technologies and to consider women explicitly as a fundamental element of the problem;
-) Calls on the Commission and the Council to take urgent measures to increase awareness:
 - 1. among employers, including public administration in the Member States, particularly by pursuing the pilot experiment on the equality of opportunity carried out in the banks in order to come up with concrete proposals and by extending the experiment to other sectors such as insurance and the distribution trades,
 - 2. within the trade unions,
 - 3. among all the feminist movements.
-) Calls on the Commission to carry out studies:
 - 1. on the repercussions for the employment of women of agreements reached between the social partners on new technologies,
 - 2. on the expansion of work at home linked with information techniques.
-) Calls on the Commission to make a proposal for a directive with the aim of making training in new technologies obligatory for boys and girls during compulsory schooling;
-) Calls on the Commission, within the framework of the ESF:
 - 1. to set up operations to raise the quality and standard of training within the firm given primarily to women in the services sector following the introduction of new technology, as well as operations to adapt training for 'women's' occupations directly affected by new technology;

2. to ensure the proportional participation by women in programmes for the training of instructors and specialists for industries which produce new technologies;
- (6) Calls on the Commission to record and provide liaison for all actions taken within the Member States for the training of women in new technology, and to ensure that the most successful experiments are spread throughout the Community with the aid of the ESF.

Explanatory statement

INTRODUCTION

Point 25 of the resolution of February 1981 on the position of women in the Community:

'Asks the Commission and Council in relation to the effects of new technologies on the employment of women:

- to make both sides of industry, undertakings and trade unions, aware of the specific problems encountered by women following the introduction of new technologies;

- to cooperate with both sides of industry in order to inform women of the prospects offered to them by telematics;

- to initiate in cooperation with both sides of industry and with the possibility of assistance from the Social Fund:

- (a) measures to promote the training of women in areas of work where the prospects of employment are best;

- (b) measures to adapt training traditionally acquired by women to telematics;

- (c) measures intended to teach women how to teach others in the new fields;

- to ensure that the development of work at home, which will be one of the consequences of telematics, does not become the source of a new form of segregation on the employment market;

- Asks the Commission, in the case of policy developments concerning new technologies, to state in concrete terms what will be their effect on the positions and the employment of women and at the same time to state how consequences that might be prejudicial to women may be avoided or otherwise dealt with.'

The social partners, vocational training including education, and the expansion of work at home are essential elements of the problem of new technologies and the employment of women. To this should be added the adjustment of working hours. This document is not a new study of the problem but an attempt to find out what initiatives have been taken by the Commission and the Council and what further action should be taken in light of the information gathered within the Member States¹. The question of 'women and new technologies' should always be looked at in the wider context of the economic crisis and of the problem of the role of women in society. There is a real danger of their position being eroded unless a special effort is made to help them find their place in this technological revolution. This new challenge, coming in the wake of so many others, must be met if women are not to see a further decline in their standard of employment.

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Since 1979 the Commission and the Council have adopted several documents on new technologies which deal with these various themes.

In 1979, in a Communication to the European Council in Dublin², the Commission set out the general framework for action to be taken in preparing society for technological innovation. However, there is no reference to the problems of 'women'.

The new Community action programme for 1982-1985 for promoting equality of opportunity for women contains a 'Section 10' on their participation in working life, notably in relation to the new technologies. It confines itself, broadly to training for these technologies.

Since 1979 the Commission has adopted documents and taken initiatives for more detailed action with regard to the social aspect of the new technologies:

¹ Questionnaires sent to undertakings, trade unions; symposiums, studies . . .

² COM(79) 650 final, 23.11.79, 'European society faced with the challenge of new information technologies. A Community response'.

(A) Three communications:

1. COM(80) 16 final, 16.2.80, Employment and the new micro-electronic technology. Communication from the Commission to the Standing Committee on Employment.
2. COM(81) 578 final, 12.10.81, New Information Technologies and Social Change in the areas of employment, working conditions, education and vocational training. Communication of the Commission to the Standing Committee on Employment
3. COM(82) 296 final, 3.6.82, Vocational Training and New Information Technologies: new Community initiatives during the period 1983-1987 - Communication from the Commission to the Council - Meeting of the Council of Ministers for Education on 24 May 1982.

(B) Training programmes are carried out under the European Social Fund.

(C) Research on training is carried out under the auspices of the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP).

(D) The Commission has asked Mrs C. SHANNON and Mrs F. HENWOOD of the University of Sussex to compile a report on new information technologies and the employment of women within the framework of the FAST (Forecasting and Assessment in the field of Science and Technology) programme.

(E) Creation of EPOS (European Pool of Studies and Analyses of new information technologies and employment) whose main activity is to establish a documentation base of annotated bibliographies and a monthly bulletin. The March 1982 issue (No. 5) is devoted to new technologies and the employment of women.

(F) Participation by the Commission in organizing conferences:

1. The Manchester Conference - 28-30 May 1980 on the theme 'Equality for women - An assessment - Problems and perspectives'. The Commission had asked Mrs J. Gershuny of the University of Sussex for a report on technical innovation and female employment in the EEC. Point 5 of the conclusions of the conference is devoted entirely to this question.

2. Paris Conference - 24-25 January 1983 on the Impact of New Technologies on the Employment of Women, organized by Mrs Yvette ROUDY, Minister for Women's Rights.

A. COMMUNICATIONS FROM THE COMMISSION

Our overall assessment endorses that of the Standing Liaison Group on equality of opportunity: the Commission's proposals in the field of employment are in general too unspecific with regard to the problems of female workers. They deal with both sides of industry, education, training, work at home and the adjustments of working hours with, for the most part, no reference to women, except in connection with training. Women are treated rather as incidental to the problem.

1. The Social Partners

In all its documents the Commission stresses the essential role of the social partners in the introduction of new technologies. The establishment of procedures for consultation and effective bargaining is viewed as a priority. The Commission itself has actually begun close consultations with both sides of industry (COM(81) 578 final, p. 5-21).

Unfortunately, the trade unions in general continue to show little concern for women's problems mainly because the latter are poorly represented in these organizations. This seems particularly true in relation to new technologies.

They have all studied the problem but mostly without direct reference to women who are affected as much as if not more than men by this new revolution at work.

The European Trade Union Institute (ETUI) has published two documents:

1. The impact on employment of micro-electronics in Western Europe in the 1980s (report by Mr J. Evans, Nov. 1979) drawn up as a basic reference document for the trade unions.

2. Negotiating the introduction of new technologies, 1982, a survey of the different approaches adopted by the Western European trade unions.

Women are only referred to in connection with service industries or secretarial work. No mention of them is made in the solutions proposed and the conclusions.

The same is true of the 1981 declaration of the European Confederation of Trade Unions on working conditions and new technology.

The TUC in Britain has adopted a list of directives for its negotiators. Only in the point dealing with sharing out the benefits of technology women are mentioned in connection with systems of work assessment: these are likely to be reorganized and could also serve to safeguard or improve the position of women affected by new technology.

The general agreement reached in Denmark between the Landorganisationen (L.O.) and the employers' union does not mention women.

Conclusion

Trade union policy largely reflects male interests, although some sectors seem to be registering a breakthrough¹ (see report by Jacqueline Huppert-Laufer on equality of opportunity in the banking sector of the EEC countries, August 1982, p. 56-57).

¹ Issue No. 5 of the EPOS Information Bulletin, devoted to new technology and the employment of women, emphasizes the lack of collective effort e.g. by trade unions, in support of women's rights (page 12). See also EPOS Bulletin No. 8 on the impact of new technology on trade union organization - Case No. 3 Midland Bank (UK): the relative lack of involvement by women at all levels of the union (BIFU) is one obstacle likely to prevent BIFU from finding an effective response to the new technologies.

It is essential that the Commission

- (1) make a study of the impact on the employment of women of the agreements reached between the social partners on new technologies;
- (2) plan and organize information campaigns:
 - (a) within the trade unions, encouraging them to inform, consult, motivate, train, etc their membership (and generally to encourage women's participation in their organizations);
 - (b) among Womens' groups, whether:
 - women's sections within trade unions (For example, the secretariat of female employees of the F.N.V. (Federatie Nederlandse Volksbeweging) organized a study day on 'women and automation' at which the documents discussed urged that union policy take account of equality of opportunity and salaries for female workers. This type of initiative should be encouraged).
 - women's organizations in general and those in each of the EEC countries.

At management level

The documents of the UIEC (Union of Industries of the European Communities) take a very broad approach to the subject without focussing on women.

However, the pilot experiment carried out by the Commission in collaboration with the German Marshall Fund and the City University of London in four European banks indicates that efforts to acquaint employers in female-dominated sectors with the problems of women in general and more specifically the position of women and new technologies, can be effective.

The idea was to make the employers concerned aware of the specific features of female employment in their sector. An assessment seminar was held in August 1982 (see report by J. Huppert-Laufer, on the equality of opportunity in the banking sector of the EEC countries). It was regarded overall as a success and generated considerable interest among those taking part.

This type of experiment should therefore be encouraged with a view to the introduction of specific measures and its extension to other sectors. The Commission's proposals in this field (COM(81) 578 final, p. 22) should be supported.

Many women are employed in public administration, when they could play a leading role on this issue. Any campaign by the Commission to promote awareness should include this sector.

2. Education

In future all branches of education, including those furthest removed from the mathematics field will be using new information technologies. The handling of these requires certain specific aptitudes, such as the ability to cope with abstract concepts, flexibility of thought and the recognition of relationships (see (COM(81) 578 final, p. 14).

These skills develop very early in life. Many girls fail to acquire them because education provided from their earliest school years is still dominated by girl and boy stereotypes.

Action must be taken as soon as schooling starts. The Commission has proposed to the Council that a report be made on the introduction of new techniques into the education systems of the Member States and that a conference be held to discuss the most important aspects of this question (COM(81) 578 final, p. 7).

On 24 May 1982 the Council of Ministers for Education welcomed these two proposals.

The Commission's report has not yet been released. We should urge the Commission that:

- the report include a girl boy analysis;
- one of the main themes of the conference be the education of girls in the handling of new technologies, with compulsory introduction to the subject in primary school.

3. Training

It is widely agreed that if women do not receive immediate vocational training in new technologies the number and standard of jobs available to them are liable to decline.

Little progress has been made on the review of training programmes for women¹.

It is acknowledged that the services sector (banks, department stores, health services, teaching) will generate no new jobs for women over the next few years.

The new technology should provide job opportunities both in new and existing sectors where keyboard and screen have replaced manual and physical skills. However, even if they have the required skills, women will not find access easy on account of resistance from the trade unions which essentially defend the interests of male workers¹.

In dealing with training possibilities the Commission's communications make more reference to women :

- the new technologies should be considered within the framework of the new action programme for equality of opportunity for women (COM(82) 296 final, p. 6);
- the draft resolution by the Council concerning the vocational training policies in the Community for the 1980s states that particular attention should be paid to the specific needs of women in the Commission's work on training in connection with the introduction of new information technologies;
- the retraining of manual workers and employees threatened by redundancy, especially women, who will be particularly affected in the services sector is considered to be a priority (COM(80) 16 final, p. 7), COM(81) 578 final, p. 13 and 15);

¹ Study by CEDEFOP on micro-electronics and vocational training for women (see point C below)

- the Commission proposes that action be undertaken in favour of vocational training and employment of women through specific projects in certain large service firms (banks, insurance, administrations) (COM(81) 578 final, p. 22). It also mentions the Social Fund and its role in respect of women (see point B below);
- a constant review of the evolution of the structure of employment with special emphasis on particular socio-professional groups, including women, is one of the points of the new information technologies study programme (COM(80) 16 final, p. 9) (COM(81) 578 final, p.5);

Other aspects of the Commission's document relate directly to women, though without mentioning them specifically:

- The training of instructors and teachers (COM(81) 578 final, p. 15 and 22). The teaching profession employs a majority of women. It is vital that, both on the science and the arts side, all should be able to use the new technologies in their work very soon. An experiment carried out in France provides disturbing indications: private informatics clubs for teachers have been set up; they are frequented mainly by 'scientists' and men (women make up only 20%)¹.
- The training of specialists for industries producing new technologies (COM(81) 578 final, p. 16). Women are virtually absent on the design side although they are the main end-users.
- Broadly based training to encourage greater professional and geographical mobility (COM(82) 296 final, p. 8). In the services sector in particular where a majority of employees are women, training provided by firms following the introduction of new technologies is restricted to a half-day or up to four days and only relates to the machine to be operated. It provides no new qualification nor any additional chance of promotion. Its limited nature prejudices professional mobility which will become increasingly important.

¹ 'Looking ahead' Conference No. 2, 'The future micro-processor civilization' organized by the Women's Committee of the French branch of the European Movement, Paris, 11 December 1981

In general women lack the requisite grounding for more advanced training. Furthermore, willingness to relocate which is a condition often required, particularly by the banks, is a disincentive to possible candidates².

- Pilot schemes: the Commission proposes the creation of a network of four groups of pilot schemes in connection with the four priorities for 1983-87 (COM(82) 296 final, p. 10). Without specifically referring to them, the second priority concerns women directly since it involves large enterprises in the services sector (banks, businesses).

N.B. At its meeting on 24 May 1982 the Council finally settled on 25 schemes with a possible increase to 30, the figure initially proposed by the Commission.

Conclusion

The Commission should involve women more explicitly in all the training programmes it envisages, and more particularly those for the training of instructors, teachers and specialists for the industries producing the new technologies.

It should try to improve the training currently available in service firms, which mainly concerns women, in order to encourage awareness among women of the standard of their employment.

4. Work at home

Three lines are devoted to this subject in the Communication from the Commission (80) 16 final, (page 5):

'In addition, the development of home-based productive work will no doubt have substantial implications in such areas as the sharing of responsibilities at home between men and women'.

² CEDEFOP study on micro-electronics and the vocational training of women (see point C below)

It is highly likely that only women will be laid off for work at home which will mean added burdens, isolation, lack of social protection, insecurity.

Little information is available about work at home performed by women and men using the new technologies. It would seem, however, that this form of activity is on the increase¹.

The Commission should undertake an immediate study to warn of the dangers involved in this type of work.

5. Adaptation of working hours following the introduction of new technologies. New technology encourages the introduction of part-time work and shift work.

Women are likely to be excluded from sectors where shift work is introduced (ban in certain Member States on night-shift work for women, no services operating to take care of children, etc.). More information is needed.

(For part-time work, see report by Mrs Wieczorek-Zeul).

The Commission refers to these problems in its two communications (COM(80) 16 final, pp's 4 and 12, and COM(81) 578 final, p. 18), but does not stress the risks involved for women workers.

(B) THE SOCIAL FUND

Framework of the current Social Fund

In 1980, 1981 and the first half of 1982, joint financing was provided by the Social Fund for training programmes in new technologies:

- (1) Notably in 1980, within the framework of pilot experiments, the experiment carried out in France by OREP (the regional office for permanent education) on 'technical training, telematics and office automation for network operators' with the aim of

¹ See Conference organized in Paris on 24 and 25 January 1983 on 'vocational training of women in Europe and new technologies', by Mrs Roudy, Minister for Women's Rights

training women to gain access to new jobs created by the introduction of a teletext information network in three 'departments' of the region of Aquitaine. The 30 trainees, 4 of whom withdrew, had to be over the age of 18, to have passed their baccalaureat and to have a knowledge of English. Fourteen of them found jobs at the end of the course (see the OREP report). The experiment was followed up in 1981 with schemes for two other categories, women over the age of 25 and young people (see below).

(2) With regard to the other areas of operation (young people - women over the age of 25 - technical progress) we have no details as to

- the total cost of each project authorized by the European Social Fund;
- the number of women able to participate;
- the number of those who found jobs after the project.

(a) Young people

A special programme was organized in 1981 for training young girls in new technologies as a result of the FOREP pilot experiment.

(b) Women over the age of 25

France

- C.I.E.F.O.R. - Joint Business Centre for Training and Proficiency Studies, Paris
- . Training for computer programmers or analysts/programmers in the regions of Brittany, Rhône-Alpes, the Loire, Poitou-Charentes;
- . Training for technicians, electronic and digital technicians, micro-processor technicians in the Paris area and the Central Eastern region.

- Lycée Edouard Branly - Créteil
 - . Training for electronics technicians with basic knowledge of micro-processors;
- Paris-Nord University - Centre of Continuing Education
 - . Pre-training and training for office automation personnel;
- C.E.F.E.P. - Training and Continuing Education Centre
Villiers le Bel - Arnouville les Gonesse, 95400
 - . Training for office automation personnel
- E.P.S. - Ecole Professionnelle Supérieure - Paris
 - . Training for analysts/programmers in micro-processors;
- C.C.I., Mulhouse
CIFOP - 15, rue des Frères Lumière, Mulhouse
 - . Training for women in management informatics;
 - . Training for women supervisors in electronics production;
- OREP - Regional Office for Continuing Education, rue Jean
Geneze, PAU
 - . Training in telematics and office automation techniques.

Ireland

- ANCO - The Industrial Training Authority
 - . Training of 'skilled word-processor operators';

Italy

- ACIST - Associazione Corsi Istruzione Specializzazione Tecnica

- . Advanced training for women technicians in the electronic components industry - supervisors.

(C) Technical progress

In 1981, this field of operation was allocated its own budget for the first time. Overall 23,997 boys and girls took part in the projects. No statistics so far have been published on the girl-boy ratio. Aid from the Fund for 1981 amounted to 33 million ECU.

In view of the lack of information about the total cost of these projects, the number of women involved and the results, it is difficult to formulate an assessment of the ESF operation.

A recent conference held in Paris on 24 and 25 January 1983 on the impact of new technologies on the employment of women brought two factors to light:

- (1) A large number of experiments are being carried out in each Member State. Awareness of the existence and the outcome of these projects can only strengthen the effectiveness of the ESF. The Commission should study ways of coordinating all these projects to enable a selective network of the most profitable of this type of project to be set up throughout the entire Community.
- (2) The operation involving women over the age of 25 has frequently proved to be somewhat restrictive since many women aged 23 or 24 apply.

Reform of the Social Fund

These observations also apply to the 'new' Social Fund, one of the objectives of the review being 'to take account of the consequences, both positive and negative, which the introduction of new technology may have on the level of employment and to contribute in particular to raising the standard of training to meet the requirements of the development

of such technology' (COM(82) 485 final, 8 October 1982, page 3).

More general remarks were made in the report by Mrs Maij-Weggen (PE 81.811), which calls for proportionality in the ratio of men to women among those taking part in ESF projects, especially for training in the new technologies and the training of instructors in this field.

(C) CEDEFOP

The European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training has studied the question of adapting vocational training to new technologies.

A document prepared for CEDEFOP by Dr Angela Dirrheimer, Sabine Hübner, Monika Oßls, Suzanne Seeland, on micro-electronics and vocational training for women, was circulated at the Paris Conference on 24 and 25 January 1983.

Some major themes of the survey:

- (1) Several options are available with regard to the organization of work, operators and the hierarchical structure. Opportunities for negotiations have often been neglected, particularly with regard to office work (page 4ff, page 17).
- (2) The review of training programmes for women has made little progress (page 8).
- (3) Too few women avail themselves of continuing education (page 9). Few women are able to take advantage of vocational training within the firm. They are mostly young and single or without family commitments, with a good level of education, a basic qualification in vocational training and they have worked with their firm for a number of years.
- (4) The new jobs often provide opportunities for men (page 13).
- (5) Measures aimed at adapting the workforce to new working conditions and the new qualification requirements as a result of the introduction of new technologies, should be targeted specifically at women the most effective solution being an intensive campaign to increase awareness among employers and trade unions (page 22).

- (6) The basic principles of micro-electronics should be included in general education.
- (7) The importance of new forms of apprenticeship.

It is regrettable that the Berlin Conference, organized from 24 to 26 November 1982 by the EEC and CEDEFOP on technological change, employment, qualifications and training, scarcely touched on the aspect of the problem relating to women.

D.E.F. MORE SPECIFIC INITIATIVES TAKEN BY THE COMMISSION ON THE PROBLEM OF NEW TECHNOLOGIES AND THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

- (D) Study by Christine Shannon and Felicity Henwood of the Political Science Research Unit of the University of Sussex, commissioned within the framework of the FAST programme.

The study has not yet been released.

Subject: to collect and make a survey of all the available literature on the qualitative and quantitative implications of new technology for the employment of women.

- (E) EPOS, the European Pool of Studies and Analysis in the field of new information technologies and employment has published an information bulletin, issue No. 5¹.

Subject: to outline the major themes of the debate on new technology and the employment of women, illustrating the main points by excerpts from publications.

¹ The Pool has three aims:

1. to assemble and evaluate research and significant experiments at the national level;
2. to publicize and compare the research and experiments and provide summaries to those involved in political and scientific discussions, in particular the social partners;
3. to guide future analyses and forecasts.

Currently, the work of the Pool consists primarily of providing a documentation base, annotated bibliographies and publishing a monthly bulletin.

(F) The Commission has participated in the organization of conferences, notably:

- (1) The Manchester Conference, 28 - 30 May 1980: the Commission asked J. Gershuny for a study on technical innovation and the work of women in the EEC (April 1980). One of the concluding items of the conference was devoted to new technology.
- (2) Paris Conference organized with the French Minister for Women's Rights on the impact of new technologies on the employment of women (24/25 January 1983). One idea to be drawn from this Conference would seem to be the creation of a network of training projects in new technologies for women (see point B, Social Fund, above).

These conferences should form part of the campaign for increasing awareness of the problem of 'women and new technologies' (see above).

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CONCLUSIONS

The new technologies provide an ideal platform for positive action as laid down in the 1982-85 action programme for promoting equality of opportunity for women.

They present serious hazards for women, but also a chance for a qualitative advance.

Women's organizations in each of the 10 (soon to be 12) Member States will have a vital role to play in mobilizing women and putting pressure on trade unions and national parliaments and governments. Their activities should be supported and followed through by the Commission.

EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe

Topic No. 7

of the report of inquiry

being the opinion

For the Committee on Social Affairs and Employment

on

the position of women

with respect to the review

of the European Social Fund

Rapporteur: Mrs H. MAIJ-WEGGEN

28.1.1983

At its meeting of 23 November 1981 the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe decided to draw up reports on 17 different subjects. One of these concerns the review of the European Social Fund in terms of its effect on women, on which Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN was appointed rapporteur.

In the meantime the Commission had put forward a proposal for a Regulation to implement a Council Decision on the tasks of the European Social Fund (Doc. 1-903/82), on which the Council asked the European Parliament for its opinion on 15 November 1982.

On 19 November 1982 the President of the European Parliament referred the proposal for a directive to the Committee on Social Affairs and Employment as the Committee responsible.

As this subject was directly linked to Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN's report, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe at its meeting of 18/19 October 1982 instructed her to draw up an interim report incorporating an opinion on the Commission's proposal for a Regulation to implement a Council Decision on the tasks of the European Social Fund insofar as this concerns women.

On 19 November 1982 the Bureau of the European Parliament formally authorized the Committee of Inquiry to deliver an opinion on the proposal for a directive.

The Committee of Inquiry considered the proposal for a Regulation and the draft opinion at its meeting of 20/21 January 1983. At its meeting of 21 January 1983 it adopted the attached opinion and amendments together with explanatory statement unanimously.

The following took part in the vote: Mrs CINCIARI RODANO, Chairman; Dame Shelagh ROBERTS, Vice-Chairman; Mrs von ALLEMANN, Vice-Chairman; Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN, draftsman; Mr EISHA, Mr ESTGEN, Mr DEL DUCA (deputizing for Mrs GAIOTTI DE BIASE), Mrs SPAAK and Mrs WIECZOREK-ZEUL.

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ANNEXES

1. Amounts committed from the Fund in 1981 broken down by
Member State and by budget item
2. Two tables listing the number of projects concerning
women submitted by Member States and sums applied for
and the number of projects concerning women selected and
sums approved by the Commission (1979-1980-1981)
3. Reply by the Commission setting out reasons for the re-
jection of projects
4. Comparison between applications submitted by Member
States under the budget item for women and unemployment
among women (1979-1980-1981)

A. AMENDMENTS and OPINION

On the basis of the arguments contained in the explanatory statement, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe hereby submits to the Committee on Social Affairs and Employment the following proposals for amendments and opinion.

Amendments to the draft Council Decision on the tasks of the European Social Fund

Amendment No. 1

Insert the following after the 4th recital:

'Whereas the resources of the European Social Fund must be used for the equal benefit of the men and women of Europe'.

Amendment No. 2

Insert the following after the 5th recital:

'Whereas account must be taken here of (i) the action programme on the social integration of disabled people (COM(81) 633 final) of 29 October 1981 and (ii) the new Community action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women (COM(81) 758 final) of 10 December 1981'.

Amendment No. 3

Amend Article 4(1) to read as follows:

' Fund assistance may be granted on behalf of all people seeking work and particularly on behalf of:

- (a) unemployed people, those who are threatened with unemployment or who are underemployed;
- (b) young people under the age of 18 years who have completed compulsory schooling;
- (c) young people between 18 and 25 years of age who are unemployed or seeking employment;
- (d) women of or over 25 years of age who wish to return to work;
- (e) disabled people who are capable of working in the open labour market.

Amendment No. 4

Amend Article 6(2) to read as follows:

'In order to implement paragraph 1 above the Commission shall, before 1 May of each year, draw up a list classifying the regions of the Community, at the lowest level permitted by Community statistics, taking account both of economic capacity and of the employment situation as these are reflected in overall employment, in long-term structural employment, in youth unemployment and in unemployment among women.'

Amendments to the proposal for a Council Regulation to implement the Council Decision on the tasks of the European Social Fund

Amendment No. 5

Insert the following after the 3rd recital:

... 'Whereas the resources of the Fund should be used
for the equal benefit of the men and women of
Europe'.

Amendment No. 6

Amend Article 1(a) to read as follows:

'(a) incomes of trainees, where there is a loss of wages
or state benefits or where costs are incurred for home
help and/or child care.'

Amendment No. 7

Article 1 b

Add two new indents to read as follows:

- " - the drawing up and implementation of dispositions for child-care for women wishing to take up (or return to) employment,
- the organisation and implementation of replacement services to benefit women working in family businesses;"

Amendment No. 8

Amend the first indent of Article 1(c) to read as follows:

'- premiums for the recruitment of young people aged 18 to 25, women of or over 25 years of ages, disabled people etc.'

Amendment No. 9.

Insert the following new article after Article 1:

'The Member States shall endeavour to ensure that participation of men and women in the various projects is equitable subject to the provisions of Article 4(1)(c) of Decision 82/ /EEC.'

Amendment No. 10

Amend Article 5(1) to read as follows:

'The approval of an application submitted under Article 3, paragraph 1 and Article 4, paragraph 1 of Decision 82/ /EEC shall be followed by the payment of an advance of 60% of the assistance approved.'

Amendments to the draft Council Decision on the rules of the Committee of the European Social Fund

Amend Article 2 to read as follows:

'The Committee shall be composed of two representatives of the Government, one representative of Trade Unions, one representative of Employers' Organizations, one representative of Women's Organizations and one representative of Youth Organizations for each Member State.'

Further, the Committee of Inquiry asks the Committee on Social Affairs and Employment to include the following passages in its Resolution:

Whereas:

- The resources of the European Social Fund have hitherto not been used for the equal benefit of the men and women of Europe.
- Specific operations on behalf of women would therefore be very useful if the funds for such action were to go some way toward redressing this imbalance.
- The Commission, in consultation with the Member States, should make every effort to ensure that funds for specific operations on behalf of women are mainly directed towards regions with relatively high female unemployment.

- It is however more important that all ESF budget items be used for the equal benefit of men and women.
- considering that the European Parliament in its resolution of 11 February, 1981 on the situation of women in Europe (1) asked the Commission that the implementation of the directives on equal pay and equal treatment - and of the social security directive from 1984 onwards - be an essential precondition for the granting of support from the Community's regional and social funds (2).

Calls upon the Commission

- To ensure that within 5 years the number of women participating in projects subsidized by the Fund is equal to the number of participating men, so that specific operations on behalf of women can be phased out.
- To introduce an appropriate prior condition to this effect for applications for Fund assistance.

1) OJ C 50 of 9.3.1981

2) see par. 4 of the resolution

EXPLANATORY STATEMENT1 Aims and operation of the 'old' Fund

1.1 The European Social Fund was established in 1958 on the basis of Article 123 of the Treaty of Rome 'in order to improve employment opportunities for workers in the common market and to contribute thereby to raising the standard of living'. It was given the task of 'rendering the employment of workers easier and of increasing their geographical and occupational mobility within the Community'.

1.2 The legal provisions defining the scope and operation of the Fund have been revised a number of times to bring it in line with economic and social developments in the Community. The last review was in December 1977 and a new review is now due.

1.3 The current Fund, in operation since 1977, pays particular attention to the geographical and occupational mobility of specific groups of workers. Assistance is granted under Article 4 of the amended Council Decision reforming the European Social Fund to projects designed to aid

- persons leaving agriculture to look for work in other sectors,
- persons who are working in the textile and clothing industry or are about to leave this sector,
- migrant workers,
- young people under 25 who are unemployed or looking for work,
- women over 25 who are unemployed or looking for work.

In addition, assistance is given under Article 5 to projects involving

- workers who are unemployed or threatened with unemployment in less-developed regions or areas suffering from a decline in economic activity,
- workers in branches with problems as a result of technological progress,
- workers affected by problems facing groups of firms,
- the reintegration of handicapped persons.

Finally, the Fund also subsidizes preparatory studies and pilot schemes with a view to future interventions by the Fund.

1.4 The amount contributed by the Fund to projects is equal to the share paid by national governments. The Fund will thus pay up to 50%

provided that the national government concerned also contributes 50%. If a private body bears part of the cost of a project (e.g. 30%), the Fund will share the remaining costs with the national government (e.g. 35% each). Regions with a severe, long-term imbalance in employment may however receive an additional subsidy of 10% from the Fund towards the cost of projects.

Payments from the Fund are usually made in three phases: an initial advance at the start of a project, a second when the first half of the project is completed, and the rest when it is finished.

An advance never exceeds 30% of the total assistance granted.

- 1.5 The financial endowment of the Fund has become gradually larger over the past few years partly thanks to amendments made by the European Parliament. In 1981 expenditure was 1003.67 million ECUs, i.e. about 5% of the total Community budget. It should be noted that the volume of applications is much higher than the amounts approved. In 1981 for example, applications for assistance totalled 1928.76 million ECUs.

For a breakdown of expenditure according to budget items and Member States, see Annex 1.

(Annex 1: p. 86, Tenth Report on the activities of the European Social Fund, 1981)

2. The ESF and women

- 2.1 It goes without saying that assistance provided by the Fund should be of equal benefit to both men and women in the Community, taking into account the target groups specified in Articles 4 and 5. The Member States thus have to submit an annual report to the Commission on the activities of the Fund in their countries, specifying among other things the number of people concerned subdivided according to field of intervention and sex.
- 2.2. The latest available data on the percentage of women per field of intervention are for 1979 and are contained in the reports by the Member States published as a supplement to the Ninth Report on the activities of the Fund (COM(82) 211). On the basis of these statistics,

the proportion of women per field was as follows:

Article 4

agriculture 43%
textile sector 55%
young people 36%
migrant workers 40%
women 100%

Article 5

regions 17%
groups of firms 73%
techn. progress 6%
handicapped 36%

Subtracting the specific item for women, the average proportion of women benefitting from the activities of the Fund was thus about 38%

- 2.3 The data for 1980 will be published as a supplement to the Tenth Report on the activities of the Fund when the Commission has received all the national reports from the Member States. The provisional data supplied by the Member States however indicate that women accounted for about 30% of the beneficiaries of the total activities of the Fund during 1980 (source: DG V, Commission).
- 2.4 It may be concluded from the above that women do not benefit from Fund assistance as much as they should, given that they form 52% of the Community population. This is even more the case when one considers that unemployment is higher among Europe's women than among Europe's men. (For women, 8.9% of the working population and for men, 7.3% - average figure for 1981.)

3. Specific operations by the European Social Fund on behalf of women

- 3.1 As early as May 1972, partly because women received insufficient benefit from the Fund, it was decided that assistance could be granted to specific projects to promote vocational training for women of or over 35 wishing to re-enter working life after, say, a period of work in the home. These projects came under Article 5. However not one such project was actually implemented, mainly as a result of the regional character of this article. It applies namely to 'priority regions' and experience showed that there was little enthusiasm in regions with severe employment problems for projects specifically for women.

- 3.2 When the Fund was reformed in 1977, the Commission therefore proposed to make the conditions for operations specifically aimed at women more flexible by transferring the provisions for women from Article 5 to Article 4 and lowering the age requirement to 25.

This proposal was made possible by a declaration of intent by the Council on 25 and 26 March 1977 in Rome concerning the need for a solution to training and employment problems affecting women.

The Commission's proposal was approved by the Council as Decision 77/804/EEC and entered into force on 1 January 1978.

- 3.3 This Decision now allows assistance to be given to projects for women aged 25 or over
- with no vocational qualifications or insufficient vocational qualifications and
 - who have lost their employment or who wish to exercise an occupation after a long break.

In its guidelines for the management of the European Social Fund, the Commission later decided to give priority to projects for occupations in which women were under-represented with the aim of improving the mix between men and women workers in the various sectors of the labour market, in the various occupations and at all career levels.

- 3.4 Although Decision 77/804/EEC has proved to be more successful than the previous Article 5 arrangement for women, this success is limited: in 1979 the new Article 4 provisions benefitted 14,316 women, in 1980 11,300 and in 1981 10,900. The new arrangement in no way compensates for the low proportion of women assisted by other Fund operations. The table below shows that the provisions for women under Article 4 applied to less than 1% of the total number of persons assisted by Fund operations during 1980 and 1981.

ESTIMATED NUMBER OF BENEFICIARIES
BY SECTOR OF INTERVENTION, 1980 AND 1981

<u>Sector</u>	<u>Beneficiaries</u>	
	<u>1980</u>	<u>1981</u>
Agriculture	16,700	5,822
Textiles and clothing	17,300	8,800
Migrant workers	267,500	258,300
Young people	655,000	436,760
Women	11,300	10,900
Regions	488,000	500,000
Technical progress	16,586	23,997
Groups of firms	2,800	6,029
The handicapped	57,500	55,280
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	1,532,686	1,305,888

Table p. 111 (Tenth Report on activities of fund)

3.5 If the benefit to women from Decision 77/804/EEC is expressed in money terms, it appears modest indeed. In 1981, for example, 1003.67 million ECUs were spent on various Fund operations. Of this figure, 22.66 million ECUs were allocated to the budget item 'women', i.e. less than 0.25% (see Annex 1).

4. The effects of Decision 77/804/EEC in detail

4.1 Even though the area covered by Decision 77/804/EEC compared with other Fund operations is very limited both with regard to the number of people assisted and in financial terms, relatively large groups

of women (about 35,000 in 1979/80/81) and substantial amounts of money (over 22 million ECUs in 1981) are nevertheless involved. It is therefore worthwhile investigating the interest shown in this subsidy, the number of applications approved and the breakdown of applications and approvals by Member State. At the request of the draftsman DG V of the Commission provided two tables (see Annex 2).

4.2 The figures contained in these tables prompt some critical comments:

- The number of applications for projects for women was larger than the number approved: - 62 compared with 56 in 1979, 22/21 in 1980 and 25/22 in 1981.
- The aid requested was significantly higher than the amount approved:-
in 1979: 31.259m compared with 18.348m ECUs,
in 1980: 71.480m compared with 21.092m ECUs,
in 1981: 103.052m compared with 22.546m ECUs.
- The number of applications varied greatly from country to country.

4.3 On the subject of these data, the Commission was asked why certain projects had been rejected and why so little money had been made available for those that had been approved. The Commission gave a detailed answer (see Annex 3) from which the following conclusions could be drawn:

- Projects had to be rejected because the amounts applied for far exceeded the funds available.
As a result, only projects with the highest priority ratings received full approval.
- All non-priority programmes were either subject to a weighted reduction or rejected.

4.4 In reply to the draftsman's question as to why there was such a large variation in applications per Member State, the Commission answered that this was mainly due to the differing interest shown in this budget item by the various Member States.

The Commission has tried a three-pronged approach to correct this imbalance:

- a special campaign in cooperation with national women's organizations;
- a special campaign aimed at national trade unions through European Regional Information days;
- regular information in the bi-monthly magazine 'Women of Europe'.

Despite these efforts, it has to be noted however that one Member State (West Germany) still received 57% of all the funds under this budget item, followed by France and Italy as the next major beneficiaries. Belgium, Ireland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom draw only marginal amounts, while Luxembourg and Greece receive nothing (at least not in 1981) (see Annex 2).

4.5 Given that the Commission has been reasonably active over the past few years in trying to distribute the available funds more fairly, the question arises as to why the interest shown by Member States in the budget item concerned varies so much and whether there is a connection between the extent of unemployment among women in the Member States and the interest shown by Member States in this form of aid. This question, when put by the rapporteur, also elicited a detailed response from the Commission (see Annex 4).

4.6 These replies yield a remarkable picture. Taking 1981 as an example, of those Member States with a rate of female unemployment close to or greater than the European average (8.9%), Belgium (17.7%), Ireland (8.7%), the United Kingdom (7.7%), Denmark (7.8%) and the Netherlands (7.6%), made only marginal use of the funds available. France (10.2%) and Italy (12.4%), both susceptible higher than the European average, and Germany (6.1%), lower than average, received fair to generous amounts while one country (Luxembourg) drew nothing at all. The latter has, indeed, the lowest female unemployment rate in the Community. The figures for 1980 and 1979 show a similar picture.

N.B. Greece, which joined the Community in January 1981, had not yet made use of this budget item either.

5. Conclusions regarding the position of women with respect to the existing Fund

5.1 The European Social Fund should be of equal benefit to both men and women in the Community. This is not the case however. Men benefit much more from the Fund than women.

5.2 Specific action in favour of women would thus be extremely helpful - but only if it is effective. The existing Decision 77/804/EEC in no way redressed the current imbalance.

- 5.3 Given that the number of applications for specific action under Decision 77/804/EEC more than exhausts the funds available, an increase in the amount set aside for this budget item is extremely desirable.
- 5.4 The Commission must however, ensure the optimum distribution of resources so that Member States with relatively high unemployment among women benefit more from the Fund¹.
- 5.5 It is however just as important to ensure that all the other items in the Fund's budget are shared equitably among men and women
It would be desirable to make such a requirement a prior condition.

6. Summary of the new European Social Fund (Doc. COM(82) 485 final)

- 6.1 On 7 October 1982 the Commission of the European Communities adopted a set of three proposals intended to reform the European Social Fund.
On the same day, a summary of these proposals was presented to the European press.

The document concerned (Doc. COM(82) 485 final) was made available to Parliament on 11 November 1982 in all the official languages.

The proposals comprise:

- a draft Council Decision on the tasks of the European Social Fund,
- a proposal for a Council Regulation to implement the above Decision,
- a draft Council Decision on the rules of the Committee of the European Social Fund.

All three proposals are accompanied by an adequate explanation. However, there is no evaluation of the results achieved by the Fund over the last 5 years.

- 6.2 The 'draft Council Decision on the tasks of the European Social Fund' sets out primarily to outline the new objectives and tasks of the revised Fund.

The following points are significant:

- The 9 fields of intervention under Articles 4 and 5 of the old Fund have been partly replaced and supplemented by the following new target groups (new Article 4).

¹ The rapporteur intends to hold further discussions on this matter with the officials concerned in the national Ministries.

- a. unemployed people, those who are threatened with unemployment or who are underemployed;
- b. young people under the age of 18 who have completed compulsory schooling;
- c. women who wish to return to work;
- d. disabled people who are capable of working in the open labour market;
- e. people who are employed in small and medium-sized undertakings and who require retraining owing to the introduction of new technology;
- f. migrant workers and members of their families;
- g. people to be engaged as trainers or vocational guidance or placement experts etc., for the above groups.

- In addition, Fund assistance may be granted for general operations carried out in Member States within the framework of their labour market policies and for specific operations in the form of preparatory studies or evaluations (Article 3).
- Funding arrangements (Article 5) have been significantly modified and improved:
Fund aid may in future be granted in the form of flat-rate payments.
- Article 6 seems to place important restrictions on the granting of aid, with preference given to priority regions determined according to economic capacity and the employment situation, as reflected in overall employment, in long-term structural unemployment and in youth unemployment.

6.3 The proposal for a 'Council regulation to implement the decision on the tasks of the European Social Fund' concentrates on the major administrative provisions relating to the granting of Fund aid.

The main points are as follows:

- Assistance may be granted from the Fund (Article 1) to cover expenditure relating to e.g.
 - a.. incomes of trainees
 - b. preparation, operation and administration of training courses
 - c. recruitment and accommodation of trainees
 - d. integration of the disabled
 - e. projects for the social and vocational integration of migrant workers and their families.

- The flat rates are calculated on the basis of the average costs of the Fund for the last financial year plus an adjustment for the rise in the cost of living (Article 2).
- The flat rates for the recruitment of vulnerable groups - young people aged from 18 to 25, women, disabled people and long-term unemployed - are to be increased by 50% (Article 2).
- Some projects may receive advances of 60% or 40% before they are started (Article 5).
- Alongside the normal certification requirements halfway through and at the end of a project, sample checks will also be carried out.

The draft Council decision on the rules of the Committee of the European Social Fund contains two elements worthy of note:

- The Committee is to be composed of two representatives of the Government, two representatives of Trade Unions and two representatives of Employers' Organizations for each Member State (Article 3).
- Article 6 states that the Council shall make every effort to achieve fair representation within the various groups concerned on the Committee.

7. The position of women in the new Fund

7.1 The draft Council decision on the tasks of the European Social Fund

7.1.1 Earlier it was concluded that assistance from the old Fund did not benefit men and women in the Community equally. On the contrary, men do better out of the Fund than women.

Although the Commission is certainly well aware of this state of affairs, it makes no mention of it in its opinion on the review of the European Social Fund. It is therefore recommended that this point be included in the recitals of the draft decision.

7.1.2 The Commission's opinion makes no reference to its new policy on women's rights either. The 'new Community action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women 1982-1985' is not mentioned even though several parts of the programme have to be implemented with aid from the Fund. It would therefore be useful if this action programme (Doc. COM(81) 758 final) could be included in the recitals of the draft decision. The same applies to the action programme for disabled people (Doc. COM(81) 633 final).

7.1.3 Article 4 of the draft decision lists the target groups of the new Fund.

One of these, as in the old Fund, is a group specifically for women, although the age requirement 'older than 25', included in the old text, has been dropped. The reason for having this restriction in the old Fund was to establish a clear demarcation between the budget item for young people between 18 and 25 and the item for women.

As the new Fund no longer contains any reference to a specific target group for 'young people from 18 to 25', there is now no need for an age limitation for the target group 'women'. The list in Article 4 does however contain a target group consisting of 'young people under the age of 18 years who have completed compulsory schooling'.

The question is whether the Commission's new definitions are justified.

The inclusion of a specific budgetary provision for young school-leavers up to the age of 18 is to be welcomed without reservation. Investigations have moreover shown that this group contains more girls than boys. However, the dropping of the specific provision for young people from 18 to 25 is to be regretted, given the very high unemployment among this group. In April 1982, 43% of the unemployed in Europe were younger than 25, with the young unemployed women representing a significantly higher proportion than young unemployed men (51.3% / 37%).

The danger is that there will be an enormous pressure from applications for young unemployed women on the resources originally set aside for women over 25, although these funds are quite inadequate even now (see 4.2).

The result will also be increased pressure from applications for young unemployed men and women on the budget item for the unemployed in general.

It is quite possible that the Commission will trigger a competition for funds among various vulnerable groups, which can hardly be justified.

It would therefore be more sensible to return to the old definitions by including young people from 18 to 25 as a separate target group in the draft decision and restoring the age limit for women. The budget items may then be subdivided according to groups.

7.1.4 The modification of funding arrangements by going over to flat rates will probably benefit women (Article 5) - the draftsman's examination of the old Fund (see 3.5) showed that average expenditure on participants in projects for women is low compared with average expenditure on participants in other projects.

The use of flat rates will in future ensure a more equitable distribution of funds among the various projects.

- 7.1.5 There is a large question mark against Article 6, which gives an absolute priority to projects in disadvantaged regions. Earlier (see 3.1 and 3.2) it was seen that there is little enthusiasm in disadvantaged regions for activities specifically designed to aid women. This is probably due to the cultural and historical tradition that the problems facing women are neglected in difficult times with more attention being devoted to the difficulties of men and young people, regardless of the severity of the problems facing each group. The Committee of Inquiry into the position of women in Europe has no objection to extra support for disadvantaged regions. However, it does demand guarantees that funds will be distributed as fairly as possible among the various groups in these regions. Room should also be left for specific projects to aid women in other regions where unemployment among women is very high. The criteria set out in Article 6 for determining disadvantaged regions (see 6.2) should accordingly be expanded to include 'unemployment among women'.

7.2. The proposal for a Council Regulation to implement Council Decision 82/ /EEC on the tasks of the European Social Fund

- 7.2.1 This proposal for a regulation sets out the administrative provisions governing the granting of Fund assistance. As men and women do not receive equal benefit from Fund aid, the obvious solution would be to lay down prior conditions to guarantee a fairer distribution of funds between the two groups. This can be done by amending the recitals of the regulation and adding a separate article.
- 7.2.2 One of the first items listed in the regulation as eligible for assistance concerns 'the incomes of trainees' (Article 1(a)). The explanatory memorandum does not give any additional information on this point. However, the question that needs to be asked is whether payment is to be made in the form of a fixed amount for each trainee or as an allowance to compensate for loss of wages or state benefits. If the latter, the question is whether housewives wishing to follow a training course in order to re-enter the labour market will also be entitled to an income allowance. Experience shows that such an income allowance is needed, e.g., to cover the costs of home help and/or child care. It is therefore important for provision to be made for this group under this heading.

7.2.3 In accordance with what was proposed above in 7.1.3, the administrative provisions of Article 1(c) should distinguish between young people from 18 to 25 and women aged 25 or over.

7.2.4 Article 1(d) of the regulation specifies the conditions for granting assistance to migrant workers and their families. An important point is that such assistance is to be given as 'benefits designed to assist the integration into new social and vocational environments of people who move to take up work in a Member State and of members of their families'.

As a consequence of this definition, operations intended to promote the social integration of family members will also be eligible for aid, i.e. the new Fund will be able to provide assistance for courses in reading, writing, language and social skills for the wives of migrant workers. This is particularly important since the lack of education of many such women makes them especially vulnerable on the labour market.

The Commission's formulation of these provisions meets an important request of the Ad hoc Committee on Women's Rights as expressed in its resolution of 11 February 1981.

7.2.5 The increased assistance granted by Article 2(3) of the proposed regulation for the recruitment of certain categories of people (young people, women, disabled people and long-term unemployed) is equally to be welcomed.

In the case of women, it is namely all too often found that it is difficult to interest them in training courses for non-traditional occupations.

The organizations concerned will now in any event receive funds enabling them to step up their efforts on behalf of women and other groups.

7.2.6 Article 5 of the regulation states that certain projects shall be granted an advance of 60% and others 40%.

It is unfortunate that the 60% arrangement does not apply to Article 4(1) of the Council Decision but only to 3(1), since 4(1) contains all the vulnerable groups needing specific aid, who are often difficult to reach and require additional recruitment activities. This is recognized by Article 2(3) of the regulation.

It is therefore recommended that the 60% arrangement also should apply to Article 4(1) of the Decision.

7.3 The draft Council Decision on the rules of the Committee of the European Social Fund

The Committee of the European Social Fund plays an important role in the assessment of the operation of the Fund. It is thus important that reference is made to fair representation of the various groups concerned (Article 6 of the Decision). Fairness is not however guaranteed by the relevant article (Article 2). For example, there is no provision for the representation of young people and women. It is therefore recommended that representatives of national youth and women's organizations be included in the Committee alongside those of the national governments, trade unions and employers' organizations.

VII. AMOUNTS COMMITTED - 1981

Breakdown by Member State and by budget item

		million ECU																				TOTALS	
		Belgium		Denmark		Germany		France		Greece		Ireland		Italy		Luxemb.		Netherlands		United Kingdom			
		MECU	%	MECU	%	MECU	%	MECU	%	MECU	%	MECU	%	MECU	%	MECU	%	MECU	%	MECU	%	MECU	%
500	Agriculture	-	-	-	-	0,13	2,3	1,33	33,4	-	-	0,42	14,4	2,14	43,9	-	-	-	-	-	-	5,03	100
501	Textiles	0,24	1,6	-	-	0,21	1,4	1,53	9,9	-	-	0,69	4,5	5,55	60,4	-	-	-	-	3,46	22,3	15,49	100
5010	Young people - training	2,42	0,9	2,13	0,8	22,63	8,4	31,81	11,4	15,22	5,6	20,54	11,5	55,61	20,6	0,24	0,1	1,84	0,7	157,24	20,9	173,22	100
5011	Young people - employment	12,02	11,8	7,50	2,3	3,15	3,0	23,75	25,7	-	-	6,04	5,1	1,01	1,0	0,27	0,3	0,93	1,0	42,74	11,2	103,57	100
5012	Handicapped	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5013	Migrant workers	0,54	1,8	0,31	1,0	10,24	33,5	6,50	21,3	0,33	1,1	0,35	1,2	9,49	31,0	-	-	1,21	4,0	1,50	5,2	30,55	100
5019	Women	0,79	3,4	-	-	13,23	55,8	3,02	13,3	-	-	0,45	2,0	3,77	16,6	-	-	0,49	2,2	0,67	3,5	22,53	100
50		15,93	3,57	0,03	2,2	49,04	11,1	74,52	16,6	15,55	3,5	38,93	8,7	82,13	18,3	0,55	0,1	4,52	1,0	155,63	24,8	627,75	100
5100	Regions	4,10	1,0	8,45	2,0	16,99	4,0	54,60	13,0	11,94	2,8	43,67	11,0	212,44	50,3	-	-	5,14	1,2	59,59	13,9	422,35	100
5101	Groups of firms	-	-	0,30	4,4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7,37	50,9	-	-	-	-	0,30	4,5	8,11	100
5102	Technical progress	1,41	4,4	-	-	1,50	5,9	6,55	20,4	0,56	1,7	-	-	16,41	51,3	-	-	1,37	4,3	1,86	12,2	32,14	100
5103	Handicapped	1,23	1,4	5,56	6,2	5,16	5,8	5,14	5,7	1,53	2,0	16,90	18,1	22,35	24,9	0,01	-	1,64	1,8	23,97	33,4	80,75	100
5120	Ind. conversion	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
51		6,74	1,2	4,37	2,6	24,05	4,4	66,59	12,1	14,33	2,8	65,75	12,1	258,65	45,8	0,01	-	8,15	1,5	92,75	13,4	652,27	100
5200	Pilot schemes	0,47	13,3	0,05	2,3	0,95	27,0	0,67	12,0	0,63	19,6	0,03	0,9	0,23	6,5	-	-	-	-	0,43	11,4	3,52	100
50-52	TOTAL	23,19	2,3	4,49	2,4	74,64	7,4	141,78	14,1	30,57	3,1	105,72	12,5	341,01	34,0	0,56	0,1	12,67	1,3	249,05	24,9	1000,57	100

Table 1

1.a. Numbers of projects concerning women submitted by Member States and sums approved for (mn Ecu)

Country	1979		1980*		1981*	
	Projects	Sum	Projects	Sum	Projects	Sum
Belgium	1	0.006	2	0.48	4	0.735
Denmark	1	0.431	1	0.45	1	0.524
Germany	14	24.293	7	61.21	4	89.863
Greece	-	-	-	-	0	0
France	32	2.462	2	4.75	3	4.733
Ireland	5	0.232	1	0.23	1	0.589
Italy	5	2.376	7	2.95	5	4.113
Luxembourg	0	0	0	0	0	0
Netherlands	2	0.781	1	0.95	1	1.504
UK	2	0.678	1	0.46	6	0.941
Total	62	31.259	22	71.48	25	103.052

* Applications regrouped in some cases.

Table 2

1.b. Numbers of projects concerning women selected and sums approved by Commission (mn Ecu)

Country	1979		1980*		1981*	
	Projects	Sum	Projects	Sum	Projects	Sum
Belgium	1	0.006	2	0.481	4	0.785
Denmark	1	0.431	0	0	0	0
Germany	14	11.830	7	14.084	3	12.898
Greece	-	-	-	-	0	0
France	26	2.347	2	3.674	3	3.104
Ireland	5	0.232	1	3.227	1	0.445
Italy	5	2.376	7	2.361	5	3.943
Luxembourg	0	0	0	0	0	0
Netherlands	2	0.443	1	0.165	1	0.471
UK	2	0.678	1	0.100	5	0.900
Total	56	18.348	21	21.092	22	22.546

* Applications regrouped in some cases.

1.c. Grounds for rejection (by countries)

Applications or portions thereof reaching the Commission after the deadlines laid down in Article 5(3), Title II, of Council Regulation (EEC) No 2396/71 as amended by Council Regulation (EEC) No 2893/77 (see OJ No L 337, 27.12.77, p. 1) are treated as inadmissible.

Applications or portions thereof not meeting the requirements laid down in Council Decision 77/804/EEC as amended by Council Decision 80/1117/EEC (see OJ No L 332, 10.12.80, p. 17) on European Social Fund assistance for women, viz.

- (i) where the intended beneficiaries are aged under 25,
 - (ii) where they are not unemployed, and
 - (iii) where the programme does not include training support arrangements,
- are treated as ineligible.

The applications greatly exceeding the monies available, the Commission has been obliged to decline to fund non-priority programmes and to accord only reduced funding to second-priority ones.

Non-priority rating is given to applications or portions thereof not meeting the criteria laid down in the guidelines for the management of the European Social Fund (see OJ No C 133, 25.5.82, p. 13, and OJ No C 110, 13.5.81, p. 7), viz.

- (i) where the intended beneficiaries are educated beyond secondary-school level;
- (ii) where training for traditional "women's jobs" does not afford women the chance to obtain more skilled employment than their previous one.

Breakdown by countries and years of sums not approved by Commission (mn Ecus)

Denmark	1980	non-priority application
	1981	non-priority application

.../...

- 3 -

Germany	1979	12.463 mn Ecus withheld by weighted reduction
	1980	47.054 mn Ecus withheld by weighted reduction 0.072 mn Ecus non-priority
	1981	76.610 mn Ecus withheld by weighted reduction 1 non-grouped application (0.355 mn Ecus) ineligible
France	1979	6 applications (0.115 mn Ecus) withdrawn by French Government
	1980	0.463 mn Ecus withheld by weighted reduction 0.218 mn Ecus inadmissible 0.271 mn Ecus ineligible 0.124 mn Ecus non-priority
	1981	1.284 mn Ecus withheld by weighted reduction 0.008 mn Ecus ineligible 0.337 mn Ecus non-priority
Ireland	1981	0.051 mn Ecus withheld by weighted reduction 0.093 mn Ecus non-priority
Italy	1980	0.110 mn Ecus withheld by weighted reduction 0.479 mn Ecus ineligible
	1981	0.170 mn Ecus withheld by weighted reduction
Netherlands	1979	0.092 mn Ecus withheld by weighted reduction 0.241 mn Ecus non-priority
	1980	0.756 mn Ecus withheld by weighted reduction 0.029 mn Ecus non-priority
	1981	0.994 mn Ecus withheld by weighted reduction 0.039 mn Ecus non-priority
United Kingdom	1980	0.015 mn Ecus withheld by weighted reduction 0.345 mn Ecus non-priority
	1981	0.024 mn Ecus withheld by weighted reduction 0.017 mn Ecus non-priority

1.d. Numbers of women beneficiaries under Decision 77/804/EEC

See Table 3 annexed.

.../...

1. f. Comparison between applications submitted by Member States under the budget item for women and unemployment
among women

Member State	1979		1980		1981		Average no. of applications submitted per country during 1979-1981 as percentage of all applications submitted to Fund
	% female unemployment	% applications submitted for field of intervention 'women'	% female unemployment	% applications submitted for field of intervention 'women'	% female unemployment	% applications submitted for field of intervention 'women'	
Belgium	14.5	0.01	15.5	0.67	17.7	0.76	2.2
Denmark	5.9	1.--	6.3	0.62	7.8	0.50	2.--
Germany	4.6	78.--	4.6	85.63	6.1	87.20	8.--
Greece	1.3	-	1.5	-	1.6	0	3.1
France	8.1	8.--	8.9	6.64	10.2	4.59	16.5
Ireland	6.1	1.-	7.1	0.32	8.7	0.57	8.3
Italy	9.8	8.--	10.8	4.12	12.4	3.99	34.--
Luxembourg	1.1	-	1.2	-	1.5	-	0.1
Netherlands	5.-	2.--	5.5	1.32	7.6	1.45	1.6
United Kingdom	4.1	2.--	5.4	0.64	7.7	0.91	24.2
Community (10)	6.-	100.--	7.2	100.--	8.9	100.--	100.--

COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION
OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

TOPIC NO. 8
of the Report of Inquiry
on
women and health

Rapporteur: Mr D. EISMA

At its Constituent meeting of 15 October 1981, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe adopted 18 topics of inquiry including women and health for which Mr Doeke EISMA was appointed rapporteur.

Mr EISMA drew up a working document on women and health (PE 82.296) which was considered by the Committee at its meeting of 14/15 March 1983. Following this discussion, Mr EISMA drew up a draft report which was considered by the Committee at its meetings of 16/17 June 1983, 21/22 September 1983 and 17/18 October 1983.

This report was adopted (6 in favour, 2 abstentions) at the meeting of 17/18 October 1983. The following took part in the vote: Mrs CINCIARI RODANO, Chairman; Mrs VAYSSADE, Mrs LENZ, Dame Shelagh ROBERTS, Vice-Chairmen; Mr ENRIGHT (deputizing for Mrs LIZIN), Mrs GAIOTTI DE BIASE, Mrs SPAAK, Mrs THÉOBALD-PAOLI (deputizing for Mrs van den HEUVEL) and Mrs WIECZOREK-ZEUL.

I. INTRODUCTION

Women are involved in various ways in health care:

- as patients who undergo treatment;
- as consumers, in particular because they are still responsible for the household's consumption patterns for food and medicines available without prescription;
- as unpaid workers, in that women perform a large amount of voluntary work in the health care sector and
- as paid workers in many areas of the health services; and in view of
- their specific problems, attributable to their role in society and to the fact that their professional activities are exercised in addition to their domestic duties;
- their inadequate knowledge of sexual matters, pregnancy, birth control, contraception, etc., and the lack of information on these subjects.

Parliament has not been alone in calling for a Community approach to health care. At the request of the Council, the Commission has also studied a number of subjects in this area and has formulated proposals for a Community health care policy.

This report deals in particular with:

- health economics and primary health care, the aim being to improve the health situation in the Member States at minimum cost;
- health education for the general public (for example on nutrition, smoking, drugs) and for specific groups such as women, the elderly and young people;
- development of environmental medicine and health care. This has become necessary in the industrial society because of chemical and other pollution, as demonstrated by the recent dioxin scandal;
- medical and public health research.

This report is based on the resolution of February 1981 (Doc. 1-829/80). In addition this document deals with some problems not contained in the above-mentioned resolution, but which we believe should be included in a Community

health policy for women.

Further details concerning the policy areas outlined below are contained in the working document of 13 January 1983 (PE 82.296).

II. PROGRESS ON IMPLEMENTATION

Unfortunately since February 1981 the Commission and the Council have taken no measures which could be regarded as progress in those areas of health care referred to in the resolution (Doc. 1-829/80) (see working document from the Directorate-General for Research and Documentation PE 75.384). There has, rather, been deterioration in certain areas, for example the Council's stance on measures to protect the health of women at work (see 3).

III. MEASURES TO BE TAKEN

The European Parliament wishes Community action to be taken as quickly as possible in the following areas:

The European Parliament,

1. Calls on the Member States to provide the necessary support for the establishment of counselling services for pregnant women and infants in Community regions where very few or no such services exist, as well as in rural districts and the most deprived urban areas.
2. Calls on the Commission, in view of the high mortality rates among women from cancer of the breast and the cervix,
 - to promote coordination between social, and in particular, the women's organizations in the Member States to improve information on prevention;
 - to promote the organization and carrying out of screening measures for the early detection of such cancers and to make recommendations to the Council.
- 3.a Calls on the Commission to avoid a situation in which women enjoy special protection on the labour market; in the case of the directive on ionizing radiation the provisions for protection should not be stricter for women. Stricter rules on the protection of workers - modelled on the provisions for women of child-bearing age (with the exception of pregnant women) - must be laid down; in the case of the directive on lead, Member States

should not be allowed to adopt legal provisions which provide greater protection for specific categories of workers, for example women;

- 3.b Calls on the Commission to formulate the existing provisions on the protection of women as regards night work in such a way that they do not result in any deterioration in the situation of women at work or their health;
- 3.c Calls on the Commission to publish as soon as possible the results of the study in progress on the present state of legislation in the Member States (cf. action programme 1982-85, paragraph 3) and to invite the Member States themselves to proceed with a review of their protective legislation, in accordance with the provisions of Directive 76/207, in cases where the motives which inspired such legislation are no longer called valid as a result of developments in technology and behaviour. This should apply in particular to night work by women;
- 3.d Calls on the Commission to promote the study of existing relations between working conditions and health for the categories of women workers most affected by ill-health and difficult pregnancies and to invite the Member States to take account of the findings of such research.
- 4.1 Deplores the fact that the Commission has not yet taken action on paragraph 37, first, second and third indents, of the resolution of 11 February 1981, and calls on the Commission to draw up a report by April 1984:
 - a. on the coordination and promotion of findings and research on current and future developments with regard to sex education for young people and adults and guidance on marriage and family life;
 - b. on the coordination and promotion of current research on new contraceptive devices for men and women (taking account of findings in the US and Sweden), their reliability and the physiological and psychological side-effects of current methods.

- 4.2 Urges the Member States to make reliable means of contraception available to men and women.
- 4.3 Calls on the Commission to make proposals on the harmonization of legislation on the availability of reliable means of contraception.
- 5.1 Calls on the Commission to undertake research into the nature, reasons for, extent and consequences of the 'housewives syndrome'.

Calls on the Commission to support research into the effects of the inter-relationships between and consequences of women's activities in the home and at work.

- 5.2 Calls on the Commission to take appropriate measures on the basis of the findings of this research wherever Community legislation affects women's activities in the home and at work;

Calls on the Commission, on the basis of this research, to submit proposals to the Member States for practical prevention, support and counselling measures, paying particular attention to the encouragement of self-help groups;

Calls on the Commission to submit proposals to the Member States for measures to provide housewives with basic information on medicines and drugs, the dangers of domestic accidents, sources of domestic pollution and a basic knowledge of first-aid;

- a. Calls also on the Commission to draw up an action programme to combat domestic accidents (the cause each year of injuries to 4 million persons and the death of about 30,000 persons, two-thirds of whom are women);
- b. Calls on the Commission to undertake a study aimed at harmonizing laws on premarital examinations designed to combat the spread of certain hereditary diseases (e.g. thalassemia) which are increasing as a result of migratory movements and other factors.
6. a. Calls on the Member States to adopt provisions designed to:
- make hospital childbirth facilities more human (for example, allowing fathers to be present in the delivery room);
 - make play areas available in children's wards and allow long-stay patients to pursue studies;

- allow the presence in children's wards of the family of a hospitalized child or of members of voluntary organizations or of persons nominated by the family or by such organizations;
 - Calls on the Commission to draw up a charter of rights for women giving birth.
- b. Calls on the Member States to make provision for unlimited access to hospitals so that the parents/family providers of children admitted to hospitals can visit the children more regularly and if desired nurse them. Because these responsibilities would result in a heavy burden on working mothers in particular, such measures would have to be applied on a voluntary basis.
7. Calls on the Commission, in cooperation with the Advisory Committee on Equal Opportunities, to undertake research into the scale and reasons behind the maltreatment of women and sexual violence such as rape, incest, pornography, sexual harassment at work, and to submit proposals to the Council on the basis of the findings.
8. Calls on the Commission to undertake research into the excessive burden on older, unmarried working women caused by the combination of working, keeping house and looking after relatives, and to draw up proposals for these women.
9. Reaffirms the validity of the remarks made in paragraph 38 of the resolution of 11 February 1981:
- notes that the disparities between the laws on the voluntary termination of pregnancy in the Member States have increased still further;
 - deplores the fact that the Commission has not responded to Parliament's call for it to exert pressure within the Council to put an end to this state of affairs;
 - stresses the need to combat clandestine abortion and forestall the need for recourse to abortion, and regrets that the Commission has not yet set up the programme called for in paragraph 39 on the resolution of 11 February 1981.

With regard to abortion, the policy to be followed is set out in

paragraphs 38 and 39 of the resolution on the position of women in the Community (Doc. 1-289/80 of 11 February 1981).

10. Calls on the Commission to sponsor a seminar to study the application of the directive on equal treatment to female workers in the health sector:

- Calls for a programme of positive action aimed at remedying the present situation, where female workers are concentrated mainly in subordinated activities and rarely obtain positions of leadership and responsibility.

11. Calls on the Commission to submit as soon as possible proposals on women and health so that the Council can meet as early as possible to establish a European policy on health care for women.

Calls urgently on the Council of Health Ministers to meet as early as possible in 1984 to establish a European policy on health care in which these specific health problems for women form a part.

COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

Topic No. 9
of the report of inquiry
on
migrant women and wives of immigrants

Rapporteur : Mrs V. SQUARCIALUPI

27.9.1983

At its Constituent meeting of 15 October 1981, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe adopted 18 topics of inquiry, including the subject of migrant women and wives of immigrants, for which Mrs SQUARCIALUPI was appointed rapporteur.

The Committee of Inquiry considered the draft report at its meetings of 21./ 22 June 1983 and 21 / 22 September 1983.

This report was adopted (5 in favour, 1 against, 3 abstentions) at the Committee's meeting of 21/22 September 1983.

The following were present for the vote: Mrs Cinciari Rodano (Chairman), Mrs Lenz (Vice Chairman), Dame Shelagh Roberts (Vice Chairman), Mrs von Alemann (Vice Chairman), Mr Eisma, Mrs Gaiotti de Biase, Mrs Krouwel-Vlam (deputizing for Mrs van den Heuvel), Mrs Pantazi-Tzifa, (deputizing for Mrs Lizin), Mrs Phlix (deputizing for Mrs Maij-Weggen), and Mrs Squarcialupi (rapporteur).

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For details of the procedure followed in carrying out this inquiry, see section 2 of the explanatory statement.

A

PARAGRAPHS TO BE INCLUDED IN THE FINAL MOTION FOR A RESOLUTION BY THE
COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

(1) Notes that:

- (a) the social and cultural isolation of migrant women and immigrant working women seriously jeopardizes any programme for improving their living and working conditions;
- (b) as a result vast numbers of migrant women of all ages and origins continue to remain isolated from the mainstream of social and productive life and from the movements for emancipation and liberation;
- (c) moreover the results of Community initiatives to combat discrimination between men and women are far less positive in the case of immigrants than among other social groups;
- (d) whilst there are considerable differences in law between workers coming from the Community countries and those from third countries, these differences have little effect in practice;
- (e) female migrant workers are the group directly and most seriously affected by the heavy price of unemployment to be paid in times of economic recession;

(2) Asks the Commission of the European Communities to ensure that:

- (a) any programmes for improving the conditions of migrant women with regard to education, vocational training, work, health, return to country of origin and training in the language and culture of the host country and of the country of origin are preceded and supplemented by additional initiatives on basic training, including courses in reading and writing, on awareness and social responsibility enabling migrants to participate fully in such programmes and to encourage awareness of the part they play in the economic and social life of their host country and country of origin;
- (b) the European Social Fund pays closer attention to women and female migrant workers with particular stress on the training of trainers

to be employed in those sectors most closely involved with daily life and the needs of migrant women such as motherhood, health, nutrition, training for better qualified and more stable jobs which can also be performed in the country of origin, trade union activities, information about rights and obligations including those concerning family reunification or return to the country of origin, the language and culture of the host country and of the country of origin;

- (c) the Community funds directly finance immigrant organizations which put forward programmes to bring to the fore and find solutions to the problems of female migrant workers both in the host countries and in their countries of origin;

(3) Calls furthermore on the Commission:

- (a) to verify whether the women who make use of the right of free movement are sufficiently protected with regard to the permanence of their residence permit where they are not themselves in employment and their position is dependent on that of the husband, e.g. in the case of the expulsion of the permit holder, separation or divorce or should the husband die and the wife not already be residing in the country in which he was working;
- (b) to verify whether the provisions concerning migrant women from third countries do not have a discriminatory effect with regard to the conditions governing family reunification or the restrictions imposed after such reunification as, for example, a ban on taking up work or specific obligations imposed only on women;
- (c) to request the Member States, in agreement with third countries, to enact provisions equal to those contained in Regulation 1408/71 whereby payment of family benefit is to be made to persons actually maintaining children should one of the parents fail to meet his or her obligations: similar provisions should be taken to ensure the award of food allowance even when the spouse does not reside in the State in which the migrant worker is in employment;
- (d) to verify and encourage as swiftly and as broadly as possible the implementation of the directive on language teaching for children of migrant workers, cooperating with the Member States

in order to overcome the numerous obstacles preventing its full implementation and to meet the genuine needs of the children and their respective families, so that it includes as far as possible the children of non-Community migrant workers;

- (e) to speed up work also on the problems facing the second and third generations of migrants in view of the fact that success or failure on entering working life depends on the proper utilization of support structures before compulsory schooling (nursery schools), on a successful passage through the various stages of the educational process with its reception, guidance and support provisions as laid down in Directive 77/486 and on access to vocational training (or pre-training, where necessary) under the same conditions as those applied to the host country's adolescents;
- (f) in its programmes to address the need to teach adult women, particularly housewives, to read and write and to provide support and encouragement for adolescents so that guidance should not be limited to the traditional choice of short training courses and in order to close the gap between the plans made by individual families and the policies pursued by the host countries which often results in training courses not being taken up by adolescents;
- (g) to examine what attitude the member States are taking with regard to the sub group of migrant women under the action programme for promoting equality of opportunity for women and what initiatives they have taken on this subject;
- (h) to make available adequate financial assistance for housing programmes for migrant workers in view of the importance which the environment has for the successful integration of migrants and their families paying particular attention to housing facilities for divorced women and women who, for example, because of mistreatment, and often with their children, have left or would like to leave their husbands;
- (i) to encourage the health services to employ more women doctors and medical assistants (preferably from amongst the category of

migrant workers) so as to improve access to health provision including advice on family planning.

- (j) to encourage and coordinate research and studies in all areas of life and work where women face the greatest problems with a view also to a greater utilization of the European Social Fund;
 - (k) to bring up to date the action programme in favour of migrant workers and their families in order with the Council to create a framework for harmonizing the policies on migration applicable to the citizens of third countries which would make real protection for them and their families possible by means of a Community policy which would lay the basis for a European statute for foreign workers; it would also be an important step forward if a request were made for the Council of Europe's convention on the legal status of migrant workers to be signed and ratified;
- (4) Condemns vigorously all forms of racism and xenophobia;
- (5) Calls on the Council of Ministers of the European Communities:
- (a) to condemn vigorously all forms of racism and xenophobia;
 - (b) to adopt finally the directive on the illegal traffic of workers in accordance with the Resolution of January 1974 and the Communication of the Council on Social Affairs of November 1979;
 - (c) to approve the July 1979 proposal for a directive on a right of residence for nationals of Member States in the territory of another Member State in view of its beneficial effect on the extended family;
 - (d) to resolve with all speed the problem of the right of Community migrant workers to vote and stand for election in preparation for the forthcoming European elections and give practical effect to the resolution on voting by Community migrants in local elections and extend this right to non-Community workers;
 - (e) to encourage the Member States to adopt effective policies with regard to migrant families in particular on the question of family reunification and the availability of housing.

B

EXPLANATORY STATEMENT

FEMALE WORKERS AND IMMIGRANT WOMEN

1. Preamble

1.1 The aim of the ninth report by the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe entitled 'Female workers and immigrant women' is to assess the extent to which the demands contained in the Resolution of 11 February 1981 have been implemented notably those of Chapter V, paragraph 41 which concerns 'measures with regard to special groups and regimes'.

The main issue is the European statute for foreign workers which includes:

- (a) equal working conditions;
- (b) adequate accommodation for family needs;
- (c) initial training and tuition in the language and culture, and vocational training;
- (d) adequate medical cover, in particular for maternity;
- (e) cultural, social and emotional ties with the country of origin.

2. Procedure followed

2.1 The search for relevant information for a survey on the current position of immigrant women in the countries of the European Community has raised considerable difficulties on account of the fragmentary nature of the problem due to the variety of circumstances within the different countries of origin and the differences between the host countries, but also on account of the isolation of migrant women. Of all the questionnaires sent out replies were received only from an immigrant organization in the Netherlands and a Greek women's organization.

2.2 However, the rapporteur has had the following general contacts:

- meetings with officials of DG V responsible for immigration and questionnaires to the Commission;
- public hearing on the problems of immigration held by the Committee on Social Affairs and Employment (Brussels, 25/26 November 1982). On this occasion an additional hour was devoted to specific questions on female immigration with qualified representatives from immigrant organizations;
- consultations with the Council of Europe specifically on the implementation of the social charter and questions relating to public welfare;
- meeting with the Minister for Employment and Emigration of the Republic of Greece (Athens, September 1982):

- hearing with Greek women's organizations (Athens, September 1982) and meeting with Greek women already living abroad;
- meetings with Italian female workers in Peterborough (UK) and with representatives from Italian immigrant organizations in London;
- meetings with immigrants and organizations of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg;
- meetings with immigrant organizations in Belgium.

The wide range of problems involved required a careful study of the publications listed in the bibliography at the end of this report (Annex I).

3. Women and the demographic aspect of immigration

3.1 In the countries of the European Community there are roughly 6 million migrant workers, almost 12 million including the members of their families. Over the last few years women have made up an increasing proportion of the immigration population as a result of numerous instances of family reunification. In France, for example, from 1962 to 1975 the percentage of women among the immigrant population rose from 38.8 to 40.1%. However, in all cases the female immigration population is lower than the male. In Germany there were 1,800,000 men and 1,200,000 women in 1979, while Greek Government statistics show that 54% of Greek migrants were men and 46% were women (1980).

3.2 It should be stressed however that migration figures are not always broken down by sex and thus in many cases it is difficult to establish a clear picture. So far there has been no effective response to Council Regulation No. 311/76 of 9 February 1976 in which the Member States were requested to draw up within five years at the latest statistics of workers who are nationals of another Member State or of a third country indicating sex, as well as nationality, age, branch of activity or professional group, and also to compile annual statistics drawing on social security data, population censuses, surveys carried out among workers, or the number of residence and work permits issued.

3.3 Overall, the presence of migrants has reversed the trend towards ageing in the host countries, the high proportion of young people and relatively small numbers of elderly people contributing significantly to a rejuvenation of the demographic structures. In Belgium, for example, 42.1% of immigrants are under 19 as opposed to 28.7% of the local population, while only 5.4% of immigrants are over 65 in contrast to 14.6% of the Belgians themselves.

4. Migrant women and work

4.1 The number of migrant women who work varies widely according to the host country: in Belgium the figure is 30%, in Germany 70%, in France the proportion rose from 16.6% in 1968 to 18.8% in 1975. Official statistics indicate that at the end of 1976, 46.5% of immigrant women had jobs outside the home. Other sources give figures as high as 60-70%. By way of comparison the rates of female employment in the European Community range from 18 to 30%. In all countries migrant women, whatever their origins, start work at a younger age in general than indigenous women partly because they leave school earlier.

4.2 Statistics compiled in France show that the majority of immigrant women (80%) have not worked previously while the rest have only performed menial jobs (Moroccan and Tunisian women). Almost half the women who arrived with work contracts came to France between 1971 and 1974, while nearly all the Portuguese women entered the country illegally. Most of those who were working took up jobs within the first few months after their arrival in France. It would seem that most women left their countries with the intention of finding work although many have been unable to do so because they have small children. In other cases women joined their husbands without intending to work. Subsequently they were led to look for employment in order to improve the living conditions of their families or to overcome loneliness.

The rate of employment is higher among unmarried than married women (88% as opposed to 53%). 80% of divorced or separated women and widows have jobs.

According to previous French statistics on working hours, 35% of immigrant women work more than 40 hours a week and 48% work more than 48 hours. Some work anywhere between 60 and 80 hours.

Only 25% of employed immigrant women work fewer than 40 hours a week, most are Moroccan women in domestic jobs.

4.3 As regards the type of work, according to a survey by the Belgian Government there is a high concentration of male foreign workers in jobs requiring no education (manual labourers, sweepers, foundry workers, bricklayers) while very few of them are drivers, skilled workmen, supervisors and foremen: and this pattern is even more pronounced in the case of female foreign workers: 67% of them have menial jobs. 52.9% of Belgian working women have office jobs while the same is true only for a quarter of immigrant women.

4.4 On the question of wages a study provided in 1978 by the Under-Secretary of State for Social Affairs in Belgium notes the following differences between the local population and immigrant women: where a Belgian worker earns 100 francs, and Italian 88, a Turk 83, a Moroccan 81. If a Belgian woman earns 79 in comparison with a Belgian man an Italian woman earns 65, a Moroccan 59 and a Turkish woman 56.

4.5 On the question of unemployment among immigrant women, in West Germany (1982) out of 143,655 unemployed foreigners 49,188 were men and 94,467 were women although the women made up roughly 30% of the work force. Among Greek immigrants in particular unemployed women (6,613) far outweighed the unemployed men and not only in percentage terms.

In Belgium, Italians alone account for 45.6% of all unemployed foreigners; of these women are more numerous than men (12,317 compared with 7,748) and make up a full 54.7% of all the unemployed foreign women.

Italian immigrants have the highest percentage of unemployment since they are frequently employed in the same jobs as the natives and consequently are the first to be made redundant.

The lowest percentage of unemployment among immigrants from developing countries is due to the fact that they perform unskilled, poorly paid, dangerous jobs which the natives no longer accept.

4.6 Similarly, in France immigrant women are affected more by the economic situation than their male counterparts. Indeed in 1979 the percentage of unemployed male immigrants fell by 3.9% while it rose by 7.2% for French workers; meanwhile French women were less affected by unemployment (14.9%) than immigrant women (20.7%).

The case of France shows that women workers and particularly immigrant women have suffered more from the economic crisis than men. Over the last few years the rise in unemployment in all countries has been largely due to the increased rate of unemployment (91.2%) among immigrant women. However in view of the fact that the rate of employment among some groups of immigrant women is still below the national averages of the host countries, a steady increase in the number of immigrant women seeking jobs is to be expected.

5. Union membership among immigrant women

5.1 From a questionnaire distributed in France in 1978 it would appear that one in five female migrant workers belongs to a trade union. In the main women have scant knowledge of their rights and the relevant trade unions, often because the conditions of typically female work mean that they are outside the sphere of control of the trade union organizations which rarely communicate with immigrant workers in their own language, which most women anyway cannot read or write.

The woman who works at home, or who has a part-time or occasional job or who works evening hours cleaning offices, supermarkets and schools does not see herself as a 'worker' and in addition has no opportunity for any kind of collective or cultural activity. The immigrant woman who has no working identity, collective bargaining or social contacts has an inferior rather than subordinate status. Union membership is thus rare among women migrant workers although proportionately higher in the case of factory-workers and home-helps, particularly among Spanish women.

5.2 The desire for union membership appears to have little connection with the level of education. The geographical origin is a more decisive factor since union membership is more prevalent among immigrant women from urban areas. Knowledge of the language of the host country also plays a part. The reasons why women have little involvement with the unions and even more seldom become activists are related to the lack of information, meeting hours, the language barrier, and the fear of losing their jobs and being deported from the host country. Often it is the husband who does not want his wife to be involved or who feels that his membership of a union is sufficient for the family. The dual working role is also a handicap to women's involvement in union organizations.

It also appears that migrant women have limited financial aspirations and are less interested in belonging to trade unions although in many cases it is the reverse: in the hopes of earning more in a short space of time, they join the union. In other cases union membership seems to be related to the level of integration.

5.3 In the main women migrant workers do not take part in strikes but play a more active role in strikes organized by other immigrants. In the Netherlands they have been fairly prominent in workers' unrest since 1977, and in 1978 they organized their own strike with specific demands on conditions, working hours (no more than 12 hours a day) and the minimum wage.

6. Vocational training

6.1 In one of its European dossiers on migrant workers the Commission of the European Communities stated that since 1976 a Community regulation has guaranteed the right of Community immigrants to receive an education and vocational training on the same terms as national workers and in particular the right to the same grants. However, the problems of immigrants from third countries remain to be dealt with. There is also the gap between theory and practice. The lack of vocational and linguistic training is still a serious handicap which prevents many migrant workers from finding decent jobs and being promoted.

6.2 The poor level of qualifications among immigrants was summarized as follows by the Belgian Under-Secretary of State for Social Affairs: 'Out of 100 unqualified workers, 26 are foreigners. Out of 100 apprentices 9.4% are foreigners. There are barely 5 foreigners out of 100 qualified workers. The gap is even more pronounced in the case of Turkish and North African women: 95% of them are unqualified'.

6.3 According to a previous French survey 10% of immigrant women have taken or are taking a training course, 11% intend to do so, 29% would do so but think there may be difficulties, 32% are not interested and 16% are not aware they are available. Rejection of vocational training courses is usually among women over 35 who feel incapable for learning a skill or is related to the family circumstances, the presence of children but also geographical origin. Hence 45% of women of urban origin have received some training and 15% hope to do so while only 5% of rural women have had training with 4.5% intending to do so. The level of education significantly influences these decisions. The attitude for or against training is also linked to the ideas these women have about emigration. If they intend to emigrate for a short time they put all their energies into earning and saving money. However if they intend to stay for longer they have a different attitude towards something which will bring them professional and social advancement.

6.4 As a general rule vocational training organizations provide programmes which are particularly orientated towards the needs of working men. Only recently have they begun to take into consideration the specific requirements of women and housewives. The married immigrant woman with children who works outside the home finds it virtually impossible to attend courses because of her heavy workload unless she starts to question roles and functions within the family and society.

It is interesting to note on this point that according to a Swiss experiment 9% of the men and a good 17% of the women withdrew from training courses.

It is also interesting to note that the men who follow vocational training courses have stable family lives: understanding of the sacrifices they are making, recognition of the right to improve one's position by studying, awareness of the usefulness of what they are doing, total exemption from helping in the house, their meals provided on time and clothes ready washed and ironed. For women it is precisely the reverse. In the majority of cases they have to prove that attending courses will not disrupt family life. Even if they have worked 8 hours a day in a factory they have to leave everything ready and tidy but as soon as they leave the house they suffer from feelings of remorse and guilt at neglecting their real duty which is to stay at home.

6.5 Training courses for women should provide auxiliary services such as caring for children, and encourage understanding and awareness on the part of the husband and the children of this new image of the woman who would like to work or improve her job.

At the same time every attempt should be made to provide basic training courses before vocational training, for instance by rounding off compulsory schooling or ensuring basic literacy which provide the tools for individual cultural improvement neglected over the years.

6.6 Immigrant women everywhere have little access to information on the possibilities of vocational training. It is difficult to reach foreign women through information campaigns organized on a grand scale. The individual approach inspires greater trust and is therefore much more effective. There is no information about vocational training courses organized specifically for women apart from an initiative in the Netherlands for training immigrant girls as nursery school helpers.

6.7 With regard to the activities of the Commission of the European Community on the question of vocational training, a research programme has been started by CEDEFOP to cater for the various stages of emigration: departure, residence abroad and return home. All the Member States should consider adopting a system of paid hours 'on loan' which would enable immigrant workers to receive proper linguistic and vocational training and which would also take into account the likelihood of their returning to their home country.

6.8 The problem of vocational training is a particularly awkward one since in the majority of cases the training provided by the host country for the immigrant woman is divorced from the reality and the development of her own country. The more she specializes the less she is likely to return home where the economy and industrial development are quite different.

6.9 One should not overlook serious forms of discrimination which exclude immigrant women from vocational training courses even when their qualifications are equal to those of native women who are frequently given preference as demonstrated by various accounts recorded in France, especially in Strasbourg.

7. Young immigrants

7.1 According to the latest figures, in 1980 there were 4,100,000 foreigners under the age of 25 living in the European countries of immigration, children of migrant workers of whom a million were aged between 0 and 6 and 1,400,000 were between 17 and 25. At least 200,000 foreign children are born each year in the host countries, while 250,000 children of immigrants enter the job market.

The group of second generation immigrants in Europe shows a marked turn-over rate: roughly 350,000 young foreigners enter the host countries every year while about 250,000 leave these countries, in 90% of cases to return to their country of origin. These figures are sufficient to demonstrate a growing response to the family reunification programmes implemented by the main countries of immigration.

7.2 It must be said however that in Europe the second generation unfortunately, tends to reproduce the same professional patterns as the parents who it replaces, in the same poorly qualified jobs rejected by the local population. This is linked to the results of education and vocational training, to the defects of the teaching system, the individual social position and the crisis of cultural identity which puts young immigrants in a less advantageous position compared with their local counterparts when they enter the job market.

7.3 In France it has been established that out of all foreign children who reached compulsory school age 20% could not read, 60% had serious difficulties and only 20% were able to start learning. In Germany about 60% of foreign children are unable to obtain their school leaving certificate and only 20% go on to higher education. According to a recent report by the Belgian Government only 30% of young foreigners who finish compulsory schooling continue their studies while 46% opt for vocational training and 24% immediately look for work. Only 25% of young foreigners follow courses in their mother tongue while they are at local schools.

7.4 Of the Community countries only the Netherlands has adopted a systematic policy of teaching immigrant children in their mother tongue as part of a pluricultural education policy. In general little heed has been paid to the Community directive on teaching children of migrant workers in their native language.

7.5 The results are equally disappointing in the case of vocational training. Few young foreigners attend the specialization courses, while they flock to those preparing them for manual work.

The special vulnerability of young people of the second generation, notably girls (although there is a lack of accurate statistics) indicates that the rates of employment amongst them are consistently higher than those for local young people and there is an obvious danger that this already serious trend will worsen given the lack of professional competitiveness among young immigrants compared with their local counterparts. Young Italians come highest on the list of unemployed foreigners even though they are Community citizens. The explanation is fairly clear: since they belong to the European Community and are therefore closest to the indigenous population they tend to refuse the same jobs as local young people while there is strong competition from local youngsters for the jobs which they would be prepared to accept.

7.6 Girls of the second generation are discriminated against both as women and as immigrants. This causes intense conflict with their parents and with their environment since they feel torn between two worlds while belonging to neither one or the other.

Young immigrant girls also find themselves faced with the contradiction between their native culture with which they are unfamiliar and European ways of life which are based on different values. On the one hand there is the family environment with a language of no practical value, and its traditions, religion and taboos which the young would like to shake off in order to be like other people. On the other hand there is the outside environment which they have to confront every day through their contacts in school, in the street, discrimination on account of their colour, their difference, and the dominant values of money and success. They are also in a difficult position with regard to the boys of the host country and suffer profoundly the effects of ethnic and sexual discrimination both in schools and on the job market.

7.7 The simple fact that by comparison with all other groups the highest rates of unemployment in all the host countries are to be found among young immigrant women is an obvious sign of their precarious situation. It should be added that many girls of the second generation are capable of getting good results at school and of making important professional choices.

7.8 In September 1982 the Youth Forum gave its opinion on the new Community action programme on equality for women (1982-1985) stressing that this programme made no provision for young immigrant girls who would need assurances of specific educational opportunities and of the same rights as their parents since at least in some countries young people can be sent to or sent back to their country of origin once they have reached the age of majority. The Youth Forum also declared the need to organize information campaigns in schools and in outside school activities to inform these girls directly of their rights and opportunities.

8. Elderly immigrant women

8.1 Little information is available about elderly immigrant women since they are more isolated than other women. Studies and surveys remain to be done on this question. Only one study group has come to light set up by a Dutch organization for old people - NFB - which is soon to present a report on elderly immigrants in general. Another document will be presented at the ICWS Conference to be held in Dublin next July. A British organization EUROLINK AGE has compiled studies on elderly immigrants in general although it is limited to those coming from certain regions of the COMMONWEALTH.

8.2 Elderly women immigrants can be divided into two categories:

- (a) women who emigrated as adults in the immediate post-war years;
- (b) women who came to European countries to rejoin their families at an advanced age.

8.3 The women in the first category are generally those who left countries where the cultural conditions were extremely backward and before any evolution in attitudes had come about. They were unable to take advantage of the evolution which had occurred in the host country because of their social and cultural isolation and their inability to communicate in the local language. Most of these women accept total subordination to the man and even when they are ill-treated and beaten often do not rebel because in their isolated position even a violent husband is a point of reference to which they cling. In the majority of cases these women have no financial independence since they are housewives or have had unreliable and poorly paid jobs. There is also a serious lack of understanding between them and their children who were born

or grew up in the host country, have a different culture and frequently speak an unintelligible language.

If these women go back to their own countries they feel just as alien since they cannot find the mentality and the way of life that they often remember with nostalgia. These women cherish something which no longer exists.

8.4 Elderly women who have rejoined their children sometimes stay illegally and are obliged to live in secret. In some cases they even have to forego medical treatment in order to avoid revealing their illegal status or inviting inspections. Bewildered by the traffic, the noise, the pace of life of their sons and grandchildren they jealously hoard their savings and their meagre jewellery which will probably have to pay ultimately for their coffins to be sent home.

8.5 Elderly immigrant women who received a pension in their own countries encounter a number of difficulties in order to have it transferred to the host country or vice-versa. Among the many problems facing Italian pensioners, as was recorded in some detail in the report on the elderly in the European Community (Doc. 1-848/81), there is the delay in cashing pensions and in the annual cost of living adjustments. Some Italian migrant workers have to wait seven years or more and sometimes die before reaping the fruits of life's work. It becomes even more complicated for women since most of them have convertible pensions and while waiting they are obliged to resort to social security or assistance from their children. Some pensions are so meagre as to deny independence which means that elderly women are always forced to depend on someone else.

9. Work and residence permits

9.1 In a comparative study by the European Community on the conditions and procedures in force in the Member States for the admission and access to employment of workers from third countries (June 1982) gives a clear idea of what effects the current crisis may have on the opportunities for workers and their families to remain in the host country.

9.2 The growing rate of unemployment has tightened up the policy on permits to the point where in many countries young unemployed people over the age of 21 and the long-term unemployed are sent back to their countries of origin. In some countries the foreign worker can remain in the host country as long as he does not need to apply for social security (West Germany).

9.3 The refusal to reissue or the withdrawal of a new work permit has a bearing on the residence permit when the individual concerned no longer has any legitimate means of subsistence (Luxembourg). In many cases it can be verified whether the worker has lost his own job and, of the wife's income is judged to be insufficient, the family is forced to leave.

9.4 In almost all the EEC countries the residence permit is usually linked to the work permit. Where the wife has no independent income her chances of remaining in the host country are dependent on her husband's occupation since she is not allowed to have a separate permit.

Usually the time allowed for leaving the host country, once the work permit has lapsed and there is no possibility of renewing the residence permit, is between one month in Denmark, 8-15 days in Luxembourg and 14 days in the Netherlands barring authorization to remain in the country pending possible appeal proceedings. None of the families ever has sufficient time to arrange its affairs before departure such as selling off its furniture.

9.5 As regards the demand for a minimum income in order to obtain the residence permit, a case in the Netherlands involving a British citizen who had asked the Dutch authorities for a residence permit gave rise to a ruling by the European Court of Justice. The authorities had refused stating that the woman in question had no professional occupation. In the meantime however she had found a paid job which provided her with a small income, lower than the minimum required by the Dutch to remain in the Netherlands. The case went all the way to the State Council which before pronouncing its verdict asked the Court whether EEC legislation on the free movement of workers protected a worker whose salary was lower than the minimum required by the host country. The Court replied in the affirmative provided that the paid work were real and effective.

9.6 In many countries in order to obtain a work permit immigrants must submit to a medical examination. From the summary wording of the laws of certain countries it is easy to deduce that such examinations can penalize pregnant women. Attention should be drawn to certain elements of discrimination against women in these laws. In Belgium, for instance, if the worker is a regular resident or has resided in the country for less than two years but has to take up his first job the request for the work permit must be accompanied by a medical certificate containing a declaration - among other things - that there is no reason to believe that his state of health might render him unfit for work in the near future. In France every worker who has been

admitted or regularized has to submit, before he is given the authorization to work, to a medical examination in which the criteria are aimed at protecting the public welfare and at testing the aptitudes of the worker for the employment envisaged. In Luxembourg, in addition to the medical examination on the grounds of public welfare nationals of third countries are required to be free from any illness or physical or mental infirmity which might render them unfit for the occupation they intend to follow or which might require a prolonged confinement in hospital.

In the Netherlands the admission or the hiring of a worker can be refused on the basis of the results of the medical examination.

In the United Kingdom the examination is compulsory on the grounds of both public welfare and health and safety at work. All citizens of the Commonwealth in possession of work permits or who request entry visas into the United Kingdom have to undergo medical examinations before leaving their country of origin. Other foreign nationals may have the examination once they arrive. There was an outcry over the issue of the gynaecological examination to establish the virginity of Hindu women in order to ascertain whether they were really married to the men who had requested their admittance to the United Kingdom.

9.8 In Belgium a foreigner can only be reunited with children under the age of 21. In the Netherlands conditions for family reunification are adequate housing, a stay of at least 12 months, a job guaranteed for at least one year and a minimum monthly wage of 1,450 florins; this creates difficulties particularly for younger couples with modest incomes. Other possible grounds for settlement in the Netherlands are marriage or a lasting relationship with a Dutch citizen provided the salary is judged to be sufficient. However if the Dutch citizen receives a state benefit the spouse's permit is only granted if a third party offers some financial guarantee. Immigration for single people requires the possession of a permit and a job to go to.

9.9 In the Federal Republic of Germany conditions for family reunification vary according to the Land and the length of stay. Children are accepted up to the age of 16 although there is no provision for reunification with grandparents who in some patriarchal societies play an important role in the family.

Unless the woman has entered with her own residence permit she is dependent on that of her husband. She cannot take any decisions without his consent and is not allowed a work permit during the first four years of her stay. In Germany family reunification is far from simple since evidence of a stable job and accommodation must always be provided.

9.10 The Ministers for Foreign Affairs of the ten Member States of the Community meeting in political cooperation have discussed the so-called 'urgent problem' which immigrants pose for the German Federal Government the solution to which includes:

- (a) a maximum age limit of 6 years for children;
- (b) a stipulation that children cannot be readmitted to Germany if one of the parents remains outside the country.

9.11 In practice family reunifications have taken place in all countries of immigration in the absence of a family policy and almost always under precarious conditions aggravated by the current climate of crisis and unemployment.

10. Housing

10.1 Migrant workers are alienated not only from the job market but also from the housing market. In both cases they take whatever the locals leave them, usually under more oppressive economic and social conditions. Thus they revitalize undervalued capital.

Access to low cost housing which is subsidized and organized by the public, national or local authorities is regulated by a series of criteria including the length of residence, prices, the reliability of the applicant and the availability of suitable accommodation, requirements which penalize the disadvantaged sections of the population such as the immigrants.

Added to this are the attitudes of rejection on the part of the local population towards housing and districts occupied by immigrant workers who often have large families. Foreigners tend to occupy housing and areas which have been abandoned by the national population where they form 'colonies' which provide them with closer social contacts.

10.2 Those who live in the worst housing conditions are married men without their families and who in the main send the highest remittances to their home country.

Various national reports have noted that the proportion of wages spent by migrant workers on accommodation is quite high and varies between 10, 25 and 30% of the family's income. The 10% figure often relates to families with more than one income. In Germany it has been calculated that foreigners pay less than their German counterparts for good quality housing while they pay 39% more for modest housing of the type in which roughly 75% of immigrant workers live. Immigrants pay far more than Germans for poor quality housing.

10.3 The phenomenal rise in the number of immigrant workers, with or without their families, is the result of a purely administrative response to immigration without any foresight or long-term planning for requirements and without any projections on the overall social problems related directly or indirectly to the massive influx of these workers. While the freeze on immigration has restricted new arrivals, the length of stay of immigrant workers has been extended bringing greater desire for family reunification. In France, as in other countries, the freeze on immigration has coincided with new arrivals under the family reunification programme.

10.4 As set out in the report by the Commission on accommodation for migrant workers the urgent needs are as follows:

(a) to define the conditions for non-discriminatory aid. Many countries feel it is difficult to implement a policy for improving and expanding housing specifically for migrant workers;

(b) to provide adequate Community aid to bring about a radical change in a situation which is deteriorating daily.

10.5 In 1977 following a resolution by the Council of 19.2.1976 funds were allocated (Item 3031) for pilot projects to improve housing conditions for migrant workers either in the form of loans for the restoration of accommodation or as subsidies for consultation projects.

In anticipation of the latest report which has not yet been adopted by the Commission reference should be made to the eleven projects for 1977 and the five projects for 1978 from which the Commission drew the following conclusions:

- (1) tenants or co-owner associations should be set up as an active formula for improving housing conditions for migrant workers and their families and to defuse the frequent tensions between immigrants and the local population;
- (2) meeting centres created by private initiatives with encouragement from the local councils will help to further mutual understanding between the local population and immigrants;
- (3) initiatives on the part of concerned citizens, churches and student organizations are worthy of financial support from the public authorities, particularly since the solutions they put forward are frequently quite economical;
- (4) foreign immigrants moving into abandoned neighbourhoods, initiatives undertaken with the support of town councils and the local population could help to revive certain neglected urban areas.

10.6 Among the possible projects to be put to the Commission are requests to the national authorities for the protection of immigrants and improvements on the housing market, particularly through local public guarantees with appropriate measures for minor improvements to immigrant housing and by means of arrangements to guarantee that immigrants will recover their property investment in the event of their voluntary or 'forced' return to their home country.

11. Health

11.1 The health problems of immigrant women are conditioned and exacerbated by the isolation in which they live, by the physical and psychological traumas resulting from immigration, unhealthy housing conditions, ignorance about hygiene and sanitation and lack of information about the health systems of the host countries, bad diets and the harmful and dangerous jobs they do in addition to their heavy domestic and family duties usually because of large numbers of children and the second jobs they take to increase their earnings. Since the jobs done by immigrant women are often poorly paid they tend to look for other work illegally.

Furthermore there are large numbers of women acting as heads of family and supporting their children alone. In Germany, before recruiting officially came to an end, about a quarter of the large number of women who emigrated from Turkey came alone.

11.2 The following calculations have been made on a general basis of the workload of the immigrant working woman as compared to the immigrant housewife.

No. of children	Working Women hours in the home + outside the home	Housewives No. of hours
0	27 + 50 = 77	54
1	39 + 45 = 84	71
2	49 + 37 = 84	76
3 or more	50 + 34 = 84	78

The more frequent absences of women from work, apart from periods of maternity leave, can be attributed in part to the greater volume of domestic and extra-domestic work. After a long day of paid work the woman has to take care of the household tasks, to cope with the educational and environmental problems of her children where she can, and take care of her husband who probably needs to unburden his own problems. She ends up feeling exhausted, has no time to communicate with her children and in many cases is unable to because they speak a different language.

She is also racked by worries of saving as much money as possible in order to improve their lot or to return home, she is afraid of getting pregnant and has no idea how to cope. Often her relations with her children and her husband suffer as a result.

11.3 There is a genuine pathological problem among immigrant women from all countries who show obvious signs of psychosomatic disorders due to the stress and insecurity they feel and who seek consolation in illness. The symptoms are constriction of the heart and lungs, stomach upsets, lack of appetite or excessive appetite. They also suffer from fits of sweating, headaches, insomnia, tremors, weakness. The root of the illness is hard to diagnose from these symptoms and the difficulty is compounded by the impossibility of communicating with doctors. According to a survey carried out in West Germany 44% of women are absent from work for more than 10 days compared to 38% of men for which the explanation is certainly linked to their extremely difficult situation.

11.4 With regard to maternity, the birth rate is much higher among foreigners than residents. Although this is obvious everywhere little has been done to ensure that motherhood is not a traumatic experience for immigrant women.

A survey carried out in the maternity ward of a hospital in Brussels showed that out of an average of 1,050 deliveries each year 350 of the mothers were Belgian, 350 were Moroccan, 150 Turkish, 80 Spanish, 25 Italian and 25 Greek. Thus immigrant women accounted for 70% of all the mothers. The different attitudes towards hygiene and the way in which the family members react to the arrival of the new baby poses problems for the hospital administration.

In Muslim families a birth is a social event which initially involves the women close to the mother while the husband resumes his role only after the birth of the child. The efforts of a hospital in Brussels to involve Muslim fathers, who categorically refuse, at the time of delivery, have been a failure while denying access to the women who would like to be present at the birth causes considerable anguish.

11.5 There is no information about infant mortality among immigrants but it is presumed to be higher than in other social groups since in all countries it is greater among the poorest classes and among children whose mothers have little education. Thus, the children of immigrants are victims of severe class discrimination from an early age.

11.6 The greatest difficulty facing the immigrant woman is her inability to express herself and talk easily. Sometimes women go to the doctor with their husbands who are more familiar with the local language and who can also supervise the visit, and even with small children. Sometimes they find a paid interpreter or have to accept the approximate translations of a hospital worker who is a compatriot and whose linguistic abilities are certainly suspect.

The lack of communication between immigrant women and medical and nursing staff and the difficulties of hospital organizations in establishing contact with the patients mean that there is a high rate of caesarian operations which could largely have been avoided had a serious effort been made to communicate with the pregnant mother.

11.7 It is vital that the medical and nursing staff should be conversant with the living conditions and general cultural background of immigrant patients and pregnant women if hospital institutions are to provide a genuine service to the people. There is a need for various experimental activities with assistance from the European Social Fund to provide a broad cultural training and to correct certain attitudes on the part of the medical and nursing staff towards the pregnant immigrant woman who has known nothing other than her role as mother and wife.

11.8 Consultations also present a problem. The scant or non-existent information which immigrant women receive about consultations and their function is compounded by problems of language and the traditional sense of modesty and fear particularly among women from certain cultural areas when dealing with or simply explaining the problems of their own bodies and their sex lives. Sometimes the fact of requesting a gynaecological check-up and explaining personal problems to a doctor or a social worker can provoke psychological disturbances in a woman whose traditions are different and who has had no health education.

11.9 One of the most important problems connected to the health of immigrants in general and women in particular is that of dietary habits. The woman cannot find familiar food products on the market and cannot express herself well enough to ask for the equivalent. So the meals she prepares are monotonous, dissatisfying for the family and end up harming their health. In an effort to improve things she often buys more expensive food out of all proportion to her means. It should also be said that the diet of the home country is ill-suited to a totally different climate, life in a big city and industrial labour.

The question of the immigrant's diet has so far been overlooked, although there have been some signs of concern, such as the study days on the nutritional habits of 4 million immigrants in France organized last November by the French Minister for Health.

11.10 Apart from the different food, the different climatic conditions and her excess work-load, the immigrant woman also has to cope with the lack of support from her immediate family (parents, sisters, brothers). They provide the incentive for earning and saving which is essential in order to return home as soon as possible. This obsession combined with the anguish experienced by anyone forced to emigrate can quickly lead to illness.

All immigrants and not only those who undergo psychiatric cures, suffer from a latent form of pathological illness. The French call it 'maladie du pays' while Swiss doctors refer to it as 'malatia di Heimweh': the overwhelming longing for one's own country initially manifested as melancholy, then as delirium and ultimately in pathological forms of genuine madness which can result in death.

12. Native language and culture and that of the host country

12.1 The alienation of women at work is often paralleled by isolation aggravated by the lack of social services and by the deep-rooted cultural patterns within the immigrant community or the family. Their generally low levels of education and language difficulties help to increase this isolation.

12.2 A large number of African immigrants are illiterates who need to be taught reading and writing skills. If this is to be done in the language of the host country the immigrant worker will always be illiterate in his own language which will increase his estrangement from his own country. The problem increases with the second generation which will be literate only in the language of the host country. Young people crowded in the urban ghettos are not integrated within the host society but because of their training and education are also cut off from their home country.

12.3 A working knowledge of the language and of the ways of life of the host country are essential for coping with day to day life. They are also vital for taking advantage of any kind of continuous training in preparation for a more qualified job. Migrant women - more than men - almost always speak the local language better since they have much more frequent contact with the locals in a wider variety of environments.

12.4 Migrant women on the other hand show little interest in educational activities which are of marginal importance to their lives but also because of the lack of reliable child-minders for the children and the insufficient practical benefits of the educational programmes. It is important to convince migrant women that learning the local language will help them acquire knowledge and tools for helping their children to overcome their difficulties at school and to break the isolation of the restricting house-work routine.

Learning the language of the host country is thus a first step towards playing an active part in society, coping for instance with the school problems of their children, raising women's problems within the union, worker associations and within the immigrant organizations themselves.

12.5 Most experiments show that left to themselves the immigrant communities and their different cultures conflict rather than spontaneously inter-act with each other. Cultural exchanges, if any, take place only on the basis of traditional customs and are often restricted to commercial activity. While the immigrants do not speak the language of the host country the locals, in turn, are ignorant of the habits and customs of the newcomers.

In essence the immigrant's ability to express himself culturally means being able to speak the language - an indispensable means of communication - but also to use it freely in connection with certain political rights of association and expression which in almost all countries are severely limited. Areas and places for meeting to encourage contacts with the local population are essential if the various immigrant communities are to break out of their ghettos. Joint cultural organizations between locals and immigrants should be encouraged since the cultural approach should not always aim to integrate and assimilate the immigrants and eliminate their differences.

The dominant culture should not be allowed to submerge weaker cultures since apart from leading to serious violations of human rights, it often results in antagonism as borne out by recent events within many European ethnic minorities.

13. Return to the country of origin

13.1 The current economic crisis, increasing government restrictions and outbursts of xenophobia as well as a number of economic incentives provided by some governments (in West Germany Turks who are willing to return home get an estimated 20-25,000 marks) are encouraging or obliging many immigrants to return to their countries of origin where they face a series of difficulties.

These weigh particularly heavily on women, and include finding work without having been trained or only in a sector which is relevant to the country they have left, transferring their entitlements to social security and other benefits, carefully husbanding their savings, finding suitable accommodation for the new requirements of the family and enrolling their children in local schools.

13.2 When a woman returns to her village she is an obvious target for criticism from her parents and neighbours on account of her new ways of freer and more independent behaviour. If the family has difficulty in readjusting or cannot find adequate means to support its newly acquired demands, it may feel the need to emigrate once again which presents further difficulties for the woman.

Women should be given more detailed information before they return home to enable them to respond more confidently to the various problems they will face in their new life. By way of assistance international agreements on social security should be improved and expanded to allow immigrants rights to social benefits and other payments to be transferred as early as possible.

13.3 The return of the immigrant will be made much easier if his children have been able to learn their mother tongue and maintain their own cultural identity. It will require considerable effort to ensure that the period of immigration is not wasted and that the returning immigrant can contribute towards the development of his own country.

14. Discrimination and isolation

14.1 The forms of discrimination which lead to the ostracism of immigrant women are widespread and vary little from one country to another. They stem from the idea of women as subordinates, belonging to the lowest social strata, and as foreigners from the poorest countries with different racial backgrounds. All this makes them insecure, full of fears and confused and contradictory ideas which conspire to isolate them from society and their families and force them to cling to their native culture, thus further stifling their emancipation.

14.2 Discrimination within the family, on the other hand, is the result of the uneven rate of evolution between men and women. In most cases the man has emigrated ahead of the woman, learnt a modicum of the language, adapted some of his habits, altered his outlook and even broadened his culture and his knowledge.

Once the family is reunited, husband and wife often feel like strangers. The woman does not understand the attitudes of her husband and in addition cannot and does not know how to overcome the cultural and behavioural divide between them. Meanwhile, the husband finds it difficult to communicate with a woman who has different interests, who cannot read or write or use the telephone and who clings to ways which he has renounced.

14.3 The crisis within the family is often acute, sometimes leading to a total break-up for which women pay a heavier price. So many men avoid paying any family maintenance that in the European countries there are scores of 'white widows', women who are not divorced, who do not work and who have to rely on social security. Legislative measures are needed to reclaim the support payments that the husband is obliged to pay to the wife in cases of separation or divorce. Some countries have introduced regulations to ensure that family allowances can be cashed through a system of deposits made by public institutions, as in West Germany, Luxembourg, or by family allowance funds (France) in cases where allowances are not paid by the party responsible, as well as a series of various other measures protecting single women (unmarried, separated, widowed, divorced).

14.4 The higher divorce rate among immigrants than among local couples is due to several factors. As women become increasingly independent they begin to question the authoritarian attitudes of their husbands and a growing number of foreign women are now seeking aid from organizations which help abused women. Women who attempt to divorce and become independent face many obstacles. In Germany, for example, those who do not have work permits or are in receipt of state benefits are likely to be expelled.

14.5 The immigrant woman also faces serious isolation in relation to her children who are born or raised in a different environment from the home country and as a result of attendance at local schools often do not speak the family language and communicate with their parents through a limited day-to-day vocabulary. The habitual generation gap only widens further, ending at times in a total inability to communicate.

14.6 Local feminist organizations and emigrant organizations in the countries of origin could play an important part in combatting discrimination and the isolation of women. However, there are few women in the upper echelons of these immigrant organizations and they constitute only about 10% of the membership.

Women's groups and immigrant organizations should be encouraged to make every effort to rescue women from their isolation in order to minimize the traumatic effect of the various stages of immigration which can result in serious distress. An initial approach could be made through small groups to deal with the most immediate practical problems such as how to shop, make telephone calls, but tickets for public transport and then go on to more important issues concerning the country of origin, the host country, and the authorities and laws which are supposed to protect them. Women never fail to respond to topics concerning their children, schooling and their children's future.

14.7 In its response to the questionnaire on the position of immigrant women the Greek Women's Democratic Movement reported that there were some extremely active women's organizations in the host countries. Their objectives include teaching both the foreign and the native language, since most women migrants are illiterate; teaching some sort of skill; information about the rights and obligations of the country in which they are living; spreading basic information about the right to work, social security and the rights of the family, establishing contacts among Greek migrant women to combat loneliness as well as contacts with the women of the host country which is a particularly difficult task.

The sense of insecurity among immigrants and women in particular derives in part from regular surveillance by the police which can amount to repression, from individual housing circumstances, discrimination and the absence of political liberties, cultural and sexual oppression. But the main factor behind the fear and insecurity of all foreign migrants is the constant threat of expulsion from their place of work.

15. Racism and xenophobia

15.1 The serious crisis affecting the countries of the European Community has given rise to acute manifestations of racial hatred which have been particularly flagrant in most European countries during election campaigns, tantamount to blaming the presence of foreign workers for current unemployment or for the violence and insecurity in large cities.

This seems a far cry from the 1964 era when German industry warmly welcomed the millionth 'gastarbeiter' or host worker, a Portuguese man who was presented with a motorcycle. It is an even further cry from the post-war years during which foreigners were encouraged through both legal and illegal schemes to come and 'get rich' and take up jobs which the local

men and women were unable or reluctant to do.

15.2 Recently, the press has regularly focussed attention on the frequent outbursts of racial hatred which have occurred throughout Europe.

A recent survey published in France by the magazine l'Express (23/1/1983) reveals that 27% of French people think that foreigners should live together rather than be integrated in unrestricted housing accommodation. However, 62% of the French people did not find the overwhelming presence of foreign children in primary schools 'disturbing'.

A study carried out by the French Ministry of Labour (1978) maintained that racist attitudes among the French were directed more towards male immigrants since the women, particularly housewives, have little contact with the outside world and therefore less likelihood of encountering racist behaviour. The problems affects female workers in a different way. In the United Kingdom your rapporteur spoke with several Italian migrant women in Peterborough who complained of having been dismissed from their jobs to make way for English women. They also complained of being moved to heavier and less stable jobs and of stricter and more frequent checks on the quality and quantity of their work, and of being rebuked and summoned during their occasional breaks. In addition, some doctors had refused to provide medical certificates.

Unfortunately, it seems that even the British trade unions are guilty of racist attitudes and do not intervene as in the past to protect the rights of women workers.

Interestingly enough, the men who attended the meeting in Peterborough did not make the same complaints perhaps because they were better integrated having worked for longer among the local population and were more involved with the unions.

15.3 Belgium led the way among the democratic countries by introducing in 1981 an interesting law against racism and xenophobia which laid down prison sentences and fines for anyone inciting or practising discrimination, hatred and violence towards a person, groups and communities on the grounds of their race and colour.

Nonetheless worrying manifestations of institutionalized racism are still rife even in Belgium as indicated by the circular issued in February 1983 by the Ministry of National Education and French-speaking Culture which requires all foreign students to present within a maximum of three or four days a large number of documents and to pay a heavy tax (minerval).

Again in Belgium, the 1980 law on the admittance and residence of foreigners which states the right to be joined by one's family and guarantees a certain security of residence is now under threat.

The Department for Foreign Nationals tends to interpret the law in a narrow sense by regularly refusing family reunification to a worker on unemployment benefit or by restricting it to a few members of the family. Thus a father cannot be reunited with his children if his wife remains in the country of origin while a widower living with his second wife cannot be joined by his children who are not treated as part of the immediate family.

For some time now the law has not been applied in certain districts of Brussels with a high immigrant population and, while immigrants from countries outside the EEC are no longer registered, even immigrants from Community countries come up against growing bureaucratic obstacles.

In February 1983, the district of Schaerbeek, one of the most densely populated in Brussels, threatened for financial reasons to close ten of its eighteen primary schools and limit entry to the remainder to children who spoke French. This measure would affect 3,000 children, mostly foreigners, who would be barred from the right to public education.

15.4 There has also been evidence of racism in West Germany - even on the part of political figures - where the 4,600,000 immigrants are often considered as the cause of unemployment and the shortage of housing. The proportion of German citizens opposed to the presence of foreigners rose from 39% in 1978 to 55% in February 1982 and is probably even higher today.

A few months ago it was proposed to lower the age limit from 16 to 6 years for children joining parents who live in the FRG.

15.5 Women face further discrimination from an amendment made to the British law on immigration. The Government of the United Kingdom is seeking thereby to prevent women of British nationality, born outside the UK (i.e. Pakistanis, Indians, citizens of Bangladesh and other mostly Asian countries) and whose parents were not born in the United Kingdom to take up residence in Great Britain with their foreign husbands. This proposal would particularly affect coloured women and establish three categories of British citizens: men and women whose parents were born in the United Kingdom and women born abroad whose parents were also born outside the country.

15.6 During a meeting of the Committee on Social Affairs of the European Parliament (January 1983) the chairman of the Social Council - the German Minister, Mr Blum - in response to a question by your rapporteur on the resurgence of racism against foreign workers suggested that the European Parliament should initiate a campaign of awareness to coordinate anti-racist activities at the national level.

16. The Council of Ministers and the problems of immigration

16.1 The activities of the Council of Ministers with regard to immigration have come to a standstill. The directive on the illegal traffic of workers (OJ No. C 97, 22.4.1978) has been blocked for more than five years, itself a direct result of the resolution adopted by the Council on 21 January 1974 (OJ No. C 13, 12.2.1974), the action programme which followed it (Bulletin of the European Communities, Supplement No. 3/76) and of paragraph 30 of the report on the social activities of the Community in 1977 and the press communique by the Social Affairs Council of 22 November 1979. Even after further consultations with the Technical Committee for the Free Movement of Workers the directive is still pending within the Council and there is no sign that it is likely to come up for discussion.

The Council has not referred to the Statute for migrant workers for almost three years even though it is frequently raised on parliamentary initiatives. Within the Council the question of a statute is brought up from time to time by Italy but is met with dogged opposition, particularly from the United Kingdom.

16.2 As regards the consultation on immigration policies vis-a-vis third countries which dates back to 1979, Commissioner Richard expressed a wish to return to the subject at the beginning of 1982 when the Member States were experiencing a high influx of workers from non-Community countries and expenditure for the specialized training of these workers had been allocated to the Social Fund.

Another important factor in the issue of emigration relates to the forthcoming European elections and the right of migrants from countries of the European Community to vote or stand for election. An amendment voted by the majority has deprived Community migrants of the right to vote and only allows them to stand for election.

It is to be hoped that the Council of Ministers will take a responsible position on this issue by conferring full rights to Community citizens for the forthcoming European elections.

17. The Commission's accomplishments

17.1 The problem of fully implementing the directive on language teaching for the children of migrant workers should be expanded from its narrow framework of assistance to special groups of people to ensure that the particular linguistic and cultural needs of European citizens and their families are met. The Community could and should play a pivotal role on cooperation in this sphere between the different states.

17.2 It would also help if the Commission were to make known the initial reaction on the part of the Member States and the initiatives taken on Article 14 of the new community action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women (1982-1985). Article 14 concerns the application of the principle of equal treatment to women immigrants and aims to 'promote the right of immigrant women to equal access to employment training since evidence suggests that the application of the principles laid down in Directive 76/207 on equal treatment had little or no impact on women immigrants and that this will remain the case unless special programmes are adopted'.

As regards the courses of action the Commission 'will set up an expert panel to ascertain areas in which discrimination against immigrant women exists and identifies specific legal difficulties which prevent them from obtaining employment;' and also 'carry out a comparative analysis of positive measures introduced by the Member States to promote equal opportunities in employment and training for immigrant women with a view to issuing a recommendation on measures to be carried out in this field'.

The task of the Member States on the other hand will be to 'abolish discrimination which impedes the achievement of the principle of equal treatment for immigrant women in accordance with Directive 76/207 and launch a programme of positive action designed to afford equal opportunities'.

17.3 At a time of severe difficulties in the sphere of immigration it would be appropriate finally to implement the proposal for a statute for migrant workers which would incorporate the rights and obligations of the heterogeneous world of immigration, protecting it from exploitation and abuses and enabling it at the same time to discharge its economic and social function.

The statute should also provide for participation in local elections which at present is only possible in the Netherlands and which would certainly concern women in that local politics relate to the basic needs of citizens and provide the social services which women are otherwise called upon to perform.

17.4 The Social Fund has also failed to respond adequately to the needs of immigrant women because of their isolation and resignation and of the indifference with which most states and immigrant organizations greet women, and also because of the lack of female leadership within these organizations.

18. Immigrant women from the applicant countries (Portugal and Spain)

Portuguese emigration has a long history. There are now three and a half million Portuguese nationals living abroad, including about 30%, or 800,000 people, in the EEC countries.

18.1 Immigrant Portuguese women have encountered widely varying experiences depending on their country of destination which, together with their age, level of education, civil status and professional standing is an extremely important factor. Although they encounter obstacles of all kinds, they tend everywhere to shake off archaic prejudices and traditions.

The studies available relate in particular to immigration in France, where the Portuguese form the largest group of immigrants after the Yugoslavs. Between 1960 and 1973 Portuguese women immigrants were concerned only to join their husbands or fathers who had emigrated before them. These women are now working and the rate of employment of the Portuguese is much higher in France than in other countries.

18.2 Where only the husband has emigrated, as is frequently the case in rural areas to maintain agricultural activity, the woman acquires a different role and also major responsibilities. It is she who manages the business affairs (bank, notaries, etc.), maintains contacts with the outside world, personally concerns herself with decisions and innovations of an agricultural nature and organizes the education of her children in accordance with her own wishes. This, together with their improved economic situation, enables these women to develop in social and cultural terms and to acquire certain goods and items which would otherwise be unobtainable: television, electric household appliances, a car.

18.3 Between 1962 and 1980 180,000 women left Spain, accounting for around 16% of total emigration. This figure does not include women accompanying emigrants but represents women who went abroad to work.

The largest number of women emigrated between 1963 and 1964. Many Spanish emigrants in these years were prompted by political reasons and in some cases were therefore of superior cultural standing.

The women emigrants settled in Germany (45%), Switzerland (30%) and France (20%), while the remaining 5% were distributed among other European countries. Since 1974 female emigration has concentrated in Switzerland and France and has become negligible in other European countries.

18.4 Of the 900/1000 women who emigrated in 1980, 73% were aged between 15 and 29, 57.4% had no profession and 46% were single. Although the number of permanent emigrants has fallen sharply, this is not the case with temporary emigration. Seasonal Spanish workers emigrate principally to France for specific agricultural work, in particular the wine harvest, but also for the strawberry and apple harvests. In 1980 these workers numbered around 94,000, of whom half were women, since the whole family tends to go on these expeditions.

19. Migrant workers in Italy

19.1 For some years now Italy has ceased to be a country of emigration and has become a destination for immigrants. Some of the people involved are former emigrants returning to their native land, but there are many who come from other countries in search of work. Coloured workers represent a visible but puzzling element: it is impossible to determine accurately how many such workers there are now in Italy, but they are estimated at around 800,000, or 3% of the total labour force, in addition to seasonal workers (200,000), who come to Italy for four or five months.

19.2 The largest group consists of domestic workers from the islands of the Cape Verde, the Philipines, the Seychelles, Mauritius and Somalia. The second largest group is formed by workers from the Maghreb countries (Morocco, Tunisia and Algeria), Greece, Spain and Portugal. In all there are twenty-seven countries of origin.

More than half (53.6%) are extremely young - between 20 and 29 years old - nearly 40% are over 30, including most of the women, and only 6% are under 20. As regards family situation, the majority (76%) are unmarried.

19.3 These people have a fairly good level of education. Only 10.4% are illiterate, mostly those from the Cape Verde Islands, while 53% have studied in their own countries for more than eight years. Such training is wasted: accountants,

nurses and teachers from the Philippines have had to make do with domestic work in Italy. An interview carried out by the CGIL trade union referred to Egyptians with diplomas and degrees toiling at the most unlikely jobs.

19.4 There are substantial numbers of foreign workers in Italy employed in all the humblest and lowest paid jobs in the services sector. They are to be found washing dishes in hotels or restaurants, working as porters in stations, ports or assembly points for long-distance lorries, doing the heavy work in the large markets or seasonal work for the harvests.

19.5 It is the domestic workers who have the highest percentage (73%) of proper contracts, but their legal status does not protect them from exploitation. A survey carried out by the CGIL trade union revealed that 61% of them are dissatisfied with their conditions and would like to change job, although only 34% felt that they were treated less well than their Italian colleagues. However, 32.8% did not know how to reply, since they were unfamiliar with general working conditions in Italy. The working hours generally vary between ten and eighteen hours a day.

19.6 Since immigrant workers are not in direct competition with Italian workers, there are as yet no clear, advanced forms of racism, although minor incidents and reactionary attitudes do suggest racism. The Filipinos complain of being treated like children, ignorant and incapable of understanding, although 75% of those arriving in Italy hold degrees or diplomas.

Women are particularly dominated by their status and in order not to lose their job and return to their own country they are open to all forms of blackmail, from drastically reduced wages to indecent suggestions.

19.7 The most serious problem facing immigrant women concerns custody of their children. As soon as a child is born, they must hastily find some means of placing it elsewhere, since their employers, who are contractually bound to provide them with accommodation, do not consider the possibility of taking responsibility also for the child.

Many dark-skinned children are put out to nurse, but this costs their mothers a substantial proportion of their wages. In many cases, the only possible solution for older children is to place them in religious colleges. The parents' working conditions and the housing shortage are the factors which most influence whether or not a coloured child grows up healthily.

19.8 The juvenile court in Milan has been obliged to begin proceedings for the adoption of children placed in various institutions because, according to the principals of these institutions, such children are rarely visited by their mother or father. A number of judges have had to take action and pitiful situations have come to light: for many parents their monthly wages scarcely sufficed to pay the cost of board and lodging in the institutions and they could therefore not afford to travel to visit their children.

19.9 In order precisely to prevent small children ending up in institutions where it is difficult for their mothers to visit, there are plans in Milan to open a night-time creche.

To encourage the social integration of some dozens of Eritrean children, the region of Lombardy has accommodated them in a sea-side holiday home. It has also provided Eritrean staff and arranged for a diet which is compatible with their eating habits.

20. The directive on the right of residence which is to be approved by the Council

20.1 In the case of the worker of a Member State who leaves his state of origin and moves to the territory of another Member State for the purpose of taking up employment, Article 4 of Directive 68/360/EEC, in accordance with Article 48(3)(c) of the EEC Treaty lays down that the Member States shall recognize his right of residence in their territory, provided that he is able to present a valid identity card or passport.

20.2 This right of residence also applies to the members of the family of the worker in question who, pursuant to Article 10(1) of Regulation No. 1612/68, have the right to take up residence with the worker whatever their nationality.

The persons to which this applies are:

- (a) the spouse and their offspring who are under 21 years or dependent;
- (b) older family members of the worker and of the spouse whom he supports.

The only condition for the worker's family to take up residence is that they shall have 'normal' accommodation.

- 20.3 The right of residence for the worker and his family derives directly from the Treaty: the Laws of the Member States are limited to recognizing and endorsing this right by issuing to the worker and to the members of his family the 'residence permit of a citizen of a Member State of the EEC'.

This document, as the Court of Justice of the European Communities has confirmed on many occasions, is valid only as a declaration of the right of residence of the worker and his family. Indeed the individual does not lose his right of residence simply if he has avoided border controls or has not declared his presence in the territory to the local authorities.

- 20.4 For the issue of this document which should be valid throughout the territory of the host Member State, valid for at least five years from the date of issue and automatically renewable (Article 6(1) of the Directive), the worker must present:

- (a) 'the document with which he entered the territory of the Member State;
- (b) a declaration of hire from the employer or a work certificate.

- 20.5 The members of the family including the spouse must be able to present:

- (a) the document of entry into the country;
- (b) a certificate proving kinship with the worker;
- (c) if necessary, a certificate proving the family responsibility of the worker.

- 20.6 Article 7 of the Directive provides particular protection for the worker, and consequently for the members of his family who depend on him for their right of residence in the host country, from the dangers of unemployment which since he has the status of a worker would automatically mean that he would lose his right of residence. This article states that the permit may not be withdrawn and hence his right of residence withdrawn merely because of unemployment where This is involuntary or due to illness or accident. At the time of the first renewal if the worker has been involuntarily unemployed for more than 12 consecutive months, the Member State has the right not to renew the permit for a further five years but to limit its validity to a period of no less than 12 months.

- 20.7 Article 8 recognizes the right of residence, without any card being issued by the Member State, for workers employed for periods of less than 3 months, frontier workers or seasonal workers.

Article 10 of the Directive allows the Member States to derogate from the aforementioned measures on grounds of public order, public safety and public health.

- 20.8 With regard to the position of women in matters of right of residence a distinction should be made between the working woman and the woman who is the spouse of a worker. If the woman is employed all the community provisions relating to free movement, equality of treatment and residence apply.

The right of residence of a spouse derives from that of her working husband since she is allowed into the territory of the Member State by virtue of family ties with the worker and not as a citizen of another Member State, there being at present no Community right of residence for citizens of the Member States who do not intend to take up employment in another Member State.

- 20.9 Thus if the husband loses his right of residence for any reason the woman automatically forfeits her right and the Member State concerned may ask her to leave its territory unless she has acquired worker status independently. Under the terms of Article 11 of Regulation 1612/61 the spouse and children of the worker in the Community have the right to take up any employment throughout the territory of the host country whatever their nationality.

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COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

Topic no. 10 of the
REPORT OF INQUIRY

on
the problems encountered by
self-employed women, particularly
in agriculture, trade and crafts

Rapporteur: Mrs S. MARTIN

1 June 1983

At its constituent meeting on 15 October 1981, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe adopted 18 topics of inquiry, including the subject of self-employed women particularly in agriculture, trade and crafts, for which Mrs Simone MARTIN was appointed rapporteur.

The committee of inquiry considered the draft report at its meeting of 22 and 23 February 1983.

The report of inquiry was unanimously adopted at the committee's meeting of 26 and 27 May 1983.

The following took part in the vote:

Mrs Cinciari Rodano, chairman; Mrs Lenz, vice-chairman; Mrs Martin, rapporteur; Miss Hooper; Mrs Phlix (deputizing for Mr Estgen) and Mrs Squarcialupi (deputizing for Mrs Le Roux.)

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This study was carried out on the basis of:

- a questionnaire (see PE 79.960) sent to various professional bodies in the relevant fields in the 10 Member States;
- talks with professional associations in the rapporteur's country on the occasion of the hearing of the rapporteurs of the Committee of Inquiry in Athens in September 1982 and the meeting of the Committee of Inquiry in Rome in November 1982.

The rapporteur also attended a seminar on 'encouragement for women in agriculture' organized by CEPFAR and held in Grado (Italy) in November 1982.

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Paragraphs to be included in the final motion for a resolution of the Committee of Inquiry

- urgently requests the Commission and Council and the governments of the Member States to take account of the recommendations concerning equality between self-employed men and women, particularly in agriculture, trade and crafts,
- calls urgently for the abolition of all laws, regulations and administrative or occupational provisions which conflict with the principle of equality or, directly or indirectly, impede its application, and the recognition of the occupational status of self-employed women who are in partnership with their husbands, particularly in agriculture, trade and crafts, so as to give them the same rights as regards legal and financial participation in the business as their husbands;
- calls for the granting of personal rights in the field of social security to self-employed women, particularly in agriculture, trade and crafts;
- requests the Commission and Council, in the context of the European Social Fund and the EAGGF, to create a specific budget line for vocational training, readaptation courses and further training for women who are self-employed or who would like to become so, particularly in agriculture, trade and crafts, and with particular reference to business management and to health and safety protection at work;
- requests the Commission with help from the European Social Fund and the EAGGF, to provide aid for the launching and operation of replacement services in agriculture and to set up experimental replacement services in the crafts and trade sectors.

Explanatory Statement

I. Introduction

- I.1 The resolution on the position of women in the European Community, adopted by the European Parliament on 11 February 1981¹, draws attention to the disturbing situation of self-employed women working without pay, particularly in agriculture, whose legal, financial and social position is in many cases deficient.
- I.2 Since this resolution was adopted nearly two years ago, nothing has been done at Community level to correct the flagrant shortcomings in the position of self-employed women, despite Parliament's appeal for the drafting of a statute for this category of workers.
- I.3 Moreover, with regard to Directive 76/207² on equal treatment as regards employment, which concerns all workers including the self-employed, various studies and the progress made with the application of the directive show clearly that certain aspects relating specifically to the self-employed are not adequately covered.
- I.4 In its action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women³, the Commission acknowledged in action 5 the inadequacy of the directive and drew attention under action 9 to the importance of the positive action which the Community could take in this field with a view to ensuring more rigorous application of existing measures.
- I.5 It is for this reason that the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe has chosen to deal with the problems encountered by self-employed women, and it urgently requests the Commission and Council to take account of the conclusions and recommendations of this inquiry.

¹ OJ No. C 50, 9.3.1981

² OJ No. L 39, 14.2.1976

³ Doc. 1-927/81

II. Legal status

General

Single women generally have the same rights as men with regard to the management of an undertaking or farm.

It is the status of self-employed married women which raises legal problems.

II.1 Recognition of the work done by women

- II.1.1 A married woman working on a family basis is required to play the role of wife, mother, head of household, occasionally a replacement farm worker, consumer of goods and services and a contributor to the development of the community.
- II.1.2 Where a family business is run by a couple, in most cases the status of head of the undertaking is held exclusively by the man, which has major legal implications. The involvement of the wife as a partner is frequently unacknowledged, an inequality of treatment which should be corrected.
- II.1.3 In several countries there are difficulties with regard to the legal definition of the contribution to the work of the undertaking made by women - 'secretarial' work is not given the same status and it is necessary to prove involvement in heavy work.
- II.1.4 In defining the woman's contribution to the work of the undertaking, account should be taken of her actual activities rather than her occupational qualifications or status. A woman working in a family business should be regarded as an economic factor and the producer of an income.

II.2 Fiscal and financial situation

- II.2.1 The non-payment of women working in family businesses is frequently due to the fact that the salary paid to the wife is in general deductible from the taxable income of the head of the undertaking only up to a certain ceiling, which amounts in practice to limiting the salary to this ceiling. The wife in partnership does not therefore receive a fair remuneration for her work; this salary as limited by the ceiling is lower than that which would be earned by an employee carrying out the same work in the same undertaking.
- II.2.2 Social security rights are frequently earnings-related. Any tax measure which would directly or indirectly reduce the spouse's income would also reduce his or her social security entitlement. Steps should therefore also be taken to ensure that salaries genuinely reflect the work done and are not reduced for tax reasons.
- II.2.3 There are two possible solutions to this tax problem:
- (i) the deduction from the taxable income of the head of the undertaking of the salary paid to the spouse who is in partnership (the work done and the salary could easily be verified by the national administration to prevent any attempted fraud); and
 - (ii) a system of taxing the two salaries separately to balance the effects of progressive increases in the rate of tax, where these are applied.
- The relative lightening of the tax burden on the undertaking which would result from this second solution would be the logical corollary of the social security contribution which would increase as the benefits increased, thus giving the woman a tax identity and personal social security rights.
- II.2.4 Matrimonial law in certain countries draws a distinction between the creditors of a married man and of a married woman, which may cause problems for a woman seeking a loan either to set up or develop a business. It is essential to eliminate all such obstacles to the equality of opportunity for women with regard to obtaining loans when an undertaking is set up or at any other time.

II.3 Right of inheritance

II.3.1 The law in certain countries accords inheritance rights to descendants which are not granted to the widow. In Belgium, for example, the woman may continue to run the farm rented by her deceased husband but, whereas descendants may renew the contract, she may not do so.

This type of provision was perhaps a reflection of the situation in a world where the widow's life expectancy, particularly in rural areas, was not very great, but it is no longer applicable to modern life, where a woman who has brought up her children still has half her adult life before her.

II.3.2 Farmers' widows are frequently evicted without recognition of their contribution to the development of the undertaking. Where the husband dies, the capital in the undertaking should be assigned to the widow in preference to other possible heirs. In addition to protecting the surviving partner in the undertaking, this preferential treatment would prevent the disputes involved in dividing up the estate, which too often lead to conflicts within the family, and the splitting up of the undertaking.

II.3.3 A 'principle of the continuity of the undertaking' should be applied where the head of the undertaking dies.

II.3.4 Where it is desirable for the children to inherit, the work done in the past by the surviving spouse must be recognized. This could be accomplished by means of a 'deferred salary', which would have the dual advantage of protecting the rights of descendants wishing to take over the undertaking and of the widow, who would thus receive payment for her contribution to the work and to the development of the undertaking.

II.3.5 It is essential to eliminate all legal obstacles relating to property which undermine the rights of women wishing to be involved in the undertaking.

II.4 Conclusions

- II.4.1 Although matrimonial law and succession rights do not fall directly within the scope of Community law, in cases where national legislation would impede the application of a fundamental principle of Community law, the Community should be able to take action to ensure respect for the principle in question. The principle of equality of treatment between men and women is a case in point.
- II.4.2 The problems relating to salaries and taxation could be solved by creating a family business and thus giving all the members of the family working in the business the status of partners. In some countries, however, this type of association in the agricultural sector is forbidden by law and in several countries there are direct or indirect limits on the setting up of companies by married couples.
- II.4.3 It is essential to ensure compliance with the principle of equality of treatment for self-employed men and women, including those working in agriculture, throughout the working life of the undertaking and when it ceases to operate, for whatever reason.
- II.4.4 What is needed, therefore, is
- recognition of the work actually done by the spouse
 - an income which is a genuine reflection of this work.

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- II.5.1 To conclude this brief consideration of the legal position of women in the independent professions, it is interesting to note the situation in Italy since 1975. Law 151 of 19 May 1975 provides that a wife working in her husband's undertaking is entitled to a share of the profits in proportion to the work done and participates in the growth in the family business' assets with the right to administer the company's property and be involved in decisions relating to its products.
- II.5.2 The law gives equal rights to the two spouses with regard to income and assets in the case of undertakings administered jointly and set up after marriage. The undertaking is administered jointly by the members of the family working in it, so that there is not just one owner who is alone responsible to third parties; the two spouses are joint owners with the same responsibilities, rights and obligations.
- II.5.3 If this arrangement is dissolved (as a result of death, separation or divorce), the property is divided into equal shares and the spouse is entitled to inherit. In a family business (in agriculture, trade or crafts) a share in the profits, the management and the assets is guaranteed to all those working in it.

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III. Social status

- III.1 It is obvious that in the case of a couple, the partner who does the housework and helps in the spouse's business contributes to the family just as much as does the partner who earns the money with which it meets its financial commitments.
- III.2 However, a wife who contributes to the family business but does not work in any other occupational capacity apart from that business is usually considered as not being gainfully employed.
- III.3 Where her contribution to the family business does not bring her any individual earned income, she may be without personal entitlement to social insurance benefits. Her economic identity is not recognized; she has no rights of her own. The situation of social inferiority implied by the fact of derived rights is in keeping neither with her economic contribution to the family business, nor with the social dignity to which every woman is entitled. Moreover, the absence of personal rights can give rise to serious problems in the event of premature death of the husband or divorce.

. Anomalies in the present situation

- III.4 The discrimination inherent in derived rights is flagrant, in particular where invalidity and retirement pensions are concerned. Some countries operate a minimum income threshold on entitlement to disability assistance. There is thus discrimination against women working in family businesses who are not paid a wage. In the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, for example, agricultural pension insurance contributions payable by husbands and widows are limited to the rate applicable to the social minimum wage. This means that their old-age and invalidity pensions are subject to a ceiling which depends on the social minimum wage.
- III.5 Also in Luxembourg, on the question of maternity allowances, women not gainfully employed and women farmers

suffer discrimination compared with those exercising another occupation, inasmuch as the latter are entitled to an allowance calculated on the basis of their actual wages, whereas those in the former category are entitled only to a flat-rate payment at a significantly lower rate. The Luxembourg agricultural social assistance scheme makes NO provision for sickness allowance.

- III.6 There is flagrant discrimination in a number of countries; for example in the United Kingdom, a self-employed male who falls sick can claim a dependent-spouse allowance, whereas a sick woman cannot claim the equivalent allowance for her husband!
- III.7 In Ireland, self-employed labourers (75% of them in agriculture) do not pay social security contributions, and therefore depend on assistance schemes calculated on a means-tested basis; consequently, they are covered neither in cases of sickness, of accidents at work, nor of childbirth, since the relevant allowances are all contributable. Similarly, since they are not members of the contributable general insurance scheme, they are not entitled to short-term sickness insurance benefit, or to long-term invalidity-insurance benefit.
- III.8 In Greece, women farmers, like most working women, do not have the right to insure their children: if the mother dies, the children will not be entitled to any allowance; an allowance is payable on the death of the father.
- III.9 Workers in the 'liberal professions' in Greece (this category includes agriculture) do not receive family allowances.
- III.10 In the Netherlands, women farmers are subject to the same social security scheme as other unwaged women.
- III.11 In the Federal Republic of Germany, the law on the protection of mothers applies only to wage-earning women. Self-employed women working for example in agriculture or a craft, or as housewives without a work contract are not entitled to paid maternity leave.

- III.12 As regards retirement, in Germany, members of a family working on a farm are entitled to half the sum allocated to the head of the business.
- III.13 In Belgium, a wife who is head of a business may not take out a survivor's pension in favour of her husband; this is a flagrant contradiction of the principle of equality between men and women in that only a male head of business may take out a survivor's pension in favour of his spouse.
- III.14 In Belgium, a woman who assists her husband is not entitled to any allowance for inability to work (sickness, maternity, accident). She has no social status in her own right; being considered as a simple housewife, she may NOT pay social security contributions on her own account.

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- III.15 The situation of a woman working in a family business generally displays the following features:
- no professional status,
 - no income on her own account,
 - inadequate regulation of working hours,
 - a double workload,
 - bad social security arrangements.
- III.16 The loopholes in maternity leave provisions for self-employed women in several member countries of the Community are flagrant; there is an obvious case for women in this category to have the same rights as other women in these countries. Steps should also be taken to promote the idea of parental leave so that family commitments can be shared in the same way as business commitments.

- III.17 Directive 79/7/EEC¹ on equal treatment in matters of social security provides, under Article 7(1)(c), for the granting of old-age or invalidity benefit entitlements by virtue of the derived entitlements of a wife. This category of (female) second-class citizens must be eliminated, and the personal entitlement of all individuals contributing to the family business to all social benefits established.
- III.18 In general terms, the situation of spouses working in family businesses breaks down in two basic ways: either they are a form of cheap labour, or a boss without rights. In the former category, they should be entitled to a wage, social security benefits in their own right, and to holiday leave; in the second category, they should be guaranteed an adequate income, social security in their own right, and the right to opt out of the business (see Section VI: availability of replacements).

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¹ OJ L 6, 10 January 1979

IV. Occupational training

- IV.1 It very often happens that the wives of self-employed workers come from backgrounds quite different from that of the business to which they become committed. If husband and wife are to work together as a team, some form of introduction to the husband's trade is essential, as is a period of follow-up training, as the trade itself evolves.
- IV.2 Wives in this situation face serious difficulties, for in addition to their commitment to the business, they usually also have to do all the housework themselves; these wives in fact have great difficulty in leaving the home to follow a training course (see chapter VI on replacement services).
- IV.3 In most cases, all forms of professional training are open to everyone without discrimination. However, in practice the technical sectors are generally male dominated, with most women being content with such areas as management, accounts, domestic science, etc.
- IV.4 The taxation system is sometimes an obstacle to access to training in that a spouse's training expenses often are not deductible from the taxable income of the business, whereas comparable expenditure in respect of other workers would be. This represents flagrant discrimination on the basis of marital status, and is contrary to the spirit and the letter of equal-treatment directives. A 'right' to training that does not provide for the means of achieving it is not a right at all.
- IV.5 The distinction between training for heads of undertakings and training for other members of a family working in an undertaking must be eliminated wherever it exists. ALL training courses must be open to all participants in a business, and the cost of training must be chargeable to the business.

IV.6 As part of the reform of the European Social Fund, priority should be given to training for women working in family businesses by establishing a quota for the financing of such training.

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V. Representation on occupational bodies

- V.1 Even when access to occupational organizations is in principle open to all, in actual fact women are very poorly represented. The fundamental problem is one of attitudes - men who are not used to discussing 'serious business' with women within their organization, women who lack the confidence to put themselves forward or get up and speak. This is especially true of the farming sector, where large numbers of women have a very weak voice.
- V.2 The proportions of self-employed women enjoying occupational representation all too often unknown; accurate statistics need to be drawn up prior to taking concrete action.
- V.3 The rules of certain institutions (cooperatives, etc.) stipulate that only the head of business can be elected to certain bodies. In some countries affiliation to an agricultural cooperative is embodied not in the person of the proprietor, but in the undertaking itself. All legal obstacles to undertakings being represented by women must be eliminated in favour of the principle that the undertaking shall be represented by one of its members.
- V.4 It is obvious that the situation of the liberal professions is special inasmuch as those practising them must have received specialized education, unlike their husbands or wives. The latter would not therefore be entitled to full representation; this must not, however, be allowed to prevent their contribution to the occupation of the qualified spouse from being fully recognized.

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VI. Availability of replacements

- VI.1 Self-employed workers often encounter serious difficulty if they wish to take time off, whether to follow a course of professional training, take on other professional responsibilities or, if they are women, to have a child.

The problem is all the more difficult for women in that they generally already have a dual responsibility, both to the business and to the home. This should not be allowed to operate in a discriminatory way as between men and women.

- VI.2 There should therefore be adequate services to compensate for the wife's absence, and/or her lack of income during such absence.

The current situation varies enormously from one country to another; some, like the Netherlands and Denmark have part-subsidized replacement services; others, such as Italy, have no such service.

- VI.3 The distinction should be made between family businesses, where replacement by a complete stranger to the family and the business could prove difficult, and agriculture, where labour is absolutely essential inasmuch as the land and livestock will not wait! In the first case, provision could be made for a compensatory allowance in respect of loss of revenue occasioned by absence, or as the means of employing a replacement; in the second case, a replacement service is absolutely essential. Past experience has shown that replacements should also be prepared to carry out household duties.

- VI.4 There is also a case for placing the situations for which such a replacement service would be available in order of priority, e.g. (i) maternity leave, (ii) absence by reason of training or professional responsibilities, (iii) holiday leave, and for establishing a scale of contributions to the cost of the services from public funds.

VI.5 In addition to qualified replacements in specific areas (crafts or agriculture, for example), it would be highly useful to set up a replacement system staffed by 'Jacks of all trades' (household duties, business restocking, etc.) not requiring any special training. The Community could launch pilot schemes in this field as a preliminary to initiating major projects.

VI.6 The replacement service should not simply help out in emergencies, it could also be used to back up the extra efforts required when a new business is launched.

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COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

Topic No. 11

of the report of inquiry

on the situation of women in the
European Community institutions

Rapporteur : Mrs M. LENZ

I - INTRODUCTION

1. In paragraph 52 of the resolution of 11 February 1981 on the position of women in the European Community, the European Parliament states that 'the ratio of men to women employed as officials in the institutions of the European Communities reflects the unequal ratio of men to women employed in the Community itself' and requests the Commission to submit a report to Parliament within six months on the employment situation of the female employees of Community Institutions together with adequate proposals for improving this situation.

In addition, it calls upon 'all the organs of the European Communities, (Commission, Council, Parliament, Court of Justice, Economic and Social Committee, Court of Auditors, European Investment Bank) to report at an early date on the situation regarding the employment of women within their establishment and to set up a system enabling the promotion of women in all categories to be improved'.

2. Neither the Commission nor the other institutions have submitted the requested report. They have however, in response to the Committee of Inquiry's questionnaire (see Annex I to PE 81.947), provided statistics and information on the situation of women in the various institutions which, in spite of the failure of some institutions to offer details, give a very reliable picture of the situation of women in the European institutions. The Commission of the European Communities has, in its Community action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women, proposed positive action at the level of personnel policy, the aim of which is stated to be to bring about greater equality between men and women employed by the Commission of the European Communities.

On 24 May 1982 the President of the Commission addressed the Committee of Inquiry, stressing the Commission's role in setting a good example in this field, and personally undertook to bring about greater equality between men and women employed by the Commission.

In addition, the Council, in its resolution of 12 July 1982 on the promotion of equal opportunities for women, reaffirms the need to promote the employment of both men and women in all sectors and occupations and a more balanced representation of women at different levels of responsibility at both national and Community level and 'considers that the public sector, including the Community institutions and bodies, should set an example in this respect'.

3. The European Parliament has, in numerous questions past and present, dealt with individual problems relating to the situation of women in the European institutions. The replies of the administrative authorities also give an insight into their attitudes to these problems.
4. The various European institutions, with their large staff complements are excellent models for investigating the situation of women in the public sector. They represent a fair sample of women's aspirations and opportunities in their working lives, in terms of equal rights, political aims and other specific demands.
5. The aim of this report is to summarize and evaluate the information obtained and to draw up proposals.

This report will first deal with specific issues and then attempt to draw conclusions as regards future personnel policy.

It will become clear that the Institutions, whilst pursuing the same objective, that of the building or development of the European Community, have different approaches to the various problem areas.

II - STATISTICS

The statistics reveal similarities to the situation in the national public services.

1. Although women account for almost half the officials in the European institutions, the various categories present very different pictures.

The difference between Category A (administrative) and Categories B and C (executive and clerical) is striking but not out of the ordinary.

For example the 1981 statistics show that on average 10% of Category A staff employed by the European Parliament, the Council and the Economic and Social Committee were women (in 1980 the percentage was highest at the European Parliament, with 11.73%). In the other institutions the figures were 8.1% (Commission), 8.3% (Court of Justice) and 7% (Court of Auditors). The European Investment Bank holds the worst record, there being no women at all in the category equivalent to Category A. The picture, however, changes very considerably when the individual grades in Category A are examined. The Commission has the only positive record in this respect with 4.7% (2 posts) in A 1 and 1.7% (2 posts) in A 2 (insofar as one can speak of a record). No other institution has any women officials in either A1 or A2.

On the other hand, in A 3 the Court of Justice is out on its own with 25% (one out of four), followed by the European Parliament with 1.8% (one out of fifty-four)¹ and the Commission with 0.6% (two out of). Even in A 4, the highest proportion of women is no more than 8.7%, in the case of the European Parliament, 3.9% in the case of the Commission and 3.6% in the case of the Council. No institution gets into double figures.

Not until Grades A 5 and A 6 does the European Parliament reach the heights of 25 and 26% respectively, the Commission 8.9% and 14.1%, the Council 16.1 and 25.7% and the Economic and Social Committee 25% where the highest grade reached by women is, however, Grade A 6. These figures certainly present a rather sorry picture even where the percentages sound satisfactory.

¹ Since 1 January 1982, two out of fifty-six.

The picture changes considerably in Categories B and C in which most women are employed, sometimes occupying between 62 and 90% of posts. An astonishing feature is that in the LA categories (Language Service) over 50% of staff in Grades LA 7/6 (starting grade) are women, but this figure decreases steadily up to Grades LA 4/3, though with clear differences between the various institutions.

Thus at the Commission only two women (11%) hold posts in LA 3, the highest grade of the language service, six women at the European Parliament (27%), three women at the Court of Justice (25%) and none at the Council or the Economic and Social Committee (0%).

2. In this context, it is instructive to analyse the results of open competitions. An average of 25% of applicants for A 7/6 and 49.6% for LA 7/6 posts at the European Parliament, and 16.6 and 48.5% respectively at the Commission are women; women account for 20% of successful applicants in A 7/6 (European Parliament), 10.3% (Commission), 48% in LA 7/6 (European Parliament), and 46% (Commission), but for only 9.9% (European Parliament) and 11.2% (Commission) in Categories A 6/7 and 49.5 or 45% in LA 7/6 of those actually appointed.

In the Commission's competitions for Category B, of the 30% of applicants who are women, 16% pass the tests and approximately 18% are appointed, whilst in the case of typists in Category C the proportion of women is over 95% at each stage.

Assuming that half the staff are women, there must therefore be serious reasons for the shortage of women in some categories. It is also interesting to note that the general trend has hardly changed when the figures for 1979, 1980 and 1981 are compared.

III. RECRUITMENT AND PROMOTION PROCEDURES

Preliminary remark: here and in subsequent points the information may to some extent overlap as it relates to several problem areas.

According to Article 27 of the Staff Regulations, officials must be selected without reference to race, creed or sex. In theory therefore discrimination should be impossible.

1. Competitions

(a) Age-limits

The question of age-limits for admission to competitions (external and internal), to further education establishments and, linked to this, access to the various categories, continues to arise in all opinions given by the staff representatives and the Committee on Equal Opportunities. Numerous questions, some from the European Parliament too, show repeatedly that there are difficulties for women in this connection. So far the Commission in particular has not been very cooperative. In this respect the institutions seem to vary their application of the rules on recruitment according to category, career prospects and national quotas, which may well be connected with the number of applications since the outcome of competitions, especially external ones, are reserve lists valid for long periods. The question is, however, whether, in the case of women who for family reasons withdraw from working life for a few years but have previously taken part in a competition, the reserve list and its recruitment dates must be applied as strictly as in the case of male applicants. The following measures taken by the European Parliament show how that half-way solutions are possible. The crucial factor must of course be the standard of attainments.

The age-limit is of no importance in the case of internal competitions. In the same way, it seems to give rise to no problems as regards further training. The study on this problem promised by the Commission some time ago is not yet available. It would certainly set an example to the other institutions.

In general, in the case of open competitions, the age-limit for recruitment may be assumed to be 35 years. In special cases, especially in the higher categories, however, this limit may be higher. Discussions with the Commission and with the Council show that the administrations do not intend to make any fundamental changes here. In an answer to Written Question No. 732/79 of 17 December 1979, the Commission even hints at restricting the higher age-limits laid down in the past.

On the other hand, efforts have been made within the European Parliament to increase the age-limit in general to 40. Several exceptions already apply there:

- (a) in the case of administrators, the maximum age is 33 years;
- (b) in the case of secretaries, the maximum age is sometimes 40.

Other exceptions apply in the case of:

1. Applicants who have not applied for recruitment until at least one child living in the same household has reached the age of 16; in this case a period of from 3 to 6 years at the most is added in respect of each child.
2. Applicants over the age-limit because of military service or its equivalent. The period of military service is taken into account.
3. Applicants who have previously been employed in the European institutions for a certain length of time.

(b) Female participation on selections boards

The union representatives on the staff committees and on the Committee for Equality between Male and Female Staff have complained in particular that there are too few or no women on the selection boards. It is clear that too few women are appointed by both the administration and the trade unions. In its action programme, the Commission itself calls for automatic female participation on selection boards. In this respect the participation of women must be extended to all categories - A, LA, B, C and D.

(c) Questions as to marital status

Pointed questions about marital status are one of the reasons for the restricted number of women applicants recruited. In this case

too the European Parliament's practice seems to be more open-minded. However, it must be ensured that questions as to marital status are treated equally impartially for all applicants. This is one of the reasons for the low percentage of recruitments from the reserve lists, particularly in Category A 7/6. In this respect too, however, there are clear differences between the institutions: at the Commission only 11% are appointed from the approximately 10% applicants who are women while at the European Parliament the figures are only 9.97% out of 20.3%. In Categories LA 7/6 and C (typists) the number of applicants, applicants who pass the tests and applicants recruited remain more or less constant. In Category C 95% of the applicants, applicants who pass the tests and applicants recruited are women.

(d) Length of time on the reserve lists

The statistics give no indication of the effects of the often lengthy delays before candidates of both sexes are actually recruited. This question must however, be investigated.

2. Appointments

Given that, according to the statistics, there is already a considerably lower number of women applicants for appointments in career bracket A 7/6, the first two grades in Category A, it is no surprise that appointments in Grades 4 and 3 become increasingly rare. Appointments in Grades A 2 and A 1 are often 'political', some from outside. Since there are only very few women in the 'cabinets', which are to some extent the jumping-off point for Categories A 1/2, it is no wonder that here too, women start at a great disadvantage.

The prevailing opinion is that there is no discrimination in choosing trainees. This also applies to the number of Schuman scholarship holders in the European Parliament who are on more or less the same footing as trainees at the Commission, but receive higher remuneration.

It would, however, be very interesting to discover how far the number of men and women trainees is reflected in applications for and appointments to established posts.

3. Promotion

The data available does not provide a conclusive picture as regards promotion, but the statistics do, however, indicate that women have better chances of promotion in the European Parliament than in the other institutions.

(a) The question of recruitment in Category C of women with higher qualifications seems, however, to be a problem as regards both applications and promotions. On the one hand, they may well have their applications rejected and on the other may be totally excluded from appointment in any category. The trade unions often object to the appointment of highly qualified people in lower categories. This, however, in turn reduces opportunities for many women as well as their subsequent chances of promotion. The Commission is called upon to present figures showing how many male and female officials achieve promotion to much higher categories in spite of low educational qualifications, and how many women and men respectively with higher educational qualifications are nevertheless unable subsequently to enter a higher category. Women would appear to be at a disadvantage here. The appointment of more women in higher categories is urgently required if the Commission intends to carry through the proposals contained in its own action programme.

(b) In the case of promotions too, the under-representation of women on promotion committees is complained of.

Since there are only relatively few women in the higher categories, it is not always possible for these women to sit on the corresponding selection boards because there are so few of them and because of shortage of time or other reasons. Thus the lack of women officials with high qualifications might possibly also lead to not always intentional discrimination by promotion committees against women applicants.

4. Appointment of a women member of the Commission

As a rule these are purely political appointments by governments. Since, however, a number of persons who were formerly high officials of the Commission have in the meantime been appointed commissioners, this point should be noted. Since women occupy prominent positions in almost all governments and parliaments in the Member States, there is no apparent reason why a woman cannot occupy the post of commissioner. After all, a woman has been appointed Advocate General at the Court of Justice.

IV. ACCESS TO THE VARIOUS FIELDS OF WORK

Preliminary remark: This question cannot be considered without reference to the previous chapter.

1. Descriptions of posts

The institutions' descriptions of posts are, too often tailored to special circumstances. They lack the necessary impartiality. Often they are published relatively late and not distributed widely enough so that the opportunity to apply for them is restricted from the outset. This applies particularly to external competitions. Women applicants must be given a better opportunity by more efficiently supplying the mass media with notices of vacancy and corresponding job descriptions.

Although an official, impartial establishment plan with job descriptions is available it is already fairly out of date, and an attempt to revise the titles of posts and descriptions of duties and adjust them to the circumstances has met with great problems. Thus, for example, in the published descriptions of posts in the European Parliament, which the unions helped prepare, all posts are addressed to male candidates with the exception of a single career bracket, Grade C 1, in which the French text significantly describes all posts as 'secrétaire de direction' (executive secretary) and 'secrétaire principale' (principal secretary) in the feminine. A communication from the enlarged Bureau of Parliament contains similar errors. In the description of the composition of a committee secretariat, it is stated that a committee secretariat may contain one 'Assistentin' (woman assistant) and a very limited number of 'Bürosekretarinnen' (women secretaries/shorthand typists) in addition to the official (male) in Category A. Thus even job descriptions clearly place certain limits on the possibilities of employment for women.

The different evaluations made of equivalent jobs in the various institutions, in some cases even within the various Directorates-General (for example, the head of a typing pool and the head of a technical department etc. are evaluated differently), is another source of error.

2. Training and further training

In large administrative bodies such as most of the institutions of the European Communities, special importance must be attached to the training and further training of officials. The timetables for further and continuing training courses have, in most institutions, been adjusted to officials' working hours thus also making things easier for women with family responsibilities. Nonetheless, the question whether women could be given better opportunities by setting aside special rooms for them and adjusting their hours of work must be investigated.

The need for further and continuing education arises particularly in the case of women because, more often than their male colleagues, they stop work for a time in favour of their family responsibilities. They then have to bring themselves up to date with the situation in their job. This means that the range of continuing training courses must be more intensively aimed at these needs or extended, in addition to language courses. In particular, there are no further educational programmes for women whose duties are largely mechanical (switchboard operators, punchcard operators and so forth) and who are thus given little opportunity for promotion from their largely monotonous jobs. Further training in the new technologies must give greater scope for creating more opportunities for women, in particular, to enter more highly skilled jobs.

Paid leave or leave on personal grounds (according to duration) may be granted for such training on certain conditions. So far no figures are available as to how many women have taken advantage of this possibility.

3. Making the best use of women in their job

In view of the small number of posts for women members of staff with high qualifications there is also a danger that women officials will, despite their higher professional qualifications, not in the long run be employed in their posts in accordance with their capabilities and education. This leads to a reduction of opportunities for women officials as opposed to men officials.

Other large organizations (such as the United Nations) regard this problem as one of personnel management and training in psychology. Equivalent concepts must be developed in the European institutions.

V. INDIVIDUAL ISSUES

1. Hours and conditions of work

Issues relating to the organization of work are the normal ones arising in all large administrative bodies. Women with families are placed at a disadvantage by the fixed hours of work, particularly at the Commission in Brussels, because there is no opportunity for flexible organization of working hours or flexitime. An additional factor is the long two-hour midday break customary in international organizations which also has disadvantages for some people. On the one hand, it enables women to look after their families at midday but on the other it lengthens the working hours in the evening. Depending on the school facilities and how far away they live, family women are therefore faced with considerable problems in organizing their work in the office and their family responsibilities. In view of the distances involved, often great, the question of the introduction of flexible working hours should be raised; the European Parliament already has some encouraging experience in this matter.

Part-time work

Half-time work, the provisions governing which are laid down in Article 55a of the Staff Regulations of Officials of the European Communities and Annex IV a thereto, is the only form of part-time work available. There is no right to half-time work. Exceptionally authorization may be granted on application by the official for a maximum of one year. It may however be renewed on the same conditions. The authorization is revocable if the reasons for which the authorization was granted no longer apply or on application by the official concerned. The reasons which may be put forward in this connection are chiefly the care of small children or illness of dependants. Both reasons chiefly affect women. However, the approach to the authorization and renewal of leave on personal grounds varies from one institution to another.

In the European Parliament, an internal directive on half-time work came into force as from 1 October 1981 by agreement between the administration and the staff committee. A Consultative Committee on Half-Time Work composed of representatives of the appointing authority and the staff committee decides on the applications. The following reasons are acceptable for the purposes of an application to half-time work:

- serious family reasons, particularly where there are small or handicapped children,
- long illness of a dependant,
- further educational training including that relating to an outside activity under Article 12 of the Staff Regulations of Officials (established officials).

Part-time work for other reasons is virtually impossible. In addition, there are no part-time posts; an official working half-time occupies a normal post.

In the debate in the European Parliament on the provisions relating to voluntary part-time work in Europe, it was pointed out that it is often the only possibility, even in a form other than half-time work because of family holidays, for women to keep both their domestic and professional work going at the same time. This applies to both women Community officials and to young women who wish to combine a family and a job on an equal basis from the start of their marriages.

Part-time work may also, however, be the best solution for older people. The European Community and its institutions should set an example here and look into the question of whether part-time posts could be introduced in the establishment plan, or part-time work extended to other groups, these posts being incorporated in the overall work plan as the best solution from an organizational point of view. Where two officials in the same grade or adjacent grades are working half-time, the Commission, in its proposed amendments to the Financial Regulation, allows for the two officials to be allocated to one post in any given grade. The reasons why the approach to the provisions is different from one institution to another must be examined. National administrations have clearly created more extensive facilities in this respect.

2. Leave on personal grounds

Exceptionally, an official may, on application, be granted unpaid leave on personal grounds for a maximum of one year. The leave may be extended twice, in each case for a further period of one year.

On 31 May 1979, The Commission submitted a proposal to the Council to extend the maximum period of such leave to 10 years in certain conditions. On 21 July 1983 the Council extended the period to a maximum of 5 or 6 years respectively.

3. Facilities for families

The report on facilities for families promised by the Commission of the European Communities has not yet been received. However, the Commission's facilities set the tone in Brussels. They are also used by the Economic and Social Committee and the Council of Ministers. In Luxembourg a joint committee of the European Parliament, Commission, Court of Auditors, Court of Justice and European Investment Bank is responsible for these facilities. The improvement and construction of a day centre

was chiefly prompted by the staff of the European Parliament in Luxembourg and is now under way at last. The main complaints are that the facilities have not hitherto been adapted to the working conditions of officials. The new building should provide solutions to these problems since the availability of suitable family facilities is an important aid to the career prospects of women with families and also, increasingly, those of single fathers; there must also be solutions that allow for the care of school children of different age-groups.

Facilities of this kind do not only benefit people in paid employment but also families with one parent not in paid employment. They are, however, particularly helpful for single parents. Above all, where large administrative bodies employ a great number of women, they should organize themselves properly and not allow themselves to become a source of political conflict over issues of social policy. This applies particularly to their educational policies. These facilities cannot, however, and should not be a substitute for the family.

Short-term and temporary care of children whose parents are absent on official duties and the longer term care of sick children also clearly create difficulties. Both factors can have very taxing effects on their parents' careers even if some relief is possible for a limited time. Naturally, this problem too chiefly affects women. The European institutions must find solutions to this in their own best interests. They do not necessarily need to involve financial subsidies; the problems should be solved by cooperation with local social services and organizations.

It would also be possible to encourage or even subsidize, if necessary, private measures in this field.

4. Protection for women during pregnancy and early motherhood - leave for family reasons - parental leave

According to Article 58 of the Staff Regulations of Officials of the European Communities, a pregnant woman is entitled to leave on production of a medical certificate. This leave starts six weeks before the expected date of confinement given on the certificate and ends ten weeks after the date of confinement. It may, however, not be less than sixteen weeks. The Staff Regulations are thus in line with the provisions in force in Europe.

They are more favourable than in most Member States. However, there are no provisions for leave for family reasons or parental leave which is possible in some Member States, and enables a mother to leave work and at the same time draw a certain allowance, the State taking over

for this period both social security contributions and taxes if any are payable. The only possibilities are an application for half-time work for a specific period (see above) or leave on personal grounds which, however, entails the loss of the official's emoluments and rights for this period. In view of the provisions in most Member States, it should also be possible to find temporary solutions in this case by, for example, preventing unpaid leave from adversely affecting social security and promotion.

5. Allowances

European officials receive allowances for many different reasons. They are usually linked to the income of the person whose earnings are higher when both husband and wife are in employment, or are subject to income limits where one partner is employed outside the European institutions. This may in some cases give rise to difficulties for women. In general, however, this system does not need to be discussed. Moreover, some sources of error have recently been removed; thus the maternity allowance is always paid to the woman and the education allowance always to the persons who have the actual right to educate the children. It has also been proposed that all allowances should systematically be paid to the person with the actual right to educate the children.

One point which might be crucial is the foreign residence or expatriation allowance. It continues to be granted only if a person automatically acquires by marriage the nationality of the country of employment, in other words if there was no choice. This always affects the woman.

Since, however, it is possible to rectify this situation if a woman cannot choose, and any marriage is a deliberate change of status, the present solution seems to be acceptable.

6. Pension provisions

The Staff Regulations of the Officials of the European Communities contain a comprehensive pension scheme which does not give rise to any discrimination. The only exception, not just in this system, however, is the fact that there is no widower's pension.

The Community pension scheme applies the principle, customary almost everywhere, that women must pay the same contribution to the retirement pension fund, although this gives their husbands no right to a pension unless they are permanently disabled, in which case they are entitled to half the deceased female official's pension.

Proceedings in this connection are pending before the Court of Justice. It is, of course, essential to await the outcome. As in the case of the Member States, an amendment to the system would entail considerable financial expenditure for the institutions. This is probably the hub of the matter. On 13 June 1974, the Commission submitted to the Council a proposal to introduce a widower's pension but the Council has so far failed to reach agreement on this issue.

7. Early retirement (golden handshake)

The opportunity for officials of the European Communities to retire early with a special compensation has only occurred when new Member States had the right to fill some posts. This might occur again if Portugal and Spain were to accede. The option, however, was only available to officials in the highest categories. The lower categories could not as a rule take advantage of it.

Since the women in the European institutions are, as in other large administrative bodies, in the lower or middle categories, no women have benefitted from this opportunity.

In the European Parliament, and in complaints from the staff representatives, there was much criticism of this. The discrimination, however, lies less in the issue of sex than in the fact that it applies only to certain categories of officials. As a rule it only concerns Grade A 3.

8. Missions

In view of the travelling involved in the operation of the European institutions, particularly at the European Parliament, compulsory missions cause difficulties for women in two ways.

If a woman is obliged to go on mission, lack of assistance within the family often causes difficulties.

If a woman is exempted from the duty to go on mission, this may lead to disadvantages in her career. In this respect, greater efforts than hitherto must be made to introduce fairer criteria.

VI. SERVICES AND BODIES WITHIN THE INSTITUTIONS CONCERNED WITH WOMEN'S

PROBLEMS

1. Administration of the European institutions

(a) The Commission of the European Communities

1. There are two services in the Commission of the European Communities chiefly concerned with women's problems; the Bureau for Questions concerning Women's Employment within Directorate-General V and the Information for Women's Organizations and Press in Directorate-General X.

Both services also naturally affect the institution itself although their activities are directed towards the outside world, their objective being to implement the relevant Commission directives. Their purpose is not, however, to solve women's problems within the institutions and they can only draw attention to the problems as a whole through their activities. However, they thus become, willy nilly, indirect representatives of women's concerns in the institutions themselves.

2. However, since 1978 there has existed within the Commission of the European Communities a Working Group for Equality between Male and Female Staff which submitted a report in February 1980. The working group was later renamed the 'Committee for Equality between Men and Women' (1981). It is composed of representatives from the trade unions and professional organizations and from the services of the Commission with special responsibility at Community level in the field of equal opportunities. On the part of the administration, Directorate-General V is represented by the Bureau for Questions concerning Employment and Equal Treatment for Women, and Directorate-General X is represented by the Information Service for Women's Organizations and Press. The chairman is an official from Directorate-General IX (Administration).

For practical reasons, the committee adopted the 1980 conclusions of the working group and added specific recommendations for measures to be implemented by Directorate-General IX (Administration) and/or its services, either alone or in conjunction with other directorates-general.

The committee helped to draw up Annex II to the Community Action Programme of the Commission of the European Communities on the promotion of equal opportunities for women of December 1981, the part relating to positive action at the level of Commission personnel policy.

According to the members of the committee and on the basis of a decision of November 1982, the committee drew up recommendations but at the same time temporarily suspended its activities. In a comprehensive opinion it gave as its reason for doing this the fact that to a very large extent, its projects had met with no response from the administration. According to its members, it did not wish to be used as a smoke-screen. Since the trade unions and the administration arrived at sensible proposals in a good working atmosphere within this committee and as the main reason for this decision is the lack of interest or failure on the part of the administration to implement the projects, it is a great pity that its activities have been suspended. The unsatisfactory way in which the findings of the Committee on Equality were dealt with is, furthermore, inconsistent with the proposals put forward by the Commission regarding its personnel policy.

3. There exists in addition, mostly on the basis of the Staff Regulations, a number of committees in which the administration and staff representatives work together. They concern almost all questions affecting interests within the institution. Women are represented on very few of these committees. Attention must also be paid to the equal or appropriate representation of women so that they are ensured access to all administrative sectors.

(b) European Parliament

The Consultative Committee on Half-Time Work, run by the administration and staff representatives, is particularly important as far as women's problems are concerned. It deals with all applications for authorization to work part-time and seems to operate satisfactorily. In addition to this, a number of committees operate pursuant to the Staff Regulations. Most of them contain very few women. In general, greater attention must be paid to achieving adequate representation by women so that, as in the Commission, they have access to all administrative fields and can represent the special concerns of women there too.

(c) The other institutions

There are no equivalent working groups or committees in the other institutions dealing with problems of equality of specific women's issues.

2. Staff committees/Staff representatives

Complaints are repeatedly made that the staff committees have not paid sufficient attention to women's problems.

On the other hand, it has also been found that the staff bodies do not contain enough women for these activities.

It has also been argued that women have not elected any women candidates. This argument must be looked into. In institutions with a high proportion of women, the bodies representing staff should be composed accordingly.

The staff committees should, on their own initiative, give more attention to the problem of appropriate representation of women and encourage greater interest on the part of women staff.

3. Trade unions

The following trade unions and professional organizations exist in the communities:

FFPE

SFIE

Union Syndicale.

Of these, the Union Syndicale and the SFIE have a Working Group on Equality. The Parliament has its own SGPOE group.

Women are not yet sufficiently motivated to join trade unions or professional organizations. The few women who hold office in such organizations are very often overloaded by the many demands made by the large institutions, their committees and tasks. The trade unions must, on their own initiative, make their own members conscious of women's concerns and the concerns of their own women colleagues, and must educate their female members to take up their duties accordingly in the bodies representing staff. They are also to a very large extent responsible for creating an atmosphere within the staff committees making their work seem interesting and meaningful to women.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

The situation of women officials in the institutions of the European Communities differs little from those in national administrations as far as their material and vocational problems are concerned. One special factor must however be taken into account.

Like their male colleagues, women officials of the Communities do not live in their home countries; they are expected to be more mobile in their professional and family lives. The separation from their families and relatives in their home countries is often a heavier emotional burden for them than for their male colleagues. Marriages between people of different nationalities are frequent. These also create their special problems.

On the other hand, it may be assumed that the decision to work in a European institution presupposes knowledge of the special circumstances and often better vocational training. Officials are generally better off than if they were working in national administrations. There are very few lacunae in the social security network.

Women must demand equal access to posts, equal opportunities and equal enforcement of their rights at work. As members of international institutions these issues affect them particularly as a part of their personal and working life. Women should therefore have full opportunities. The fact that they are obliged for a time to curtail their career because of family responsibilities should not place them at a disadvantage.

The European institutions with their extensive opportunities must be able to solve these problems. Women, for their part, should be more aware that they must contribute to their opportunities by their own efforts too. Women in all categories must be encouraged and urged to apply for posts. This can be done without discriminating against other male applicants. Notices of vacancy and competition, descriptions of posts and opportunities for publication in the mass media must be used appropriately. Personnel divisions, selection boards and promotion committees must make it a principle to ensure that women are adequately represented on the appropriate bodies and can for their part, contribute to the working atmosphere. In this respect, the assumption is of course being made that women can reach the necessary standards or are prepared to undergo relevant retraining. The temporary failure of the Committee on Equality in the European Commission is a great pity as it had begun good work. A model of this kind can set an example to the other institutions.

The administrations of the Commission and the European Parliament can act as 'market leaders' for all the European institutions. The Commission's large number of staff means that it has ample opportunity to find new solutions, while the European Parliament has an obligation to set an example in this area owing to its political commitment to equal opportunities for women.

Annex

Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women
in Europe

STANDARD QUESTIONNAIRE

Sent to the Secretaries-General of the Commission
the European Parliament
the Council
the Court of Justice
the Economic and Social Committee
the EIB

Dear Sir,

Subject: Report on the professional situation of women

Further to the resolution adopted by the European Parliament on 11 February 1981 on the situation of women in Europe, the European Parliament has set up a committee of inquiry to be responsible for monitoring the action taken on this resolution by the various bodies.

Mrs LENZ, rapporteur on the abovementioned topic, which is derived mainly from paragraph 52, subparagraphs 3 and 4 of the resolution, has instructed me to inform you that she would like to know, for the purposes of drawing up her report and with reference to the period from 1979,

1. The conditions of recruitment and appointment for Categories A. B. and LA, indicating the criteria relating to:
 - . vocational training,
 - . age limits,
 - . linguistic knowledge, etc.
 - (a) for open competitions,
 - (b) for internal competitions,
2. the number of
 - (a) applications received, .

(b) candidates placed on reserve lists,
(c) candidates recruited,
for general and individual, internal and open competitions in these
categories;

3. the number of candidates eligible for promotion and the number
actually promoted in each grade of Categories A, B and LA,
indicating the number of appointments from Category B to Category
A and from category C to Category B.
4. the number of appointments without competition;
5. the average age in each grade;
6. the average length of time spent in each grade.

In addition, Mrs LENZ would like to know what childminding facilities
are offered to officials during working hours.

Thanking you for your kind cooperation, I would be grateful if
you could forward this information to us as quickly as possible.

Yours faithfully,
for the Secretary-General

P. BORODKINE
DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR COMMITTEES
AND INTERPARLIAMENTARY DELEGATIONS

RECRUITMENT

INSTITUTION	1. PARLEMENT EUROPEEN			2. COMMISSION C.E.			3. CONSEIL C.E.	4. COUR DE JUSTICE			5. COUR DES COMPTES			6. C.E.S.			7. B.E.I.	
	Questionnaire du 10.8.81 réponse le 18.11.81			Questionnaire du 5.3.82 réponse le 7.4.82			Question 5.3.82 reminder of 26.7.82 sans réponse	Questionnaire du 5.3.82 réponses le 17.6.82 et 13.9.82			Questionnaire du 5.3.82 réponses le 4.5.82 et 7.9.82			Questionnaire du 5.3.82 réponse le 28.5.82			Q. du 5.3.82 R. le 2.4.82	
	1975-1980			1978-1981				1979-1981			1981-1982							
a) External comp- etitions	Admitt ed	Passed	Appoin ted	Inscrits	Lauréats	Nommés	The Council did not reply to the quest- ionnaire	Inscrits	Lauréats	Nommés	Inscrits	Lauréats	Nommés	Inscrits	Lauréats	Nommés	Recruitment to the EIB is not by competition but by indiv- idual advert- isement in the press. The Staff Regulations for offic- ials and other servants do not apply to EIB Staff	
	A 7/6 Comp.	3161 of which 814 i.e. 25,75%	54 dont 11 W soit 20,37%	33 dont 3 F soit 9,97%	9774 dont 1622 soit 16,6%	370 dont 32 F soit 10,3%		196 dont 22 F soit 11,2%	62	2 dont 0 F soit 0%	0	750	32 dont 1 F soit %	in progress	1222 dont 262 F soit 20,1%	25 dont 3 F soit 10,1%		2 dont 0 F soit 0%
	Concours LA 7/6	1375 dont 682 F soit 49,6%	134 dont 65 F soit 48,51%	107 dont 53 F soit 49,53%	3607 dont 1858 F soit 51,5%	187 dont 86 F soit 46%		144 dont 65 F soit 45,1%	382	13 dont 5 F soit	6 dont 2 F soit	None Only internal comp- etitions have been held			1339 dont 512 F soit	101 dont 31 F soit		30 dont 9 F soit
	Concours B	—			9726 dont 2915 F soit 30%	392 dont 63 F soit 16%		291 dont 54 F soit 18,6%	0	0	0	en cours			332 dont 89 F soit	en cours		
	Concours C (typists)	—			6948 dont 6631 F soit 95,5%	680 dont 667 F soit 98,1%		464 dont 456 F soit 98,3%	762	120 dont 117 F soit	52 dont 52 F soit 100%	No reply to question			Question sans réponse			
	Concours C (others)	—			1977 dont 852 F soit	136 dont 54 F soit		80 dont 41 F soit	—			Question sans réponse			Question sans réponse			

INSTITUTION	1. Parlement européen			2. Commission C.E.			3. Conseil C.E.			4. Cour de Justice			5. Cour des Comptes			6. C.E.S.			7. B.E.I.		
	Questionnaire du 10.8.81 Réponse du 15.11.81 (Boc PE 76.073) et du 15.9.82			Questionnaire du 5.3.82 Réponse du 7.4.82			Questionnaire du 5.3.82 No reply			Questionnaire du 5.3.82 Réponse du 17.6.82 et du 13.9.82			Questionnaire du 5.3.82 Réponse du 4.5.82 et du 7.9.82			Questionnaire du 5.3.82 Réponse du 28.5.82			Questionnaire du 5.3.82 Réponse du 2.4.82		
Statistical data on female officials																			Regulations are not the same groupe I = cat A (A1-A3) groupe II = cat A (A4 & A7) no equivalent cat B groupe III = cat C groupe IV = cat D groupe II trad. = cat LA		
a) percentage	1979	1980	1981	1979	1980	1981	1979	1980	1981	1979	1980	1981	1979	1980	1981	1979	1980	1981	1979	1980	1981
CAT A	10,12%	11,73%	10 %	6,53%	6,65%	8,1 %	-	-	10,5 %			8,33%			7%			10%	Group I 0%	0%	0%
CAT B	71,96%	67,05%	67,75%	30,83%	30,42%	no data	Données manquant		59,7%	Données manquant		85,71%	Données manquant		40%	Données manquant		10,29%	Group II 0,5 %	0,5%	0,5%
CAT C	75,42%	74,13%	73,95%	68,85%	68,08%	available		71,1%	78,18%		98%	50 %		48 %	50 %						
CAT D	37,06%	28,57%	26,07%	7,32%	8,82%			1,8%	6,89%		5%	-		-	-						
CAT LA	42,5 %	40,91%	46,24%	46,01%	44,82%			41 %			22,47%			58%			20,28%	Group II trad.			
	56,61%	54,76%	54,39%			44 %			48 %			51,9%			47%			50 %			45 %
b) overall total 1981	2.072 M/W dont			9.277 W/F dont			1.568 W/F dont			341 W/F dont			233 W/F dont			431 W/F dont			530 W/F dont		
all categories	1.127 F soit 54,39 %			4.053 F soit 44 %			755 F soit 48 %			177 F soit 51,9 %			98 F soit 47 %			216 F soit 50 %			229 F soit 45 %		

1. EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

Questionnaire of 10.8.81
Reply of 5.11.81 (Doc.
PE 7.673) and of 15.9.82

2. COMMISSION

Questionnaire du 5.3.82
Reponse du 7.4.82

3. COUNCIL

Questionnaire du 5.3.82
No reply

4. COURT OF JUSTICE

Questionnaire du 5.3.82
Reponse du 17.6.82
et du 13.9.82

5. COURT OF AUDITORS

Questionnaire du 5.3.82
Reponse du 4.5.82
et du 7.9.82

6. E.S.C.

Questionnaire du 5.3.82
Reponse du 28.5.82

7. E.I.B.

Questionnaire du 5.3.82
Reponse du 2.4.82b) in absolute
values for
1981Cat A : 230 posts of
which 23 women, i.e. 10%

Cat A

Cat A : 181 postes dont
19 W, soit 10,5 %Cat A : 36 postes dont
3 F, soit 8,33 %

Cat A

Cat A : 40 postes dont
4 F soit 10 %Groupe I 183 posts
dont 9 F

	M	W	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X
A1	8	0	0		2	4,7%	12	0	0									
A2	15	0	0		2	1,7%	18	0	0							50	0	0%
A3	54	1	1,82%		2	0,6%	26	0	0									
A4	42	4	8,70%		27	3,9%	27	1	3,6%									
A5	14	5	26,32%		53	8,9%	26	5	16,1%							28	0	0%
A6	23	8	25,81%		59	14,1%	26	9	25,7%							35	0	0%
A7	51	5	8,93%		52	15 %	27	4	12,9%							49	6	10,5%
	207	23	10 %	2.310	197	8,1%	162	19	10,5%	33	3	8,33%				21	3	7%

Cat LA 426 postes dont
197 F, soit 46,24 %

Cat LA

Cat LA

Cat LA

Cat LA

Groupe II Trad

	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X
LA3	16	6	27,27%		2	11,1%	8	1		6	2	25%						
LA4	79	53	40,15%		60	30,1%	36	12		7	2	22,20%						
LA5	38	25	40,32%		128	47,7%	68	53		14	1	6,66%						
LA6	36	44	55,07%		107	49,2%	27	21		42	14	25%						
LA7	60	69	53,49%		203	54,4%	28	29		-	1	100%						
							167	116	41 %	69	20	22,47%						

Cat B

Cat B

Cat B

Cat B

Cat B

Cat B

	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X
B1	17	36	67,92%		191	33,2%	2	17	89,5%	3	6	66,66%						
B2	23	27	54 %		189	39,9%	13	24	64,9%	4	15	78,94%						
B3	13	33	71,74%		170	42,7%	19	23	54,8%	2	13	86,66%						
B4	16	80	83,33%		165	42,9%	8	9	52,9%	1	15	93,75%						
B5	20	11	35,48%		117	45,1%	10	4	26,6%	1	17	94,44%						
	89	187	67,75%				52	77	59,7%	11	66	85,71%						

Cat C

Cat C

Cat C

Cat C

Cat C

Cat C = Groupe III

	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X
C1	50	178	78,07%		385	80,8%	31	100	76,3%	5	2	28,57%						
C2	52	215	80,52%		865	83,7%	61	147	70,7%	5	18	78,26%						
C3	72	166	69,75%		572	79,2%	77	135	63,7%	4	40	90,9 %						
C4	56	94	62,67%			80,6%	42	73	63,5%	7	25	78,12%						
C5	-	-	-			76,8%	7	81	92 %	3	1	25 %						
	230	651	73,95%			80 %	167	536	71,1%	4	86	78,18						

Cat D

Cat D

Cat D

Cat D

Cat D

Cat D = Groupe IV

	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X	H	F	X
D1	47	11	18,97%		1	0,5%	34	0	0 %	16	-	0%						
D2	29	26	47,27%		7	5,7%	79	1	1,2%	6	2	25%						
D3	114	30	20,83%															

COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

Topic No. 12

of the

report of inquiry

on

women in the Third World and European aid

Rapporteur: Mrs A.-M. LIZIN

At its constituent meeting of 15 October 1982, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe selected 18 topics for inquiry, including women in the Third World and European aid for which Mrs A.-M. LIZIN was appointed rapporteur.

The draft report was considered by the committee at its meeting of 22 and 23 February 1983.

The final report was adopted unanimously at the meeting of 21 and 22 June 1983.

The following took part in the vote: Mrs Vayssade, acting chairman; Mrs Lenz and Dame Shelagh Roberts, vice-chairmen; Mrs Lizin, rapporteur; Mrs Le Roux; Mr Purvis (deputizing for Miss Hooper); and Mrs Phlix (deputizing for Mrs Maij-Weggen).

Points for inclusion in the final resolution
of the Committee of Inquiry

The European Parliament,

- a. Considers that priority should be given to devising procedures which will promote the situation of women in the Third World by creating joint structures within the framework of the ACP-EEC institutions and by including this aspect as a priority issue in the Lomé III negotiations;
- b. Recommends that the Commission and the Member States improve their development aid planning to take account of women's problems:
 - by increasing the proportion of aid allocated for projects specifically designed to help women,
 - by giving priority to improving the situation of women in rural areas,
 - by assisting projects for the training of women and supporting organizations for women managers, and for informing and increasing the awareness of the female population;
- c. Considers that no development cooperation project should be planned, designed, carried out or completed in future unless its impact on women has been taken into account and the women themselves have been consulted at each stage.
 - recommends that overseas development ministries set up specialized departments;
- d. Recommends that special support be given to projects to assist black women in Southern Africa and refugee women in neighbouring countries.

Explanatory statement

INTRODUCTION

It is difficult in the context of the aid programmes to reach the poorest sections of the population and, even more so, to help the underprivileged within this category, namely women.

The international conferences in Mexico and Copenhagen and the research undertaken in the field by bilateral (USAID, Damida or Cooperation Ministers), multilateral (UNDP, World Bank, FAO, UNICEF) and non-governmental (Oxfam, Terre des Hommes, etc.) organizations have clearly highlighted the crucial role which women in the Third World play in ensuring survival of their families and in the 'subsistence sector' of the national economy in the face of often very trying circumstances.

In a large number of Third World countries, the family - in both rural and urban areas - is the basic unit of production and consumption. In many cases, women attend to the basic food requirements, as it is mostly they who grow the crops, tend the animals and prepare the food, find wood and water and look after the children, the old and the sick. However, these tasks are rarely expressed in terms of GNP and are therefore reflected only to a very small extent in the national statistics. Women are thus still all too often left out of the reckoning in aid programmes. If this was the full story, the future would be very black indeed. However, on the positive side, some progress has been made. For the past ten years there has been a general awareness throughout the world that women could make a greater contribution to their country's progress if they were better informed, better educated and given more encouragement to participate in decisions of direct concern to them. There is increasing official recognition of the fact that the aid programmes should take account of socio-cultural factors instead of concentrating exclusively on analyses of costs, benefits and profits, which formed the basis for the 1960s programmes : as Mr PISANI, the Development Commissioner, pointed out, these programmes were not always successful : 'Donors have not always been able or wished to find a suitable approach and method of helping the governments of the poorer countries to set up efficient institutions and to devise and implement administrative procedures and development policies designed to develop their national resources'¹. It is therefore important not to consider

¹ PISANI memorandum, COM(82) 640 final of 30 September 1982

women in isolation, but to bear in mind their role in the family and in the community. Like the great majority of development organizations, most governments in the industrialized countries and the Third World now accept this new approach. It is becoming clear that, in order to avoid wastage of resources, production delays, or, worse still, further impoverishment of the countries of the Third World in the future, every effort must be made to involve women at all levels in development planning and decision-making.

The interdependence of the campaign against poverty, hunger, malnutrition and exploitation, and efforts to conserve energy sources and protect the environment has also been recognized and will constitute the cornerstone of future aid programmes, which must enable the poorest sections of the population to participate with full awareness in the process of improving their living and working conditions. If this acceptance of the principle of a new approach to aid programmes is to result in real improvements for women in the Third World, it would seem to be necessary at this stage to encourage both donors and recipients of aid to ensure that programmes designed to enable women to play a full part in the development of their countries really get off the ground.

Chapter I : The context of the report

Some people may think that the subject of this report was chosen because it is fashionable. It is true that the role of women in the economy of Third World countries, to which little attention was paid ten years ago, has now become one of the primary concerns of those involved in development and cooperation policy, be they non-governmental organizations or ministries. Numerous solidarity campaigns have been organized in this connection.

The European Parliament's debates and its willingness to tackle this subject through its Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe are therefore part and parcel of this trend in the philosophy of cooperation. However, it would be difficult to claim that this philosophy has been the main reason for the emergence of the issue of women. We must remember that it was action by women themselves which really helped bring it to public notice, particularly at the international conferences held during the Decade of Women.

Parliament's current work is therefore based on two factors :

- a) At the United Nations conference in Mexico (1975) and the Copenhagen conference in 1980, after decades of silence, the women of the Third World spoke out - albeit still timidly and respectfully in their capacity as official delegates - against the injustice of their lives and their economic, social, educational and health conditions. Each participating country undertook to carry out specific action;
- b) The report adopted by the European Parliament in February 1981 echoes these concerns and recommends that the Commission and the Member States undertake specific aid activities and devote particular attention to this matter. The problem of black women in South Africa was raised as a particularly serious case;

The present situation

Following on from the report by the ad hoc committee, the discussion initiated by Commissioner PISANI in his questionnaire to EDF delegates culminated in the declaration drawn up by the Committee of Permanent Representatives¹, which was adopted by the Council of Ministers of Cooperation on 8 November 1982. The Committee of Inquiry also held a hearing in Rome attended by Members of the European Parliament and ACP delegates during the meeting of the ACP-EEC Assembly in November 1982. Finally, the meeting of the ACP-EEC Joint Committee in Kingston in February 1983 took account of matters relating to women, which our committee had brought to the attention of the President, in adopting a specific resolution.

¹ Document 10546/82/rev. 1 of 29 October 1982

Chapter II : The inquiry

a) Questionnaires

Questionnaires were sent to eight different groups :

- Commission
- Council
- EIB
- Overseas Development Cooperation Ministries of the Member States
- Foreign Trade Ministries of the Member States
- NGOs
- The international trade union organizations WCL and ICFTU
- Ministers for women's affairs in the countries receiving aid.

Some of these questionnaires were therefore sent to one single organization (i.e., the Commission, the Council and the EIB) and some to a small number of organizations (between 2 and 10) : questionnaires were also sent to 350 European NGOs and 40 ministers for women's affairs in the recipient countries.

Of course, one parliament or one member of parliament alone cannot do the work of an opinion research institute, which can mount a scientific operation better than we can. However, the questions selected by the draftsman and the committee of inquiry take account of the four main objectives of the work :

- determining whether those involved in development cooperation are bearing women's problems in mind,
- does their awareness of women's problems take practical shape ? If so, how ?
- is there a feeling of satisfaction or, on the contrary, a feeling that improvements are - necessary
 - urgent ?
- what suggestions have those involved in development cooperation made with a view to improving the situation ?

On the basis of these four objectives, the questions were drafted with the individual recipients in mind in order to identify their own preoccupations as closely as possible and to enable them to give a detailed reply.

The main point of note was the enormous percentage of replies from NGOs (80%), even allowing for the fact that they only had to indicate that they took no account of this problem in their operations. (However, NGOs account for only 10-12% of the total). The vast majority gave detailed replies. While the overseas development ministries also provided precise and often detailed replies, the same cannot be said of the foreign trade ministries and the EIB - there was only one reply - a situation which shows a serious deficiency and, undoubtedly, a major weakness of development cooperation policy in our countries, namely that the trade policy of the donor country more often than not takes precedence. This is particularly regrettable in the case of EIB, whose failure to reply to the questionnaire is symptomatic. One can only conclude from this that the EIB and foreign trade ministries never or only rarely consider the impact in social terms, let alone the impact on women, of the investments which they help to finance. It is difficult in the long term to continue speaking with a forked tongue and to act in two different ways as Europeans, particularly in view of the disproportionate share of national budgets devoted to each of these policies.

b) The limits and value of the inquiry

It is clear from what has gone before that the report based on this questionnaire provides what could be called a rather 'slimmed down' analysis. The questionnaire was drawn up for reference purposes and it would be easy to show the shortcomings of work whose nature and purpose are fundamentally different from those of scientific research. The questions are neither exhaustive (certain matters such as training for the purpose of earning a living are not dealt with in the questionnaire and a much greater amount of space is devoted to rural communities than to urban areas) nor geographically representative (the ACP countries predominate over other Third World countries which are not associated with the Community, while Africa is given greater coverage than Latin America or Asia).

The questionnaires sent to the various recipients contained a large number of open-ended questions, i.e., questions which could not be handled immediately by computers and were difficult to quantify. The danger is clear : by attempting to cover the Third World as a whole the study could appear to be too superficial (as each Third World country requires much more detailed analysis) or lacking in imagination, since the problems as such have been outlined on numerous occasions.

However, in spite of these shortcomings, the authors feel that the report can act as a catalyst or tool with which to exert pressure and that, as such, it comes at an opportune moment when a new policy with regard to women appears to be emerging in the Commission and the Council.

The report could therefore be useful in three ways :

- it could serve as a reminder that information on the different situations facing women in the Third World is still lacking and must be obtained before any development strategy designed to integrate women is devised;
- it could provide a means for the European Parliament to encourage and back up the recent initiatives taken by the Commission (questionnaire to the delegates) and the Council (declaration of intent with regard to women), which are designed to avoid the drawbacks of certain earlier programmes. Well-known examples include the increased workload borne by women as a result of clearing land for cash crops, which makes access

to firewood more difficult, and the increase in malnutrition as the result of employing male and female labour to grow cash crops, with less attention being paid to food crops;

- finally, by raising the role of women and development in a new forum, namely the European Parliament, the report could perhaps help to explode certain long-standing myths, which are hindering the introduction of a new development policy. Numerous aid organizations are fighting against such preconceived ideas, which include the following :
- women benefit indirectly from aid programmes designed to improve family circumstances. This is not necessarily true, as families are not homogenous units and different sections of the family benefit in different ways. For example, when a programme covers only heads of families, this is too often taken to mean men whereas, according to the World Bank, between a quarter and a third of families throughout the world are run by women alone (World Bank Report, 1981);
- specific projects aimed at women are expensive, as it is necessary to create new communications structures. The studies carried out by the Union of Indian Cooperatives show that many projects (craft activities) could make use of existing structures in order to offer women credit facilities, raw materials, etc.;
- specific projects aimed at the poorest women will not reach their target, as they will be taken over by the local elite. The danger does exist, as the natural leaders often constitute the social elite. At the beginning, however, this is not necessarily a disadvantage, as success serves as an example.
- women are already overburdened with work (according to United Nations statistics, African women work an 18-hour day on tasks including housework, work in the fields, collecting wood and water, selling surplus food, etc.) and they are therefore indifferent to all training and education programmes. This is undoubtedly true and, consequently, specific projects must first create leisure time; in other words, they must facilitate traditional tasks by providing creches, wells, household technologies, etc.;
- during an economic crisis, giving work to women means taking it away from men.

This would not be the case if the assistance provided for women was designed to increase their productivity in the sectors where they are already employed : nurses, nutritional experts.

Because of the persistence of traditional attitudes and cultures, it is important not only to try to change the living conditions of the poor sections of the population but also to enable them gradually to change their perception of what they can do. Women in the Third World wish to maintain their role within the family unit, but are aware of the fact that certain opportunities for improving their situation and that of their children require them to play a more visible role in the affairs of their communities.

The answers to the questionnaire throw light on this process and indicate what the women of the Third World want.

Chapter III : Results and analysis

The answers given by some development ministries, many NGOs and certain ministries in the developing countries themselves, raise a number of issues, which have been grouped together under the following headings :

1. Relative importance of the 'women's affairs' aspect
2. Similarities and differences between the projects submitted and the programmes funded
3. Criteria for measuring success or effectiveness
4. Changes in attitude on the part of aid donors and beneficiaries.

It is normally necessary to distinguish within a programme between specific projects (those aimed at women) and indirect projects (those in which a 'women's affairs' element could be incorporated). This distinction must be made as it has become increasingly apparent since the 1970s that women benefit only rarely from general development projects. The 'trickle down' theory of development has proved inadequate. However, specific projects are still small-scale in terms of funding and their place in integrated programmes and do not really tackle the fundamental causes of the underprivileged position of women. Although these projects are sometimes necessary at the beginning, they seldom continue in the longer term. It is difficult to estimate their relative importance in comparison with indirect programmes, but they undoubtedly rarely account for more than 20% of the aid budget.

Distinguishing between the two categories is sometimes very problematic. There is no problem in classifying a nursing school at the Tigania Hospital Centre (Kenya), set up by an Italian NGO consisting of non-religious volunteers, or the in-service training of traditional midwives in rural areas financed by the Overseas Development Ministry of the FRG or by Terre des Hommes (Belgium and France) as specific projects. But when it comes to the financing of a dispensary in Bolivia by a Dutch NGO which, in addition to other activities (teaching reading and writing, introduction to smallholding techniques, creches, etc.), also provide courses on nutrition, which are attended almost exclusively by women, should this be regarded as a specific project or an indirect project with a 'women' element ? Similarly, reafforestation projects in Nepal financed by Oxfam and the provision of wells in Niger undertaken by the French NGO, CLPAIE, which mainly benefit women - as it is they who have to collect water and firewood - are not really specific projects but, rather, integrated

community development projects designed to satisfy basic needs, which recognize the role of women in this area.

The same is true of the RUHSA (Rural Unit for Health & Social Affairs) sponsored by the Vellore Rural Communities Trust in India, a multifaceted programme aimed specifically at women, children, the unemployed and the poor, among whom there are many women.

The project budget is intended to cover the cost of providing training for jobs in small industries and the association's motto is 'Money in the hands of women means a better standard of living for the family'.

Still on the same subject, the German Ministry of Overseas Development describes interesting projects aimed at alleviating the burden of work borne by women in the area of agricultural production, increasing productivity by means of preparatory courses and improving the conservation of foodstuffs with a view to their subsequent sale.

In examining the projects described by the NGOs, one is sometimes struck by the gap between the projects proposed by the countries of the Third World and those which are actually funded by aid from the industrialized countries. Among donor organizations, for instance, the emphasis is now often placed on satisfying basic needs (water supply, housing), whereas certain Third World governments feel that greater priority could be given to improving women's access to paid employment and the appropriate training.

The 'Women's Affairs' departments of Ministries in the Caribbean countries often state that they would like to see training programmes geared towards self-help or, in other words, the development among women of skills which will enable them to earn money. Organizations such as HIVAS in the Netherlands have tried to meet this demand (in the Dominican Republic, for example) by setting up a match factory in Latin America, where women are employed and trained.

Some prefer projects which free women from particularly arduous tasks rather than general training and literacy programmes. Initiatives of this kind include the introduction of a millet mill by SOS in the Sahel and the mechanization of butter production in Mali.

However, the NGOs all agree that, in future, research training programmes must be set up to provide local women managers. Only in this way can women learn to participate more actively. Those NGOs which are most involved in providing training for women believe that this strengthening of structures and of the roles played by women will be a key factor in the success of future programmes.

It is striking to see how much importance the European NGOs and ministries for women's affairs in countries such as Guyana, Uganda and Barbados attach to the promotion of research. KULU in Denmark promotes contacts between women's organizations in European countries and their counterparts in the Third World in an effort to identify what women want; the African Centre in the UK and Terre des Hommes in Belgium have called for campaigns to promote awareness and provide information, as has the Barbadian Ministry of Education. Guyana is calling for the financing of basic research projects to identify fundamental needs and HIVOS in the Cape Verde Islands is attempting to train young women leaders at community level.

The answers to the questionnaire also raise the difficult problem of how to define success. Is it possible to define criteria for measuring effectiveness which will at least enable us to avoid failure ?

Why, in certain circumstances, can a water supply project, which one might be tempted to classify among the main development priorities, have unexpected harmful effects ?

Take the following example : the construction of a communal laundry is welcomed, as it makes the work of the women responsible for fetching water for household chores easier. The replacement of a laundry by the provision of running water in every house, while apparently making life still easier for women, may in certain regions lead to the isolation of women who were used to working together in the laundry, which provided an essential point of contact and a communications centre within a particular form of traditional culture. The potential advantages of an individual supply of clean drinking water are thus ignored or even rejected by those for whom it was intended to be of most benefit.

From a comparison of experiences in various continents it is clear that successful projects often have three things in common :

- they bring about an immediate and visible improvement in traditional living conditions,
- they are wanted and prepared by the local population,
- they use technology which is appropriate in the light of the knowledge and raw materials available locally.

VIWAS in the Netherlands cites the case of a women's centre in Zaire, whose success is undoubtedly closely linked to the fact that the small maternity centre in question not only provides care for newly-born babies, but also gives the mothers information on how to feed young children and offers them creche facilities so that they can be given elementary lessons in medicine and obtain information on hygiene, illnesses, housing, etc.

The Minister for Industrial Relations and Housing in the Dominican Republic, who is a woman, has on several occasions expressed the belief that community centres change living habits, as training, medical examinations and looking after children are activities which go hand in hand.

Looking at the problem from a slightly different angle, AIDR points out that its projects to improve the cooking facilities used in rural areas of Upper Volta have been welcomed by the women concerned because of their three-fold advantages of fuel economy, the resulting reduction in the amount of wood which has to be gathered and the healthier and more easily digestible food that can now be prepared for young children.

It would seem, therefore, that success is possible only when the donor and recipient countries are both aware of and accept their role as partners in the process of designing aid programmes. In other words, both parties must agree to carry out the field research which is needed to understand the specific situation of the communities for whom the project is intended.¹ The partners must also try to disseminate the information thus obtained at national level so that everyone can benefit

¹ Attached is a more detailed description of the data needed to draw a proper sociological picture of a community and hence avoid a repetition of the more spectacular development programme failures of the past. The kind of data which must be obtained includes such items as how the population concerned spends its time, the division of work between men and women, the level of education, women's activities within the family, in the fields and at the market and traditional taboos about food, etc.

from it, reduplication can be avoided and the projects can be adapted more closely to local conditions. This presupposes that both governments and the staff of the NGO concerned are committed to the future of the project and are sufficiently motivated to overcome the major difficulties involved in implementing it. Moreover, the active participation of the individuals involved, whether at the planning or the operational stage of the project, seems to be the vital factor in ensuring close links between planners and users and the survival of the project once the external factor (human resources or financial support) has disappeared from the scene.

Women's organizations and the authorities with whom they are in close contact in European and ACP countries alike attach a great deal of importance to the gathering of data on the actual living conditions of women. The Barbadian Ministry of Education is not alone in its efforts in this direction.

For a number of years the Overseas Development Ministries of those countries which are leading the way in matters of women and development have been using guidance manuals for the evaluation of development aid programmes, which provide their project directors and planners with advice. This often takes the form of questions which the planner must ask himself relating to the unforeseen impact which a programme may have on local socio-cultural customs and women's lives and work. The main purpose of these checklists is to ensure that certain projects do not adversely affect women in the communities concerned. Similar methods of sociological analysis are used regularly in the Netherlands and the FRG and are in the process of being introduced in other Community Member States.¹

The creation within Overseas Development Ministries of posts or departments responsible for assessing development projects from the point of view of their impact on women serves the same purpose. This has been done in the UK, Denmark and Belgium, where departments of this kind have existed since August 1981. A similar trend is also clearly visible in those ACP states which are actively involved in integrating women in the development process. They have set up women's departments or services responsible for channelling personnel and funds into programmes aimed at women. As is the case in Europe, these departments are also responsible

¹ Attached is a sample checklist compiled from a collection of manuals in current use.

for ensuring that approved projects do not have harmful side-effects. The growing degree of international cooperation between such departments will undoubtedly provide the surest guarantees that, in future, planners are made increasingly aware of the special problem of women. If it is recognized that account must be taken of the female dimension despite a lack of detailed knowledge in this area, how much better placed the planners will be to formulate appropriate policies once they are in possession of this detailed information. More information and a greater understanding of the problems concerned can be provided by systematic research into the relevant facts and statistics and by surveys conducted in the field.

This information, the lack of which we all deplore, could be obtained fairly cheaply. There are already many potential sources of information in every country. The delegates of the Commission of the European Communities, the representatives of the UN and its specialized agencies (FAO, WHO, UNICEF), the agents of the World Bank or the IMF, the consultants of the NGOs in the field and the volunteers from charitable organizations (e.g., ecumenical or lay missions) and diplomatic staff are all in a position to channel information gathered on the spot to the decision-making authorities of the host country and to those of the Community Member States. Of course, it will be difficult to coordinate all this, and closer cooperation between the various organizations on the spot must come about gradually. The information received must be disseminated amongst planners and central departments if it is to be relevant and if the various figures and statistics collected are to be of any use. In other words, those responsible for the various stages of programme planning must be aware of the pitfalls to be avoided in designing or implementing programmes. This free flow of information would have beneficial effects at all levels and should be encouraged.

Finally, in examining the replies from such different national contexts, it is interesting to reflect on the evolution of development policy in the course of the 1970s.

As already indicated, there is a growing awareness of the fact that women are being left behind in relation to the development of their country. The desire to remedy this situation has resulted in a political willingness to involve women more in the aid programmes. Since 1975 markedly higher proportions of the UN and World Bank budgets have been

allocated to programmes to integrate women. Since 1976-77, one of the criteria for approval of a project by the UN Development Committee has been its impact on women. However, it was only in 1979 in the text of the Lomé Convention that the ACP countries began to talk during their contacts with Europe of projects with social repercussions. This is clearly a commitment which must be more closely defined. Recruitment of women in the administrative grades shows that progress is being made slowly but that it has not yet gone beyond the initial phase. The situation is better as regards the NGOs which over the past few years have succeeded in involving women more in planning and administration in both the recipient and donor countries. However, the means available to women to influence the development of structures and institutions are undoubtedly limited, as there are still too few of them in administration to make their point of view heard. How then can this new trend be encouraged ? How can the apparent dichotomy between the promotion of women's rights and respect for national sovereignty be overcome ? It is interesting at this point to consider once again the replies to the questionnaires. The problems raised by the idea that there could be an agreement between the Community and ACP regarding the inclusion in the aid programmes of a clause on the integration of women or the introduction of premiums or other bonuses to promote this involvement may frighten some but please others. The arguments put forward by both sides highlight all the potential risks of such a policy, which could appear to be forcing the hand of national or local authorities. The latter point out that clauses of this kind could place women in an even more marginal situation as they would occupy a prominent position at the forefront of the programme; or that these provisions would increase bureaucracy by adding to the already excessively rigid administrative procedures; or that, where there is long-standing resistance and men refuse to allow women to participate, antagonism or, at best, inertia would create obstacles and give rise to difficulties when decisions were taken by women. The involvement of women should result quite naturally from information campaigns and campaigns to make people aware of women's problems.

In short, nothing will succeed if it is forced on people. This is very true, and the arguments put forward undoubtedly have some force. If a clause were imposed, the project would be doomed to failure. It is clear, as Ambassador Charles of Mauritius says in connection with cultural

cooperation, that the governments of the ACP countries must retain and fully exercise their sovereign rights and the Commission must be asked to ensure that all its representatives and experts have an in-depth knowledge of the traditional cultural values and an understanding of the government of rural societies.

Implicit in this is the desire for close cooperation between the EEC and ACP authorities so that each can respect and understand the background to the various specific projects. If the ACP countries are to find a balance between tradition and modernity, training and information activities must be launched in tandem in order to stimulate innovation, facilitate the development of indigenous technologies and the evaluation, choice and adaptation of technologies imported from the industrialized countries and their harmonious integration into the socio-cultural fabric of the ACP countries. This desire for regular and genuine contacts on all matters involving the partners in the development programmes is widely echoed by the women's services of certain Third World countries and in some NGOs actively involved in helping women in the Third World. There are calls for more discussions between developed and developing countries to ensure that women can once again become the focal point of the development process.

National sovereignty would actually be strengthened by ensuring that women's affairs were taken into account, provided the ACP countries could devise an alternative development model to that proposed by the European countries, which all too often have exported models without adapting them to the specific circumstances or traditions of each ACP country.

This dialogue has already been institutionalized in those bodies set up by the Lomé Convention and the measures taken by individual partners could be based on and justified to a large extent by international commitments entered into by each of them in the context of the two United Nations conferences on women (Mexico 1975 and Copenhagen 1980), both of which ratified world action programmes supported and approved by all the Member States. In particular, it was stated in the action programme for the second half of the decade 1975-1985 that efforts should be made to devise effective global policies to overcome obstacles and constraints hindering or preventing women from playing a full and proper role in the development process.

In 1976 the Member States decided to facilitate participation by women on an equal footing with men in development activities and to ensure that women had access to political parties, trade unions, training and decision-making on economic matters.

Each party therefore voluntarily and independently undertook to promote the objectives of the programme without there being any question of interference. Nowadays, both in the ACP countries and in Europe, there is a desire to make the activities undertaken in this field work. Governments are therefore no longer concerned so much with the justification for the integration of women as with the strategic question of how best to organize a dialogue.

As Mr PISANI stated with some conviction : 'It is absolutely essential that between rigid conditionality imposed by financing bodies and the irresponsibility of non-conditionality, ways be found of achieving a political dialogue between external providers of funds and local decision-makers and that such a dialogue should go beyond the process of mere haggling or simply discussing the technicalities of schemes requiring financing'.¹

Simultaneous analysis of the replies to the questionnaire and trends emerging in the Community institutions and the ACP, has shown that everyone is now trying to give practical expression to his political convictions. This report, which was requested by Parliament, will put forward proposals as to what form future action could take.

¹ PISANI memorandum, COM(82) 640 final of 30 September 1982

Chapter IV : Proposals

In theory, there are two fields of action : information and the achievement of objectives. In practice, however, these are not alternative strategies but initiatives which can and must be complementary.

This inquiry has shown that the gaps in information on the specific living conditions of women are still very large. It is absolutely essential to ensure that, from now on, statistical data is gathered, collated and circulated to all those interested in development problems. Ambassador Chasles, rapporteur for the working party of the Joint Committee of the ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly, stated in his motion for a resolution : 'The Joint Committee hopes that cultural cooperation between the ACP and the EEC will include cooperation in the field of information, which is an essential aspect of culture and development'.¹

There are various possibilities for specific action : actions in support of initiatives by third parties or financial aid operations.

Examples of this are the assistance given by trade unions to their counterparts in Third World countries to ensure that the Charter of Rights of Women at Work is respected, which could be a genuine demonstration of solidarity, or the financial assistance granted to NGOs which provide on-the-spot training for future women managers and which maintain contact with women's organizations in order to help the authorities responsible for making decisions better informed.

Another example is the loans granted to NGOs by a Ministry for Women's Rights. Terre des Hommes was able to set up a service for women in the Third World using such funds.

Supporting activities may take the form of pressure on the ministries responsible for foreign trade or overseas development in order to ensure that there is greater cooperation between the various bodies responsible for programmes and hence greater patronization of the activities of the NGOs, ministries, clubs, associations, women's organizations and voluntary bodies.

¹ Report by the working party of the Joint Committee of the ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly, CA/CP/301/B/fin. - 3 November 1982.

They could also encourage the Council and Commission to continue the measures they have taken over the past few months. In June 1982, the Council stated its willingness to examine the problems experienced by women in the developing countries and instructed the Commission to draw up a detailed report. The Commission launched a campaign to gather information by means of a questionnaire sent to all the Community delegates in the Third World.

Finally, Parliament must encourage the Commission to take a whole series of essential measures to give practical expression to its political desire to help women. The Commission could therefore :

- publicize in Europe and the Third World its commitment to promote the interests of women;
- make those members of its staff responsible for development aware of socio-cultural problems, particularly those experienced by women, notably by revising the manual for the preparation and processing of project dossiers to include a chapter on the effect of projects on the situation of women. In addition, joint research on the impact of development programmes, the physical environment and socio-cultural milieu of the beneficiary countries and joint research on the impact of local culture on certain development programmes could prove very useful¹;
- raise women's issues in ACP and EEC fora and show that, on the basis of its declaration of intent to help women, it could consider a policy of providing premiums or bonuses for the employment of a certain number of qualified women;
- encourage the Centre for Industrial Development to take account at all times of women's affairs in its industrial cooperation contracts. For example, it would be possible to include in the CID guidelines for its activities in the developing countries a checklist for those responsible for programmes to ensure that ex ante and ex post evaluation are carried out on the impact of projects on women;
- include a chapter on women in the negotiations for the third Lomé Convention.

¹ Report of the working party of the Joint Committee of the ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly, CA/CP/301/B/fin. - 3 November 1982.

Although these actions may be limited or incomplete, they would come at an opportune time when all decision-making bodies recognize the need to devote greater attention to the role of women both in Europe and in the Third World.

CONCLUSIONS

This report has attempted to show that action must be undertaken in parallel by the two partners. It is not only in the ACP States themselves that efforts must be made. As the replies of several NGOs - Oxfam (UK), (Denmark), VIWOS (Netherlands) - have shown, vigorous efforts must be made to get more women into decision-making positions. Women's organizations and NGOs involved in development work must be able to deal with women in the various national ministries and EEC services who are aware of the hitherto hidden pitfalls. This will require changes to the structures of countries giving and receiving aid. A central requirement of the efforts which must be made in the future is that both parties are willing to ensure that aid programmes reach women more effectively despite all the difficulties.

Every policy is the result of pressures which reflect the wishes or demands of particular sections of the population. It is high time that the donor and recipient countries agreed to listen to the views of women's organizations on the right of women to benefit from the distribution of resources and to make a more effective contribution to the development of their countries.

In short, Parliament could adopt the following guidelines for action :

- 1.- Public affirmation of its willingness to help improve the situation of women in the Third World;
- 2.- The nature of these improvements must be agreed jointly by donor and recipient countries acting together, hence the need for permanent discussion structures such as a special committee meeting within the framework of the joint ACP-EEC institutions;
- 3.- The Lomé III negotiations must take account of and encompass this aspect;
- 4.- Priority for specific projects aimed at women, including those in rural areas, namely mini-projects in the areas of hygiene, information, education, energy, water supply, and reduction of women's working time;
- 5.- These specific projects would primarily use technologies suited to the resources available locally;

- 6.- Each project would be discussed with the women concerned. Consultation cannot be forced upon them but must be achieved without offending local traditions;
- 7.- Other projects to be assisted : training for women, training for women managers and women's organizations, and organization of information campaigns;
- 8.- Overall increase in the funding and number of projects for women as a proportion of the total number of projects subsidized;
- 9.- Higher priority for those projects subsidized or financed by the EDF, EIB, or CID which positively benefit women;
- 10.- Need for a global study and the statistics necessary to identify accurately the needs of women in a given region;
- 11.- Preparation of a handbook (e.g., attached checklist) for each ministry to be used by project planners and organizers in the field. Ex ante and ex post assessment must contain references to the likely effects on the female population;
- 12.- Recommendations that the national ministries and the Commission should set up or expand specialized departments to deal with this aspect of development;
- 13.- Recommendation that special support be given to projects to assist black women in Southern Africa and refugee women in neighbouring countries.

REPORT ON WOMEN IN THE THIRD WORLD

Annexes :

- Some statistics on women in the Third World
- Some pitfalls to be avoided (Indian Research Group)
- Sample checklist

- Bibliography

SOME STATISTICS ON WOMEN IN THE THIRD WORLD

Percentage by age group	Asia			Latin America			Africa					
	0-14	15-49	50	0-14	15-49	50	0-14	15-49	50			
	38	50	13	40	47	13	44	46	4			
Average births per female	3.9			4.5			6.4					
Infant mortality per 1000 births	Sex M		Sex F		Sex M		Sex F		Sex M		Sex F	
	108		99		90		80		151		129	
Percentage of children at school	6-11 years		12-17 years		6-11 years		12-17 years		6-11 years		12-17 years	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	73	54	43	28	78	78	58	54	59	43	39	24
Percentage of the population living in urban areas	Sex M		Sex F		Sex M		Sex F		Sex M		Sex F	
	26		26		60		63		26		25	
Percentage of women in the workforce	34			23			32					
Percentage of women in rural areas	69			12			73					

SOME PITFALLS TO BE AVOIDED

drawn up by The Indian Cooperation Union
in 'Income-generating activities for women'

Dhawan, 1980

Avoid creating projects or working units which are not economically viable

Avoid marketing a product before carrying out research into outlets,
local requirements, existence of demand for some semi-finished product or
other

Avoid abrupt stoppage of funds

Do not use untrained or indifferent staff

Avoid employing only male workers

ANNEX III

Checklist for the directors of development programmes

'The planning of development for and with women is an important priority not only in order to improve the situation of women themselves but also to achieve the balanced development of their communities.'

Manual of Project Directors
Oxfam 1980

How can we prevent certain projects having an adverse impact on the situation of women ?

Advance planning

What socio-economic data is available ?

For example, what is the structure and size of families by sex and age :

- work
- land rights
- profits from the sale of craft products or food.

What sources of income do women have ?

What importance should be attributed to the seasonal nature of demand for labour ?

What basic requirements do women traditionally attend to ?

What arrangements are made to gather this data and any additional information ?

Do pre-investment studies take account of the direct or indirect contribution made by women to agricultural production and rural development ?

Are women a specific target ?

Are the poor in urban or rural areas targets, and is particular attention devoted to women within this group ?

Designing the project

What are the objectives of the project ?

Will women benefit through the acquisition of new knowledge or skills, increase in their agricultural output, opportunities for self-help, or reduction of their workload ?

How can women make a greater contribution ?

Evaluating the impact of the project

Did the project reach its target group ?

Were there any unexpected advantages or disadvantages ?

Did women benefit from the project ?

Was women's status as independent income earners changed following the loss of : land ?

paid employment ?

assistance provided by other members of the family ?

control of the sale of surplus products ?

Did the introduction of cash crops or mechnization affect :

- the availability of land for food crops ?
- women's access to arable land ?
- women's access to water ?
- women's working conditions ?
- the number of working hours spent by men and women on cultivating food crops ?

Did financial remuneration compensate for the loss in food production ?
Is it independent of fluctuations on the world market ?

Did the project bring about changes in the family diet ?

Did these changes affect women's workload ?

Do women have fresh scope for action ?

For example, do they benefit from :

- on-the-spot training grants to study abroad ?
- agricultural information and rural training services ?
- training in new techniques ?
- improvements in subsistence crops ?

Do they participate in :

- decision-making in the areas of agricultural production, administration of community affairs and project management ?
- new forms of credit ?
- cooperatives ?
- job prospects ?

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COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

Topic No. 13 of the

REPORT OF INQUIRY

ON

INFORMATION POLICY AND WOMEN

Rapporteur: Miss Gloria HOOPER

At its constituent meeting on 15 October 1981, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe adopted 18 topics of inquiry, including the subject of information policy and women, for which Miss Gloria HOOPER was appointed rapporteur.

The Committee of Inquiry considered the draft report at its meeting of 26 and 27 May 1983.

This report was unanimously adopted at the Committee's meeting of 21 and 22 June 1983.

The following took part in the vote:

Mrs VAYSSADE (acting Chairman), Miss HOOPER (rapporteur), Mrs LIZIN and Mrs SQUARCIALUPI (deputizing for Mrs LE ROUX).

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This study was carried out on the basis of a questionnaire (see PE 79.311 + Annexes) sent to the Council, the Commission, and the Governments of the Member States, as well as to broadcasting and press organisations and women's associations throughout the Community.

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I. Background to the present inquiry

- I.1 The resolution on the situation of women in the European Community adopted by the European Parliament on 11 February 1981¹ contained several references to information; as well as direct references to information policy per se and to the Commission's information services, the subjects covered ranged from "eliminating all forms of discrimination and oppression" to the specific areas of the European Social Fund, new technologies, vocational training, education, health, and provisions for migrant women. Information was thus seen to be of vital importance in women's awareness of their rights and how to exercise them.
- I.2 The EEC directives on equal pay² and on equal treatment³ both oblige Member States to take measures to bring the provisions of these directives to the attention of employees, thus underlining the essential role of information in the application of the principle of equal treatment of women and men.
- I.3 The Commission's "Action Programme on the Promotion of Equal Opportunities for Women"⁴ clearly states that
- "Information activity remains of key importance not only to ensure that women are aware of their rights and responsibilities as workers and parents, but also at a more general level, to enable a wider public particularly through the mass media, to accept women as equals in all areas of society and to understand the positive aspects of this development."
- The European Parliament has consistently called for adequate budgetary provisions in order to reinforce the personnel dealing with women's matters in the information services of the Commission. It is worthy of note that in the vote on the general budget of the European Communities for 1983, (first reading, Oct. 1982) the amendments tabled by the Committee of Inquiry on item 2720, concerning expenditure on information, were ADOPTED. The Parliament thus reiterated its demands for the allocation of funds for information activities. This item was adopted in the final reading of the budget in December 1982. However, it appears that this budgetary increase has, so far, led to no increase in staff.

¹ OJ C.50 of 9.3.1981
² OJ L.45 of 19.2.1975
³ OJ L.39 of 14.2.1976
⁴ Doc. 1-927/81

- 1.4 The Council, in its resolution¹ on this Action Programme "Confirms the need to take steps to increase public awareness and disseminate information to support the change in attitudes to sharing occupational, family and social responsibilities; Asks Member States to cooperate fully with the Commission in steps to increase public awareness."

Women and their Specific Information Requirements

- 1.5 Annex I contains statistics (from "Supplement No. 10 to WOMEN IN EUROPE") on the situation of the female population in the Community.
- 1.6 According to the 1977 figures, 52.2 per cent of women do not have a job and are not seeking employment; of these 56.7 per cent are at home. (These figures do not include Greece; in the course of the public hearing held in Athens in September 1982 by the Committee of Inquiry, it was pointed out that two-thirds of Greek women are housewives and it was suggested that this figure would not be substantially modified by the publishing of the data from the 1981 census).
- 1.7 Thus it is that the majority of women are homebound and cut off from the sources of information which are more easily available to women, at their place of employment, for example. Within this broad group, important differences exist between urban housewives and their rural counterparts. In both cases, a "vicious circle" with regard to information can be seen - those women who are well-informed have access to new information as it becomes available; women who are ill-informed of their rights and responsibilities are very often ignorant of the sources of such information - they do not know what information they require or where to seek it.
- 1.8 In order to inform women, the fullest possible use must be made of the specialised channels of communication represented by the network of women's papers and magazines, and those radio and television programmes which endeavour to supply the specific information required by women.
- 1.9 In this connection, the Commission, in its answer to the questionnaire² addressed to it concerning this inquiry, underlines the important role of women's associations and movements which provide an excellent channel for reaching a wider audience.

1.10 The Commission feels that "it has enabled women's associations to have more impact at national level and has made women aware of their rights, their membership of the Community and the need for solidarity". This latter point is a clear

statement of the responsibility of the women's organisations in the Member States to use all the means available to them to bring to the attention of their sister-citizens relevant information concerning their standing in their own countries and in relation to Community legislation.

I.11 To a large extent, the problem of public awareness of the Community and European issues and of public opinion in regard to these matters is linked to women's awareness of their own rights and responsibilities. There is a growing recognition of women as a social group having specific educational needs, and particular requirements in the field of employment; furthermore, they have demonstrated their ability to take effective action once they are informed. In this connection, it is interesting to note the positive results of the campaign aimed at women voters which preceded the 1979 European elections, and the Commission's assertion¹ of women's commitment to integration. It is important that a similar campaign precede the 1984 elections.

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¹ PE 80.877

II. Situation in the Member States

The Governments of all the Member States were questioned in connection with this inquiry (see Annex II, PE 79.311), but only a small number replied.

II.1 Official Government policy

II.1.1 The Member States have varying approaches to information policy for women. These range from the total absence of any specific policy geared to the particular needs of the female population, to situations where certain Government departments in some countries have special "women's committees" to handle information on legislation and other matters affecting women.

II.1.2 Certain countries have set up statutory bodies (e.g. the Equal Opportunities Commission in the United Kingdom) with a dual role - that of advising the Government on matters relating to equal treatment of women and men, and the related problems of sexual discrimination; and that of providing information and advice to the public on these matters.

II.1.3 It is of interest to note that this is the line which has been adopted by the new Greek Government - faced with the particular needs of Greek women, a counsellor for Women's Affairs attached directly to the Prime Minister's Office, and having inter-ministerial authority, has been appointed.

II.1.4 Similarly, some countries have set up state-funded bodies (e.g. Ireland's Employment Equality Agency, and Council for the Status of Women) whose activities are concentrated principally on the dissemination of information through publications, and the organisation of public meetings and seminars on legislative and policy developments of importance to women.

II.1.5 It is worthy of note that where information concerning their rights is made available to women, they are capable of taking effective action in defence of these rights. An excellent example is provided by the number of cases brought with success before the Court of Justice by British women (and, in some cases, men) thanks mainly to the action of the Equal Opportunities Commission in publicising EEC legislation on equality of the sexes and the rights of women.

II.2 Situation as perceived by women's organisations

II.2.1 As well as the replies from the Governments of the Member States, many submissions received by the Committee of Inquiry from women's organisations throughout the Community dealt with the importance of an information policy specially designed to cater for the particular needs of women.

II.2.2 It was said that in some countries Community legislation affecting the status of women is generally given much less coverage by the mass media than, for instance, Community agricultural and fisheries problems.

II.2.3 It was generally felt that information was essential in order to make women aware of their rights and how to exercise them; for example, information was one of the recurrent themes of the public hearing held in Athens in September last by the Committee of Inquiry. It was the general opinion of the women's organisations present on that occasion that all Greek women were not aware of their rights and were not active in women's movements. Information is essential if such women are to realise what choices and opportunities are available to them.

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III. Situation in the Institutions

I.1 Council of the European Communities

I.1.1 The COUNCIL has not answered the questionnaire sent to it.

I.1.2 It is possible to assume the Council's awareness of the importance of information by considering Article 7 of the equal pay directive ⁽¹⁾ and Article 8 of the equal treatment directive ⁽²⁾ which are identical and read:

"Member States shall take care that the provisions adopted pursuant to this Directive, together with the relevant provisions already in force, are brought to the attention of employees by all appropriate means, for example at their place of employment".

I.2 Commission of the European Communities

I.2.1 The European Parliament's resolution on information policy adopted on 16 January 1981 ⁽³⁾ comments on the Commission's efforts in informing women, and points out (in paragraph 12) "that 52% of the public opinion which the Commission is addressing is made up of women": this statistical importance of the female population must be borne in mind at all times.

I.2.2 The Committee of Inquiry has had extensive contacts with the COMMISSION; an answer (PE 80.877) to its questionnaire and a meeting with Commissioner NATALI on 19 October 1982 in Brussels.

(1) OJ L 45 of 19.2.1975

(2) OJ L 39 of 14.2.1976

(3) OJ C 28 of 9.2.1981

- I.2.3 The aim of the Commission's information policy is to inform as many people as possible of the Community's policy on equal opportunities, in order to apprise women of their rights and enable them to exercise them. The Commission also seeks to provide women with information on all the Community's policies to encourage women to participate in political and social life.
- I.2.4 This information is disseminated through
- specific publications (supplements to "Women in Europe")
 - regular information published by "Women in Europe"
 - meetings and seminars with women's associations in the individual countries
 - the Commission's unit responsible for providing information for women.
- I.2.5 The Commission underlines the importance of the role filled by women's associations and movements which provide an excellent channel for reaching a wider audience. The Commission's activities cannot reach more than a small proportion of the female public; the Commission therefore relies on those it does contact to disseminate the information more widely.
- II.2.6 The Commission points out that the specific information activities directed at women during the campaign for the 1979 European elections had a considerable measure of success. The Commission is aware that women constitute a majority of the electorate and are becoming more committed to integration, and is therefore wholeheartedly in favour of a specific information campaign to precede the 1984 direct elections. The Committee of Inquiry calls for the organisation of a "Women's campaign" to precede all future European elections.
- I.2.7 The Commission hopes to step up its activities in the next years by means of information activities within the framework of the action programme, provided, of course, the budgetary services and staff indicated in the financial statement for this programme are granted. There is a great deal of

work to be done in this field which involves more than information policy aimed specifically at women which should help to bring about a change in attitudes and behaviours.

II.2.8 At the meeting of the Committee of Inquiry on 19 October 1982, Commissioner NATALI stated that "the Commission's duty is to provide information, to mobilise public opinion: obviously our main concern on the eve of direct elections will be to engage in activity designed to make public opinion aware of the need to vote".

II.2.9 He went on to say that "the direct election of the European Parliament is an important part of the continuity of the Community", and continued "I am aware of the very important role to be played by women in making public opinion aware of the Community in general and of elections in particular. It is important to realise that a massive turnout of women in the European elections will be a confirmation of the contribution which women can make to Europe".

II.3 European Parliament

The European Parliament has 69 women Members, which represents a higher proportion than average female representation in the national parliaments of the Member States; of these 3 are Vice-Presidents of Parliament, and 10 are Chairmen of Parliamentary Committees and Inter-Parliamentary Delegations.

II.3.1 The European Parliament has no information policy on women's matters, and none directed particularly at women. Within the limits of the means available to it, the Parliament's Directorate-General for Information and Public Relations, in collaboration with the Commission's information services, organised extensive coverage in the specialised media and by the women's press of the two major debates on women (in February 1981 and May 1982).

III.3.2 The European Parliament has, of course, recognised the importance of women's matters, first by the creation of the ad hoc Committee on Women's Rights whose work culminated in a major debate on the situation of women in the European

Community and the adoption of the resolution of 11 February 1981¹, and more recently by the setting up of the Committee of Inquiry into the situation of women in Europe, with responsibility for monitoring and accelerating the implementation of that resolution. The association of women's movements in the Member States with the work of both these committees, the presence of representatives from these movements and from the women's press at the major debates of the Parliament concerning women (February 1981, May 1982), and the widespread distribution of the brochure containing the resolution of 11 February 1981 and the transcript of the debate on the Maij-Weggen report have all contributed towards a greater awareness on the part of European women of the work of the European Parliament on matters affecting their living and working conditions. The European Parliament's Directorate-General for Research and Documentation prepares an annual report on developments in the European Community. This report has, for the past two years, included a section on women. The Committee of Inquiry welcomes this initiative and hopes it will be developed in the future.

.3.3 Quite apart from the information and public relations services, the Members of the European Parliament themselves represent a de facto team of 434 ambassadors to the regions of Europe; they in turn have access to local and regional press, radio and television services, which all have a great potential for informing the local population, of whom the majority are women.

This potential should ideally be exploited at all times, and even more so in the electoral campaign which will shortly be beginning. The Parliament's Directorate-General for Information and Public Relations recently carried out, in conjunction with "Eurobaromètre", an opinion poll among Community electors, with a view to providing information for the strategy to be pursued for the 1984 election campaign. The results of this poll are expected at the end of June; the Committee of Inquiry hopes that account will be taken of women's attitudes, as revealed by this poll, in the specific campaign before the 1984 direct elections. (A major opinion poll concerning the attitudes of men and women throughout the Community to women in employment, politics, ..the sharing of family responsibilities, the role of women in the present crisis, etc. has just been carried out by the Commission. The results, expected in the early autumn of this year, and a comparison with similar polls in 1975 and 1978, should prove extremely valuable in assessing the impact of information policies and in showing guidelines for information policy in the future).

¹ OJ No. C 50 of 9.3.1981

III.3.4 In its resolution on information policy of 16 January 1981,¹ the Parliament called for close collaboration between the external offices of the Parliament and Commission. The Committee of Inquiry constantly underlines the necessity to have in each national information office one official who is responsible for information on women's matters and for dealing with the specialised channels of communication represented by the women's media and organisations. Such a specifically accredited official could obviously fulfil a most worthwhile role in the context of this type of collaboration between the external information services of both institutions.

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III.4 European Court of Justice

III.4.1 The rulings of the Luxembourg-based European Court of Justice on the implementation of Community legislation have great significance for the status of women in respect of the principle of equal treatment. Information and publicity on their activities are obviously valuable; however, no specific mechanism exists within the Court's services to deal with these aspects, and there are no women judges.² One of the five Advocates General who advise the Court is a woman.

III.4.2 The information services of the Commission should maintain close contacts with the European Court of Justice with a view to publicising, particularly through the

¹ OJ C 28 of 9.2.1981

² For information on women employed in the Court of Justice, see Mrs. LENZ's report for this committee on "Women in the Institutions" (PE 81.947/Annex III)

specialised media and women's organisations, those rulings with a particular bearing on the status of women. The official journals in which these rulings are published do not reach the general public; rulings of particular interest to women could be extracted and presented in a more "attractive" manner.

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V. Treatment of women and women's questions in the media

Women's organisations in the Member States were asked to submit evidence on this subject in connection with this inquiry (see PE 79.311 and annexes). The following selected quotations¹ are representative of the general feeling concerning the way in which press, radio, television and advertisers portray women.

V.1 Media in general

- V.1.1 "The treatment of women and women's questions in the media is frequently trivialised or exploited for sensationalism, and serious subjects are often reported in a way that muddles fact with stereo-types and stereo-typed thinking".
- V.1.2 "In both the general and advertising media, images of women fall into two categories - (a) women as sex object, and (b) woman as housewife/wife/mother. In both categories, it is interesting to note that women are not viewed as individuals in their own right, but within the context of their relationships with men".
- V.1.3 "Since the media are both the cause and the effect of attitudes and behaviour in society, their portrayals define the roles in which women may succeed, and interpret the way in which they will be viewed by society."

¹ See Annex II for list of sources quoted.

.1.4 "Women will never achieve their full status as persons while they are continually trivialised and exploited in the media. The downgrading of women in the media is an effective way of maintaining the status quo and of maintaining women in their inferior position in society. Such portrayals of women are seriously damaging to relations between men and women, to the detriment of both sexes."

"The continuing emphasis in the media on women as sexual commodities will also have a limiting effect on the aspirations of the next generation of women, since they will not have adequate models of womanhood with which to identify."

1.5 "The persistent portrayal of women as sexual commodities in the media is a most insidious form of control, since it claims the right to interpret the way in which women will be viewed by society at large. Until such distortions about women's nature and women's lives are removed, women have a long road ahead in the fight to achieve equal status."

1.6 One organisation which had been created with the specific aim of eliminating degrading treatment of women in the media complained that "there is great reluctance on the part of the media to give publicity to opinions or viewpoints which do not reflect the media's own interests. Although this movement has been in existence for over a year, we have received very little publicity, despite having spoken publicly at meetings covered by the press. We have also asked newspapers, magazines and our national television and radio station for the opportunity to express our viewpoint, without success."

2 Press

2.1 "It appears to be editorial policy in some newspapers to ignore the female half of the population, and to gear the content of the newspaper to an exclusively male readership."

2.2 One submission suggested that newspapers could be divided into two categories: "pops" and "heavies". The former "try to sensationalise so that rape cases, abortion and divorce receive pretty lurid coverage."

The "heavies" are more likely to carry political stories of interest to women and try to do so in an unbiased way.

- 3 Some women's movements felt that the traditional "woman's page" still concentrated on such subjects as fashion, make-up and cookery. Another contribution suggested that "some of the most influential and mass-market magazines are carrying stories which go well beyond the three Rs of royalty, romance and recipes. They can also produce a response from their readers which carries a lot of political weight". It was generally felt that the notion of a "woman's page" was not necessarily positive.

Radio

- 1 The importance of this medium was underlined particularly since for much of the broadcasting day, women make up the major element of the radio audience.
- 2 Many radio programmes take this into account by selecting subjects of special interest to women. As well as such traditional subjects as childcare, cookery and women's health questions, these programmes in many cases provide an ideal forum for discussion of matters affecting equal opportunities for women, legal and financial matters affecting women, and could be used to highlight cases of discrimination.
- .3 Many women, either through choice or necessity, are working full-time in the home. By virtue of their lifestyle, these women share particular programme needs. Broadcasting has an immense contribution to make to these women in terms of providing information and support, and further efforts could be made to give greater attention to the programming needs of this section of the audience.

IV. 4 Television

- IV. 4.1 Broadcasting in general, but television more particularly because of the impact of the visual medium, has a powerful influence on public opinion and private attitudes. While it ought to reflect the reality of things as they are - as they really are! - television should also respond to commonly accepted aspirations for change.
- IV. 4.2 Television programmes still too often depict women in a stereotyped manner and in traditional secondary roles. Broadcasting is likely to have a considerable influence on the development of children's views of the world and on their perceptions of themselves and of others. The representation of women and men in a realistic and non-stereotyped way is therefore very important.
- IV. 4.3 In televised interviews, the predominance of male participants - especially those presented as expert commentators - is likely to have a negative social influence. It is true that men are in the majority in the areas from which programmers are likely to select expert contributors. It is also true that this position has changed and that there is hardly any area of expertise where articulate and well qualified women contributors cannot be found.
- IV. 4.4 While women make up large parts of sectional interest groups catered for by specialist programme areas such as agriculture, sport, religion, industrial and economic affairs, broadcast output does not in general give adequate recognition to the changing roles and increasing activity of women in these areas.
- IV. 4.5 The most notable, and noteworthy, exception has been the appointment in recent years and in many broadcasting networks of women newsreaders. Contrary to previously held views, current events have not become less credible through presentation by women! In France, for example, punters place their racing

bets on a woman's advice, and some television networks have female experts on subjects as diverse as medical research, parliamentary debate, criminal courts, etc. This trend is obviously a positive one and should continue in the future.

- 4.6 One submission received by the Committee on Inquiry suggests that although women appear more frequently on our screens, they are still presented as necessarily attractive, e.g. "There are small, but momentous, changes such as a higher proportion of women being depicted as working wives and mothers. The old business of women being attractive, well groomed, well dressed, etc, still holds true even though they are surrounded by scruffy, ugly fat men. The female newsreaders are a case in point. Without exception, they are attractive and, while no one questions their professionalism, they are regarded as a "new category of glamour queens". Meanwhile, much of TV remains as it was, depicting stereotypes of both sexes."

5 Advertising

- 5.1 It is virtually self-evident that advertising has a considerable impact upon the audience. The mass media are an important source of people's conceptions of society and it appears certain that the way in which people are depicted in advertising helps to influence the way they perceive themselves and are perceived by others.
- 5.2 In advertising in general
- Women in domestic situations are regularly represented as feather-brained incompetents, depending on male 'experts' to advise them which brand is best, or how some machine or other can make housework easier.
 - Women in employment situations are used mainly to sell personal products represented as making them more attractive to male executive-type figures, thus implying that women go to work only to catch a man.

- Women in employment situations are usually shown in subordinate, secretary-type roles; authority figures are almost invariably men.
- Older women are rarely portrayed. The typical woman is younger than the typical male represented in advertisements.

IV. 5.3 In radio advertising, as in television, most of the voice-overs, intended as authoritative, are read by men. It is interesting to note that, increasingly, expressions of dissatisfaction concerning the portrayal of women in advertising seem to be directed at radio advertising, which may be related to the fact that women represent the majority of the radio audience for substantial periods of the day.

IV. 5.4 A high proportion of TV advertising in particular presents women as sex objects, whose main function is male gratification. Sexual innuendo is used to sell anything from chocolate bars to cars. Apart from being offensive, this emphasis may be a factor in reinforcing potentially harmful sexual attitudes among a minority of men.

IV. 5.5 In general, women in advertisements do not speak to their bank managers or arrange a loan, they rarely have cheque books or cheque cards. They do not own or buy houses, or have a mortgage or insurance policy. They do not make decisions about money independently of their husbands. Women are not bosses, do not run or own firms. They are not shown in supervisory capacities, and when they appear with men are always in subordinate positions. They mostly appear in traditional roles.

Women's work in the home is also down-graded through typical use of male experts to advise the housewife on what she needs, and how to use it.

- 5.6 One group submitted its suggestions which were geared
 (1) to eliminate the portrayal of women as sex objects
 in the advertising media, (2) to ensure that the realities
 of women's lives are adequately, fairly and truthfully
 represented, (3) to ensure the portrayal of women as active
 participants in the decision-making processes of society,
 and (4) to prevent the perpetuation of sexist attitudes,
 which discriminate against women.
- 5.7 Many submissions received deplored the use of "titillating"
 photographs of nude or scantily-clad female bodies in
 gratuitous newspaper displays, or in advertising where the
 sexual element thus introduced was totally foreign to the
 product being advertised. One submission even went so far
 as to state: "We believe that there is a direct correlation
 between the availability of pornography, the use of women
 as sexual commodities, and the increase in violence directed
 against women in our society today. Such stereotypes reinforce
 existing prejudices against women, and have a detrimental
 effect on the developing attitudes of young people."
- 5.8 A proposal for a directive on misleading advertising has been before the
 Council since 1979. The existence of a Community instrument by which action
 could be taken regarding violation of the notion of cultural parity between
 men and women would go a long way towards helping women to combat degrading
 stereo-typing in advertising. The Committee of Inquiry can only deplore the
 Council's delay in adopting this directive, and calls for prompt action in
 this matter.
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1. Employment situation of women in the media
1. 1. Statistics made available to the Committee of Inquiry would seem to indicate
 that the female workforce in the various media is broadly parallel to the
 general proportion of the female population in employment in the various
 countries.
1. 2. However, it was apparent that in all media and in all countries, the numbers
 of women were highest in the lower-income categories (clerical/secretarial),
 few women were represented at higher management levels, and women were

conspicuously absent from such traditionally male jobs as engineering, the technical field and camera-operators (in television for example).

3. The recent increasing use of female newsreaders by television networks is one area where women are becoming more "visible" in the media, where they can project a positive image of female professionalism and achievement. The growing number of women in production and research teams in certain countries is a positive trend which should develop in the future.

The BBC, in its answer to the Committee of Inquiry, mentions that "there has been a considerable increase in the number and proportion of women appearing on the screen or speaking at the microphone and, incidentally, some of the new recruits in this field are members of ethnic minorities. Women on the screen or behind the microphone may form only a small part of the BBC's staff, but they are the people perceived by the public as being the BBC, so this change, although it may affect a relatively small number of persons, has a tremendous psychological significance both for the BBC's audience and its staff as a whole."

4. Journalism was another area mentioned as reflecting the general pattern of female employment - "a few at the top, but many at lower levels. It is hoped that sheer weight of numbers at these levels will lead to an increased number of senior women, sooner rather than later".

5. Social aspects

- 5.1 Careers in the media were felt to be highly competitive, often to the detriment of family life. It was claimed that in one broadcasting company "none of the most senior women - and there is a good number of them - has children, with only one exception".

- 5.2 In this connection, the following extracts from the submission received from the BBC give food for thought:

"The BBC has made a start on establishing a job sharing scheme. This enables two people, usually mothers with small children,

to work part time and to do one job jointly, so as to leave them sufficient time to look after their families."

"Former members of BBC staff who have resigned over the past years in order to look after their children or elderly relatives have been given the same opportunities of applying for staff vacancies in the BBC as members of staff in actual employment. This means that women who for family reasons have interrupted their careers are given an opportunity of returning to their former profession once their family conditions allow it."

VI. 1 CONCLUSIONS

- VI.1.1 Women constitute the majority of the population and electorate of the European Community.
- VI.1.2 The specific needs of women with regard to information are obvious given the traditional and, in many cases still prevalent, isolation of many women from the mainstream of current events.
- VI.1.3 Information for women must be a top priority; legislation and good intentions are not enough. Effective implementation of statutory rights requires the cooperation and participation of the people they are intended to help.
- VI.1.4 The campaign for women which preceded the 1979 Direct Elections demonstrated the positive results which can be obtained, and should be repeated for the 1984 elections, with particular use of the specialised channels of communication represented by the media and women's organisations.

VI. 2 RECOMMENDATIONS

Information services

- VI.2.1 The staff complement in DG X at the Commission must be increased and the Committee of Inquiry insists that the proposal to double the numbers, as outlined in the new community action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women, be a minimum requirement. The European Parliament has repeatedly called for the recognition, as a separate entity within DG X, of the service responsible for information for women (see the resolution on information policy adopted on 16.1.1981, OJ C 28 of 9.2.1981). At present this unit is swamped in a Priority Groups Division ("Milieux Prioritaires") which covers young people, farmers, consumers, ecologists, universities and women. Last October, Mr NATALI hinted at a possible re-examination of this situation. Indeed, the recognition of, at least, a specialised service would demonstrate the genuine will of the European Community to give real priority to information policy for women.
- VI.2.2 Both the Commission's and Parliament's national information offices should ensure that there is at least one official whose responsibilities specifically include a back-up in coordinating information for women and on women's matters, in order to take full advantage of national networks of women's newspapers, magazines, radio and television programmes and women's organisations. The specificity of information for women is recognised by

the Commission; the creation of parallel services within the European Parliament's Directorate-General for Information and Public Relations would facilitate genuine cooperation between the institutions in this area. Such a specific service should naturally be endowed with adequate personnel and finances to enable it to fulfil its role in informing women of the European Parliament's action concerning women.

European Parliament

- 3 The committees of the Parliament should take account of the effect on women of the Community's policies, and ensure that their recommendations are designed to safeguard the principles of equal treatment for women and men in all areas of application of Community legislation.
- 4 Permanent and regular contact should be maintained between Members of the European Parliament and the Commission's new Advisory Committee on equal opportunities for men and women.

The media

- 5 The active promotion of women's rights should involve more use of specialised radio and television channels at local, national and international levels. To this end, the Committee of Inquiry strongly urges the Governments of the Member States to press their national media to take account of the integration of European women at all levels of social and professional life.

Women's organisations

- 6 Given the importance of women's movements as a specialised channel of communication to a wider audience, contact with voluntary women's organisations at all levels and particularly in remote areas and in city community groups should be intensified, by all the Community institutions.

1984 Elections

- .7 Given the positive results of the specific information campaign for women which preceded the first European elections in 1979, a similar campaign should be initiated immediately, in relation to the direct elections to the European Parliament to be held in June 1984.

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- .8 Information concerning the rights of women and equal opportunities should avoid jargon and be presented in such a way that it is understandable and attractive to women.

Articles for inclusion in the motion for a resolution to be submitted to the European Parliament on completion of the work of the Committee of Inquiry

- recalls that women, who form a majority of the European population and electorate, and who represent the rising class which, in the last decade, has brought about the most important changes in society, have particular needs with regard to information policy and have demonstrated their capacity to take effective action on their own behalf when in possession of information concerning their rights and responsibilities; and recalls also the positive results of the specific campaign before the 1979 direct elections, which augur well for the similar campaign which should precede the 1984 elections;
- reiterates its demands for adequate budgetary provision in order to re-inforce the service dealing with women's matters, and considers that this service should be established as a separate unit within the Commission's information services; reiterates its demand¹ that an official in each one of the Commission's external offices be specifically responsible for coordinating information for women and on women's matters;
- calls on the Council, and through it on the Governments of the Member States to take account of the conclusions and recommendations of the Committee of Inquiry concerning information policy and women, and consequently to require radio, television, and press organisations at European national and regional levels to take account of the integration of European women at all levels of social and professional life and thus endeavour in their portrayal of women and of the issues affecting them to reflect the realities of the situation of women in Europe accurately;
- asks the Council to re-examine and to adopt, as soon as possible, the directive on misleading and unfair advertising which often gives negative information on women;
- asks the Commission to determine, by means of colloquies, conferences, studies and pilot-projects, the most appropriate means of informing women of legislative initiatives by the European Community and the Member States which affect them;
- recalls the important role which can be played by individual Members of the European Parliament in disseminating, at local and regional levels, information on the work of the Parliament and the positive achievements of the Community, among which efforts towards equal treatment of women and men rank high.

¹Resolution on information policy, OJ C.28 of 9.2.1981

POPULATION OF EUROPEAN COMMUNITY BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS -
1977

Out of 100 unemployed persons, 45.5 are women, the highest level being in Belgium and the lowest in Ireland. (1)

Belgium	64.2
Denmark	51.5
France	54.7
Germany	47.8
Ireland	20.8
Italy	47.0
Luxembourg	50.0
Netherlands	25.8
United Kingdom	36.2

Out of 100 non-working persons, 70 are women (74 in Ireland, with the lowest proportion in Denmark at 66.6).

Out of 100 persons with a principal job, 35.3 are women. The highest percentage of women with a principal job by comparison with the total population in employment or available for employment is in Denmark with 39.5%, the lowest in the Netherlands with 25.3%.

Belgium	31.5%
Denmark	39.0%
France	38.5%
Ireland	26.3%
Italy	28.8%
Luxembourg	29.0%
Netherlands	25.3%
United Kingdom	38.7%

FEMALE POPULATION - BREAKDOWN BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS - 1977

27.0% of women are employed
1.5% of women are unemployed
52.2% of women do not have a job
19.2% are aged under 14

The highest percentage of women who do not have a job and are not seeking employment is in the Netherlands, the lowest in Denmark.

Belgium	55.8%
Denmark	42.6%
France	47.2%
Germany	53.9%
Ireland	52.9%
Italy	59.4%
Luxembourg	60.7%
Netherlands	61.2%
United Kingdom	45.9%

(1) See page iv.

Denmark has the highest percentage of unemployed women by comparison with the total female population, at 3.4%.

Belgium	2.6
Denmark	3.4
France	2.0
Germany	1.1
Ireland	1.4
Italy	1.4
Netherlands	0.6
United Kingdom	1.5

WOMEN NOT ON THE LABOUR MARKET (1)

Out of 100 women who are not in employment or seeking employment:

14.6 are at school or in higher education
56.7 are at home
24.8 are retired

WOMEN ON THE LABOUR MARKET BY COMPARISON WITH TOTAL FEMALE POPULATION - BREAKDOWN BY AGE GROUP AND COUNTRY - 1977

1. In the 25-34 age group:

Belgium	61.9
Denmark	74.1
France	63.2
Germany	54.4
Ireland	33.0
Italy	39.4
Luxembourg	41.4
Netherlands	29.6
United Kingdom	52.1
Average for Europe of 9	51.5

In the 25-34 age bracket, it is Dutch, Irish and Italian women who are least likely to be employed outside the home. In general the proportion is higher than in the younger age bracket of 14-21.

2. In the 35-44 age group:

Belgium	43.2
Denmark	69.1
France	56.1
Germany	48.7
Ireland	19.5
Italy	32.6
Luxembourg	29.1
Netherlands	23.3
United Kingdom	65.1
Average for Europe of 9	43.8

(1) There are no statistics on the work done by homebound women and there has been no attempt to carry out systematic surveys on this subject.

The rate is lower than in the 25-34 age group except in the United Kingdom, where it rises considerably (+13.7). The women least likely to be in employment are from Ireland, Luxembourg and Italy.

3. In the 45-54 age group:

Belgium	30.9
Denmark	59.1
France	53.1
Germany	46.4
Ireland	22.1
Italy	27.5
Luxembourg	23.1
Netherlands	20.5
United Kingdom	65.3
Average for Europe of 9	45.4

The same general pattern is found in this age group as in the 35-44 age bracket in the United Kingdom, and to a lesser extent in Ireland.

4. In the 55-64 age group:

Belgium	13.3
France	36.8
Germany	10.6
Ireland	18.5
Italy	13.8
Luxembourg	17.0
Netherlands	10.6
United Kingdom	42.2
Average for Europe of 9	28.6

5. In 1975, the average proportion of women on the job market by comparison with the total female population was lower than in 1977:

in the 25-34 age group it was 48.5;
in the 35-44 age group it was 45.7;
in the 45-54 age group it was 45.1;
in the 55-64 age group it was 26.9.

MARRIED WOMEN IN EMPLOYMENT - 1977

1. Out of 100 married women:

35.4 have a job;
1.4 are unemployed;
63.2 are not employed and not seeking employment.

In the 25-44 age group, 55.6% of women have a job. There has been a change in the pattern since 1975 in that the number of working and unemployed women has been rising and the number in the third group falling.

2. Percentage of married women on the labour market by comparison with total female population:

The highest rate is in Denmark, the lowest in Ireland.

Belgium	30.0
Denmark	48.8
France	42.4
Germany	35.6
Ireland	13.6
Italy	23.3
Luxembourg	21.1
Netherlands	17.6
United Kingdom	46.5

List of sources of quotations used in Chapter IV: "Treatment of Women and Women's questions in the media".

The quotations were taken from submissions received from the following organisations¹:

"Women in Management" (U.K.)

Council for the Status of Women (IRL)

C.A.S.E. (Campaign Against Sexual Exploitation) (IRL)

European Union of Women (British section)

Working Party on Women in Broadcasting (IRL)

¹

For a list of all organisations contacted in connection with this inquiry, see PE 79.311/Annex 3

European Communities

EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

Working Documents

1983 - 1984

15 April 1983

DOCUMENT 1-198/83

MOTION FOR A RESOLUTION

tabled by Mrs CINCIARI RODANO, BADUEL GLORIOSO,
Mrs GAIOTTI DE BIASE, Mrs SQUARCIALUPI, Mrs CARETONI
ROMAGNOLI, Mrs VAYSSADE, Mrs Simone MARTIN,
Mrs PANTAZI, Mrs FUILLET, Mrs LIZIN and Mrs WIECZOREK-
ZEUL

pursuant to Rule 47 of the Rules of Procedure

on the new role of women in society

The European Parliament,

- A. having regard to the wide support for and significance assumed by Women's Day on 8 March in many European countries,
- B. having regard to the importance which the issues of the emancipation and liberation of women have taken on in the last few years in national and Community politics,
- C. having regard to the growing number of women and women's movements in social and political life,
- D. having regard to the measures taken by the Commission of the European Communities in favour of equal rights for women,
- E. having regard to the new, more considered way, in which the European Parliament deals with issues relating to women,
- F. having regard to the fact that 8 March 1984 coincides with the elections to the new European Parliament,

Calls upon the Commission of the European Communities to prepare a publicity and information programme on what the Community, through its various institutions, the Commission, Council, Parliament and Court of Justice, has planned, discussed and decided in the last few years in support of a new role for women in society.

COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

TOPIC No. 14

OF THE

REPORT OF INQUIRY

Maternity, parental leave and
pre-school facilities

Rapporteur: Mrs LE ROUX

5 July 1983

At its constituent meeting on 15 October 1981, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe adopted 18 topics of inquiry, including the subject of maternity, parental leave and pre-school facilities, for which Mrs Sylvie LE ROUX was appointed rapporteur.

The Committee of Inquiry considered the draft report at its meeting of 14 and 15 March 1983.

The report was unanimously adopted at the committee's meeting of 21 and 22 June 1983.

The following Members took part in the vote:

Mrs Vayssade, acting chairman; Mrs Lenz, vice-chairman; Mrs Le Roux, rapporteur; Mr Purvis (deputizing for Miss Hooper); Mr Cousté (deputizing for Miss De Valera).

Paragraphs to be included in the final motion for a resolution by the
Committee of Inquiry

- notes the weakness of legislative and structural provisions;
- notes the relationship between women's social situation (income - socio-professional category - working conditions - place of residence) and their childbearing history (premature birth - mortality);
- . recommends the introduction in the laws protecting expectant mothers of provisions imposing greater obligations on employers (transfer - dismissal - appointment/re-engagement);
- . recommends action to develop facilities for medical supervision and care;
- . recommends action to develop pre-school facilities;
- . recommends the removal of discrimination as between men and women in provisions governing parental leave.

INTRODUCTION

Maternity is the very symbol of femininity. It is the most irrepressible characteristic of womanhood. For the couple and for the family it generally constitutes a summit of individual human experience. Although the population levels of the developed countries are creating new problems, the eminently social value of motherhood for the community has not yet been fully recognized. Present-day levels of wealth, knowledge and technology have considerably reduced perinatal female and infant mortality, a risk to which the women of the Third World are still exposed.

This progress indicates that it is possible to eradicate virtually completely the risks of birth-related death or handicap in our societies and that the European countries have a responsibility to do so. This, indeed, is the first social duty to Europe's women: the duty to safeguard their right to live, for which a great deal still remains to be done.

But the States' responsibility does not stop there, for societies today are changing, with new needs emerging in every field (morals, technology) and, in the case of women, the need both to have children and to work.

It is only too obvious that the European states are not at all eager to adopt the concomitant social measures at the rate required. The claim to be treated on an equal footing with men in legislation, work, pay, the sharing of tasks, education, access to posts of responsibility, etc. is the crux of the women's liberation movement.

In terms of actual experience, maternity is a special time in a woman's private life and at the same time one which exposes her to social and professional discrimination. Only too often the birth of a child causes her to break off work for anything from a few months to a matter of years, the family income drops, she loses her financial independence and falls behind in her career, and promotion stops.

With the birth of a child the mother's sex exposes her to the full force of society's discrimination against women, her handicaps ranging from temporary or permanent cessation of work to the impossibility of engaging in social and professional life on equal terms with men.

The object of this report is therefore to look at motherhood in terms of present-day experience, examining the health aspects and social benefits, and in consequence the family and the biological role of the woman, as well as her social, professional and other roles.

What improvements should be made by the Member States of the Community in regard to the medical and legislative conditions and the social facilities provided for women during pregnancy and before the children go to school? In attempting to answer this question the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in the Community hopes to contribute to the further elaboration and implementation of the resolution drawn up by Mrs Maij-Weggen and adopted by Parliament in 1981.

I. ACTION TAKEN ON THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT'S RESOLUTION

In paragraph 37 of its resolution adopted on 11 February 1981, Parliament

- '-notes that, owing to their role as mothers, women are confronted with specific problems for which training in matters of health, preventive measures, aid and research are necessary;
- considers that motherhood by choice is one of the most important features of the new role of women, but takes the view that considering the present scientific understanding of birth control and of the risks involved with the most commonly used contraceptive techniques on the one hand and economic, cultural and psychological factors on the other such a choice is far from fully guaranteed;
- requests the Commission to initiate an interdisciplinary research programme with the following goals:
 - coordination and encouragement of research currently in progress to extend knowledge of conception and contraceptive methods for men and women (with particular reference to natural methods), their effectiveness and the physiological and psychological side-effects of methods currently practised;
 - coordination and encouragement of experiments and surveys concerning the present and the prospective situation as regards sex education for young people and adults and advice on marital and family matters;
- calls upon the Commission to exclude discriminatory provisions against women from Directives on health protection at the work place, thus ensuring equal protection for male and female workers'.

The Commission has not yet carried out Parliament's wishes; it is only preparing to launch a programme of research into the problems of maternity.

As regards parental leave it is at present drawing up a proposal for a directive.

II. HEALTH PROBLEMS RELATING TO MATERNITY

The period before and after childbirth is one in which the boundaries between health and illness become more fragile. Comparative studies of perinatal health in different industrialized countries reveal that a great deal remains to be done before the optimal situation is achieved in all the Member States of the Community.

The fundamental health problem during pregnancy is still, for too many women, infantile and maternal mortality and, even more often, premature birth giving rise to psychomotor handicaps.

A policy specifically aimed at tackling this problem would make it possible within a decade to achieve very positive results, as can be observed in certain countries outside the Community. That would mark a significant step forward, in both human and socio-economic terms.

Two examples will show the scope for improvements: in France, where the perinatal health situation is not particularly bad, and in Finland, where it is excellent and can serve as a model for the Community.

In Finland in 1979 the maternal death rate was 0.13%, whereas in France it was 0.35%.

The perinatal death rate for the same period was 9% in Finland and 13% in France.

We would point out that Finland seems to occupy the first place in this regard among all the countries in the world and that its lead over the European states is the result of determined action in this field during the past 10 years.

(1) The risk factors

These are now well known, with the result that it is possible to take precise preventive measures and make specific proposals. The concept which prevails today is that of socio-biological risk.

(a) The purely medical risks: pathological state of the mother, diabetes, hypertension, kidney disease, a history of premature birth or miscarriage, inherited pathology, etc.

(b) The socio-professional risks: the average rate for premature births is 6%. Contrary to what one might expect, it seems that it is not necessarily the working woman who is most liable to give birth prematurely. According to studies by INSERM, the rate is 4.4% for working women and between 7 and 8% for housewives. However, it should be observed that this finding is still controversial. the explanation seems to lie in the fact of better medical supervision for working women: only 33% of housewives have seen a doctor more than 4 times as compared with 56% of women with jobs. Representative statistics, applicable to France, are provided by the study by Doctor Mamelle of INSERM on professional activity and pregnancy. However, this preliminary observation calls for a more differentiated account of the risks associated with different categories of work: not all employed women are subject to the same risks. The 'high-risk' professional groups among whom the rate for premature births is 15% or more are

- those whose working week is more than 42 hours;
- those whose working week is between 37 and 42 hours in work of a repetitive nature requiring little concentration;
- those who, for a similar working week, work at a machine or have to make a physical effort (awkward positions, carrying heavy burdens, standing for long hours);
- those exposed to toxic products;
- those in a trying physical environment: noise, low or high temperature, humidity or dryness;
- those making long journeys to work.

The combination of any two of these factors immediately raises the risk of premature birth from 2.5 (which seems to be the irreducible minimum at present) to 8%, which is the average level, and even 15% for the women who are most at risk).

In the former case the women concerned are generally office workers, forewomen, skilled workers, teachers, executives (a 4% premature birth rate), and in the latter case they are: commercial employees, service personnel, semi-skilled workers, social and medical personnel, agricultural workers and traders.

To understand the risk to which a working woman is particularly subject it is necessary to consider what might be a source of fatigue (in the family, at work or elsewhere) throughout her day and what evidence there is of a combination of risk factors.

Other facts to note when assessing the extent of the measures needed for working women are the following:

- one woman out of two carries on working during her pregnancy;
- 72% of women between the ages of 20 and 29 are gainfully employed and 67% of those between the ages of 25 and 29 (the 25-29 age group is also the most productive in regard to childbirth.)

In 10 years the proportion of women in this age group in paid employment has increased by 12%.

(c) The socio-cultural risks

The expectant mother is a priori exposed to a risk which increases two-, three- or four-fold depending on her position in the socio-cultural hierarchy:

- immigrants: twice as much at risk as the average;
- housewives: twice as much at risk as those in paid employment and there is a direct link here with the husband's profession;
- the least skilled workers, as we have seen above;
- women in rural areas, 60% of whom are farmers, farm workers or other workers, for all of whom long working hours combine with poor earnings, the absence or inaccessibility of medical services, a lack of information and a low cultural level. In France the maternal death rate in 1978 was 20.2 per 100,000 births in urban areas and 24.1 per 100,000 in rural areas. Within this category, women living in mountain or hill areas and those in frontier regions are at the greatest disadvantage.

The socio-cultural factor is all the more significant since it implies in itself a combination of risks: lack of information and prenatal care, multiple and frequent pregnancies, pregnancy at an early age or late in life (lack of contraception), poor income and excessive fatigue due to factors at work or home, lack of holidays, etc.

(2) Conclusion

In conclusion, it is possible to define two guidelines for a progressive policy on perinatal health.

(a) Stepping-up of perinatal care, in particular ante-natal care.

The recommendation of a minimum of one check-up per month is, judging from the studies carried out, a reasonable measure which would eliminate all-too-frequent human tragedies and the high social costs they incur.

It is clear that the intensification and generalization of preventive perinatal care require measures to be taken at very different levels:

- budgetary measures to enable adequate facilities to be made available to all;
- legislative measures to safeguard women's rights (health code, work code);
- a policy of incentive family allowances;
- the training of general practitioners, doctors specializing in industrial hygiene and medical teams to provide effective care; the development of a network of midwives.

Preventive medicine and perinatal care, while involving the use of recent technological inventions such as echographs and amniocentesis should not be thought of simply as a technological advance which will solve all the other problems.

A policy to ensure that women are better informed, to promote their active cooperation and self-care requires specially trained personnel operating on a decentralized basis, making it possible to combine better medical safeguards with a new psychological attitude to pregnancy and childbirth as something more than a medical matter, in line with the growing need for a new quality of experience for parents at this period in their lives.

(b) The adoption of a number of measures of different kinds to reduce and eliminate the socio-biological risks.

This approach implies the extension of the idea of prevention by eliminating the known causes of premature birth listed above. Such preventive action is not a purely medical matter.

The aim must be in particular:

- to reduce the causes of fatigue;
- to raise the level of information provided for women and couples.

the State departments responsible for women's affairs must, in conjunction with the departments of public health and employment, promote the following measures:

- the extension of maternity leave to 20 weeks to bring it up to the threshold of maximum safety for the gestation period. This leave should not penalize the working woman and her family financially. the principle of maintaining full pay must be adopted generally throughout the Community.
- a reduction of the working week for all working women to 35 hours from the time when pregnancy is confirmed, without loss of pay;
- monthly antenatal check-ups and attendance (for the couple) at antenatal classes during working hours without loss of pay, together with State incentives in the form of allowances;
- the possibility of changing jobs where arduous work is involved.

III. ALLOWANCES AND INCOMES

The arrival of a child in the family affects the family income adversely.

In a population policy to be adopted by each of the Member States, a choice would have to be made between stabilization, encouragement or reduction of the birth rate!

There are other policy options affecting the size of families, such as the reduction of social expenditure under austerity policies adopted in the Member States. The Commission describes the way in which, in such a situation, the arrival of a child will generally mean a loss of income for the family.

Two principles must be adopted:

- at the national resources level, the principle of replacing an austere social expenditure policy by a tight-reined policy and the elimination of waste.

The gain for society in human and economic terms has been illustrated above with the example of prevention of premature birth.

- as regards family income, the principle of safeguarding and supporting incomes by various measures:
 - . full pay to be maintained throughout maternity leave;
 - . attendance at ante- and post-natal check-ups and ante-natal classes to be encouraged, free of charge;
 - . family allowances for the first child and subsequent children;
 - . a revision of family allowances;
 - . aid to enable working women to use child-minding facilities for children up to 6 years of age free of charge.

IV. MATERNITY AND DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN

Just as maternity is the specific biological expression of womanhood, so too it is the moment when social and professional discrimination against her makes itself most apparent.

In the case of France 72% of women between the ages of 20 and 29 are gainfully employed. For the 30-39 age group the level falls to 65%. The peak age for producing children is between 25 and 30 and the fall in the level of employment after 30 coincides with the period of further pregnancies and the bringing-up of young children.

Among female workers, 33% break off their paid employment on the birth of their first child. In the executive and liberal professions work is also interrupted, but the proportion is smaller: 14%. Such figures reflect the common experience of working mothers: maternity and work are experienced as contradictory. Contradictory not in biological terms, not in terms of the woman's desire both to have children and to work, but contradictory as regards social conditions in which the crucial factor is the availability of provisions for pre-school children up to 6 years of age.

Modern societies are witnessing behavioural changes such as regular salaries for women, urbanization, the break-up of the family unit at several stages and social support replacing family solidarity, which call for social provisions for pre-school children.

However, these changes in society are not being accompanied by the support measures needed, which require decisions by the governments.

Thus at best, 1.5% of children find places in crèches. Child-minding remains a private problem which is directly at odds with efforts to help women to remain in professional and working life.

Several factors play a part in a woman's decision to break off work temporarily or permanently: the level of earnings and cost of child-minding, her qualifications and interest in her work and the non-availability of crèches and nursery facilities to fit in with the timetable of a working woman.

This means that, unless she resumes work after the end of her maternity leave, a woman suffers a series of handicaps which can be said to constitute real discrimination against motherhood:

- the provisional cessation of work: loss of seniority and subsequent remuneration (pay and retirement pension)
- permanent cessation of work and the consequent loss of the woman's financial independence: a drop in the family's income and the woman's increased confinement to her domestic role: the unequal division of responsibilities in the family is accentuated;
- the wife's qualifications suffer and she is likely to be overlooked when it comes to promotion, so sexist prejudice on the part of employers is strengthened.

For those women who do continue to work, the problem of coordinating child-minding with a job remains a major source of anxiety with the costs of child-minding eroding the value of earnings. In addition there is the question of leave when children are ill. Here, too, it is generally the wife who has to stop work with adverse consequences for her career. On this issue, legislation should keep abreast of the change in attitudes and make it possible for both parents to take leave for a sick child.

Highly qualified professional women do not escape the discrimination attendant on motherhood. An inquiry in 1975 by the Orsay scientific centre revealed the growth of inequalities in the careers of a couple of research-workers with identical qualifications and beginning their career at the same level. Ten years later, after a number of children, the man has been able to advance in his career whereas the woman has fallen behind or her career is blocked. the choice for highly-qualified women is often not between working or child-minding, but between research or producing a child, a choice which becomes more marked the higher their position in the career hierarchy¹.

Therefore the present situation in regard to nursery and infant facilities and their cost compared with women's earnings means that motherhood is experienced as a handicap or obstacle to professional advancement for women much more than for men.

¹ cf 'Research by Women', an international survey carried out by the Committee on Women of the National Union of Scientific Research Workers.

Measures to allow them to catch up and positive discrimination are necessary to ensure real equality of opportunity

As to the structural arrangements required, the Committee of Inquiry recommends that the Council and the Ministers responsible for women's affairs promote genuine positive plans for providing infant and nursery facilities. An emergency programme of this kind could involve both the public and private sectors. Ways of making such facilities free (through keeping down their costs or providing allowances) will need to be examined.

As regards parental leave, this must be available in principle to both parents. It should be renewable three times for a further year so that the parents can care for the child during the first three years of its life so long as the proper child-minding facilities have not been set up. After the first three years the contract of employment would be suspended.

New ideas for parental leave should be studied by the Community and national authorities so that the woman need not be at a disadvantage in her career because of the need to interrupt her work following the birth of a child.

Parental leave arrangements combined with professional training or study could be the woman's equivalent of the sabbatical year proposed or already available for certain categories of executives.

Such solutions could offset the threat to women's employment inherent in the introduction of new technologies and provide the answer to women's demand for flexible working hours.

V. MATERNITY AND PARENTAL AUTHORITY

Whatever the rules laid down in the laws of the Member States, the rapporteur believes that the principle of attributing parental authority to both parents on equal terms should be adopted in recognition of the de_jure and de_facto responsibilities devolving on each of them equally.

VI. PARENTAL LEAVE

In response to a request to the Commission your rapporteur has received the following information:

(a) The Member States of the Community

Parental leave exists in only three Member States: Belgium (public sector), France and Italy; it is paid leave only in Italy; a Bill to provide for such leave has been drawn up in Greece. In Germany, four months' paid leave is granted to the mother only, after maternity leave. The length of leave, the procedure for granting it and the advantages vary considerably from one country to another and sometimes within a single country, depending on whether the public or private sector is involved; in the United Kingdom, the mother may stay away from work after maternity leave. In the other Member States there is no provision concerning parental leave.

In Italy, private or public sector women workers can be off work for a maximum period of six months following maternity leave before the child has reached the age of one year, with their health insurance scheme paying a daily allowance of 30% of the normal remuneration (women employed in the public sector are entitled to full pay during the first month and to 2/3 pay during the second month). Their right to go back to their job is guaranteed.

Since Law No. 903 of 9 December 1977 on equal treatment of men and women at work, the father can benefit from these leaves, but in lieu of the mother and on the basis of a declaration stating that she renounces her right; however, the father can only do this if the mother is in paid employment.

In Belgium, in the public sector, civil servants can benefit from various forms of leave:

- parental leave as such: a maximum of three months to be taken in the year following the child's birth (Royal Decree of 16 November 1981); this leave is counted as a period of service but is unpaid. Social security rights are maintained.
- a leave for absences for long periods, for family reasons, i.e., to educate one's own child or an adopted child: a maximum of four years until the child has reached the age of 5 and, in the case of a handicapped child, a maximum of 6 years until the child has reached the age of 8 (Royal Decree of 16 November 1981); this leave is not regarded as a period of service, it is unpaid but the right to employment at the end of the leave is maintained.

Furthermore, State employees can also benefit from leave with reduced benefits for social or family reasons for a period of three months or less and up to a maximum of 12 months (Royal Decree of 2 October 1981).

In the private sector, on the basis of a collective agreement, certain sectors allow male and female employees parental leave for a period of one or two years; such leave is unpaid and the employee concerned has a prior claim to a job at the end of the leave period, but this is not guaranteed.

During parental leave the entitlement to social security cover is maintained for mothers only, that is to say that periods away from work are regarded as entitlement periods for the purpose of family allowances and pensions, provided that contributions continue to be paid, and as periods of work for the maintenance of entitlement to unemployment benefits after the leave period. This system applies until the child is three (six, if handicapped).

In France, parental leave to educate a child has been introduced by the law of 12 July 1977 so as to enable parents to bring up their child without severing all links with the professional world (Article L 122-28-1 of the Code of Work).

This leave is for a maximum of two years and is unpaid, and may be in respect of a birth or adoption (in the latter case if the child is under three). Those who can benefit from it are employees in the public sector and salaried female employees in private undertakings with over 200 workers and with at least one year's seniority. Since 1 January 1981, this provision has been extended to include undertakings employing 100 workers or more.

It is usually the mother who benefits from this leave, although the law of 17 July 1878 makes it possible for the father to do so if the mother renounces her right or is not in a position to use it.

For the duration of the parental leave to educate a child, the contract of employment is simply suspended, not terminated.

Post-natal leave

Article L 122-28 of the Code of Work, modified by the law of 1977, allows a salaried employee to terminate a contract in order to bring up a child at the end of the maternity leave or leave for adoption, without being bound by the rules of prior notification, and nevertheless enjoying for one year a prior right to reemployment. This type of leave, unlike leave to educate a child, is

available to all employees regardless of seniority or the number of workers employed by the undertaking.

In Greece, a draft law on 'protection of motherhood and facilities to enable working parents to bring up their children' provides for a worker employed in a private undertaking with at least 200 workers on its staff or in the public sector and with one year's seniority to take unpaid leave for two years after maternity leave. This leave will, however, be paid at the rate of 30% of the basic salary in the case of the third child, 50% for the fourth and 10% for each subsequent child. This allowance will be paid by the insurance organizations or the State. The right can be utilized either by the mother or by the father. The worker is entitled to more than one leave if he or she has another child, on condition that there has been one year of active employment since the end of the preceding leave. The worker can maintain his or her entitlement to social security cover against payment of contributions, and also entitlement to promotion, but only half the period of leave is taken into consideration for seniority.

These provisions also apply to adopted children. The worker is entitled to reinstatement in his or her job or a similar job at the end of the leave.

In Germany, there are provisions on special leave for family reasons (called 'maternity' leave) etc., but they apply to the mother only.

The law creating 'maternity' leave entered into force on 1 July 1979. For female workers and their families it introduced significant improvements on the previous provisions 'on the protection of mothers'.

The main provisions are the following:

- after the statutory 8 weeks' leave following childbirth, the mother is entitled to a maternity leave of up to 4 months. The total leave to which the mother is entitled is now therefore 6 weeks before and a maximum of 6 months after her confinement;
- for the whole of the maternity leave a grant of up to DM750 per month is paid by the Federal Government;
- during her maternity leave the mother continues to acquire pension rights and to be covered against sickness and unemployment without paying contributions;
- for the whole of the maternity leave and two months thereafter, the employer cannot dismiss his employee.

In the United Kingdom, subject to certain conditions and in particular that of having worked at least two years for the same employer, a female employee is entitled to take up her job again at any time before the end of the 29th week following the birth of her child.

(b) Non-member countries

Sweden is certainly the country which has taken the concept of parental leave furthest. Under the terms of the law which came into force on 1 January 1979, any worker in their parental capacity is entitled to a leave to look after their child, either in the form of a full-time leave with the right to resume work, or in the form of a reduction of working hours to 3/4 of the normal hours.

Full-time leave is granted until the child has reached the age of 18 months and the reduction in working hours until the child has reached the age of 8.

In regard to allowances paid during such leaves, parental insurance provides any parent who satisfied certain conditions with an allowance,

- for a period of 180 days directly connected with the birth,
- for a period, also of 180 days, which can be taken until the child has reached the age of 8.

As regards the first period (leave taken in connection with the birth), the maximum allowance does not apply (until the child has reached the age of 270 days (approximately 9 months)).

The allowances are paid to the parent who actually takes care of the child and abstains from any gainful employment. However, only the mother is entitled to them (and this entitlement is frequently utilized) in the 60 days preceding the expected date of birth, and in addition she is still entitled to them up to the 29th day following the birth, even if she is not the one who is actually looking after the child. Apart from this, it is a question of what the parents decide between themselves. Half an allowance can even be paid to the father and mother for one and the same day, if they take it in turns to look after the child. The basic rate of the allowance is 37 Swedish Crowns per day, but where the beneficiary, under the terms of the sickness insurance scheme, is entitled to a higher allowance (generally 90% of the remuneration subject to a ceiling), the parental allowance is aligned on the level of the sickness benefit.

The second period of 180 days of parental leave for one parent or 90 days for each of the two parents, can be taken in the form of either full-time or half-time leave, or a reduction in working hours of up to 3/4 of the normal hours. If the parent opts for full-time leave, i.e. 6 complete months' absence, he or she is entitled for the first 3 months to an allowance equal in amount to the daily allowance to which he or she is entitled in the case of sickness (see above): in the other 3 months, the allowance is paid uniformly at the minimum basic rate.

If the leave is taken on a half-time basis, the beneficiary receives 6 months' allowance at half the full rate. If he or she opts for the reduction of working hours and, for example, works 6 hours instead of 8, the allowance will be at a quarter of the full rate for 12 months. The worker chooses how to arrange his leave. Thus each of the parents can take a total of 90 days' leave, but they can surrender their right to each other without having to provide any justification.

Because of the complexity of the scheme, absences are subject to certain conditions of prior notification before the parent goes on leave and before he or she resumes work, and the right to the leave is also subject to certain conditions of employment. Furthermore, each parent can use this right only twice per calendar year.

This system is part of the national insurance scheme and up to 85% is financed by employers' contributions, the remaining 15% being paid by the State.

VII. RECAPITULATION OF PROPOSALS

A broader concept and intensification of preventive health care.

Planning of programmes to provide child-minding and nursery facilities for children up to 6.

Measures to make good and offset the time lost at work so that women are not at a disadvantage in their careers.

These indicate the three main categories of measures one would wish to see integrated into the social provisions of the European countries.

- Introduction of a monthly ante-natal medical check-up, without loss of pay and encouraged by the State.

- Setting up of a decentralized network of medical facilities and teams to provide this preventive care.
- Amniocentesis for all women over 35 years of age as well as other women on a doctor's recommendation.
- The possibility for couples to attend ante-natal classes without loss of salary.
- Extension of maternity leave to 20 weeks on full pay.
- 35-hour working week for all expectant mothers.
- the chance to change jobs in the case of physically arduous work, without loss of acquired entitlements.
- Expansion of home-help services and aid to enable replacements to be engaged to help with the work of women farmers, traders, etc.
- Ban on dismissal during pregnancy and maternity leave.
- A minimum annual period to be allowed both parents to look after a sick child.
- One child to be regarded as the equivalent of 1 year towards the age of retirement and 1 year of seniority, for purposes of assessing remuneration.
- Increased family allowances.
- Attribution of parental authority to the mother.
- Planning of emergency programmes to provide pre-school facilities, crèches, nursery schools, kindergartens, etc. for children up to 6 years.
- The introduction of quotas for the promotion of women to posts of professional, elective and social responsibility.
- The introduction of a minimum threshold for access for women to all places of education.
- Non-professional qualification in all budgetary items concerned with vocational training.
- The preparation of specific post-maternity training courses to be made available during parental leave (possibility of extended courses).

COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

Topic No. 15 of the

REPORT OF INQUIRY

on

"T a x a t i o n :

Special Problems Encountered by Women"

Rapporteur: Dame Shelagh ROBERTS

24 July 1983

- 402 -

PE 86.199/fin./ c

At its constituent meeting on 15 October 1981, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe adopted 18 topics of inquiry, including the subject of taxation: special problems encountered by women, for which Dame Shelagh ROBERTS was appointed rapporteur.

The Committee of Inquiry considered the draft report at its meetings of 20 and 21 January 1983, and 16 and 17 June 1983.

This report was unanimously adopted at the Committee's meeting of 21 and 22 June 1983.

The following took part in the vote:

Dame Shelagh ROBERTS (acting Chairman and rapporteur), Mrs LE ROUX, Mrs LIZIN, Mrs PHLIX (deputizing for Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN) and Mr PURVIS (deputizing for Miss HOOPER).

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This study was carried out on the basis of a questionnaire (see PE 80.745) sent to the Council, the Commission and the Governments of the Member States.

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Articles for inclusion in the motion for a resolution to be submitted to the European Parliament on completion of the work of the Committee of Inquiry

- Welcomes the Commission's proposal to undertake a comparative analysis of taxation systems, with a view to taking appropriate measures should this analysis show that the systems in effect in certain Member States have any negative effect, even indirect, on equal opportunities for women, and trusts that such measures will include a directive on equal treatment for men and women in fiscal legislation, as called for in the resolution of 11.02.1981;
- Calls on the Commission, in its analysis and in the measures to be proposed, to take account:
 - (1) of the conclusions and recommendations contained in the report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe concerning the special problems encountered by women with regard to taxation, and,
 - (2) in particular, that the tax system should be neutral as between the married couple where only one partner is in paid employment and the married couple where both partners are in paid employment, with a mandatory system of independent taxation for husband and wife as the long-term objective of fiscal reform;
- Calls on the Council, following its approval of the general objectives of the Commission's Action Programme on the Promotion of Equal Opportunities for Women, the aim of whose action is "to implement the principle of equal treatment by revising income tax systems which appear to have an indirect adverse effect on women's employment, their right to work and their promotion in employment", to implement the appropriate measures to achieve this aim, on the basis of the proposals to be submitted to it by the Commission.

Background to Present Inquiry

1. Article 119 of the Treaties was the basis on which the Council adopted its Directive 75/117/EEC of 10 February 1975 (OJ L 45 19.2.1975) calling for "the elimination of all discrimination on grounds of sex with regard to all aspects and conditions of remuneration"; by extension Council Directive 76/207/EEC of 9 February 1976 (OJ L 39, 14.2.1976) holds "that there shall be no discrimination whatsoever on grounds of sex either directly or indirectly by reference in particular to marital or family status", these same terms being used also in Council Directive 79/7/EEC of 19 December 1978 (OJ L 6, 10.1.1979).
2. The underlying principle of these three directives on equal pay, equal opportunity and equal treatment in matters of social security is that women should have an independent economic identity. Different tax treatment of individuals on grounds of sex, family or marital status presents an obstacle to the application of the principle of equal treatment for men and women which is the fundamental aim of these directives. Therefore, harmonisation of national legislations with a view to implementing equal treatment of men and women in matters of taxation by revising income tax systems which appear to have an adverse effect on women's employment, their right to work and their promotion in employment, is merely a logical progression of the process begun in the directives already adopted.
3. The European Parliament's resolution of 11 February 1981 calls for "a directive on equal treatment for male and female workers in the Member States' fiscal legislation taking into account the relationship between family income and the number of dependants".
4. The work of the Council in the field of harmonisation of tax laws has so far been concentrated on the harmonisation of indirect taxes in accordance with Article 99 of the EEC Treaty. In the absence of proposals from the Commission, the Council has not examined the questions raised by this present inquiry. In its reply to the questionnaire concerning this inquiry, the Council acknowledges that the approach outlined in paragraph 3 (above) is a useful step towards the removal of discrimination.

5. The Commission, in action 6 of its "Action Programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women", proposes to undertake a comparative analysis of taxation systems, with a view to taking appropriate measures should this analysis show that the systems in effect in certain Member States have any negative effect, even indirect, on equal opportunities for women.
6. The Council resolution on the promotion of equal opportunities for women, adopted on 27 May 1982, "approves the general objectives" of the Commission's Action Programme "which are the stepping up of action to ensure observance of the principle of equal treatment for men and women and the promotion of equal opportunities in practice by means of positive actions, and expresses the will to implement appropriate measures to achieve them".
7. The elimination of any fiscal discrimination based on marital or family status is necessary if the married woman (with or without children) can hope to have true freedom of choice in deciding whether or not to take up salaried employment.
8. The Committee of Inquiry welcomes the Commission's proposed study and calls on the Commission to take account of the conclusions and recommendations contained in this present inquiry.

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This inquiry was carried out on the basis of questionnaires addressed to the Council, the Commission and the appropriate authorities in the Member States (PE 80.745).

At the request of the Committee of Inquiry the Directorate-General for Research and Documentation prepared a Working Document (PE 79.073) which has also proved extremely useful in drawing up the present report.

There now follows a brief summary of the situation in the Member States as at 27.6. pointing out the principal areas of discrimination.

SITUATION IN THE MEMBER STATES

1. BELGIUM

General rule

1. Under the general rule, the total income of a husband and wife is assessed jointly, whether they are married under the régime "communauté des biens" or "séparation des biens", so long as they live together under the same roof.

Belgian law in general considers the "household" as a tax unit.

2. Whether or not both spouses are in gainful employment, the tax assessment will be made out in their joint names, and will bear both their signatures.
3. Recovery of unpaid income tax may be sought from either spouse, whatsoever the matrimonial régime in force. However recovery of one spouse's unpaid tax may not be executed on the property of the other spouse, which has been proved
 - (i) to have belonged to that spouse before marriage or
 - (ii) to have been the subject of a legacy (except from the other spouse) or to have been obtained through the spouse's own means.

Exceptions

4. On separation whether in law or in fact the wife will be assessed separately from her husband.
5. For husband and wife living together the two exceptions to the general rule of joint assessment are (i) splitting ("fractionnement") and (ii) separate assessment ("le décumul" or "la taxation séparée"). These exceptions only apply in respect of earned income.
6. (i) Splitting ("fractionnement")

When only one spouse earns less than 750,000 FB (before deduction) he is entitled to be taxed only on 74 hundredths of his or her earnings (plus of course any unearned income). However in opting for "splitting", one should be aware that the spouse not in gainful employ-

ment may no longer be considered for tax purposes dependent on the working spouse.

7. (ii) Separate assessment

When the combined gross earnings of husband and wife do not exceed 750,000 FB, the earnings of the spouse with the lesser earned income is taxed apart, while to the earned income of the other spouse is added any unearned income of the household.

The deduction of 56,000 FB for husband and wife assessed jointly may not be if an option is made for either of these two methods of assessment.

A spouse may not be considered dependent on the other under this method of assessment and the children and others dependent on the parents are deemed to be dependent on the parent whose taxable income is the higher.

8. Allowances

As a general rule, family allowances are paid to the mother; if she is not raising the child/children, they are paid to whoever is effectively filling this role. Such allowances are tax free.

Remarks

9. The Belgian tax authorities themselves point out that the general rule whereby both spouses' incomes are aggregated can be disadvantageous for couples in the relatively high or medium income brackets, although they may benefit from the deduction of 56,000 BF in the case of the spouse with the lower earned income. This tacit admission seems to prove that this rule is disadvantageous.
10. Of interest is the article which provides that salaries paid to a spouse by the taxpayer are not considered expenses incurred in the exercise of a trade or profession. However a percentage of the taxpayer's income earned from the exercise of a trade or profession or from agriculture may be attributed to his or her spouse, who has indeed provided labour within the undertaking.

Measures in favour of disadvantaged families

11. Research has so far unearthed no special provisions in favour of one parent families. Also expenses incurred for the care of dependent children while the parents are at work are not tax deductible.

II. DENMARK

General rule

1. The general rule provides that the husband is taxed on his whole income and the income of his wife living with him.
2. Recently the Folketing (Danish Parliament) adopted amendments to certain tax laws in order to establish an equality between husband and wife. The general rule on joint taxation has not been abolished.

From 1983 on the wife will constitute a separate subject for taxation purposes. She will fill in her own tax form noting earned and unearned income, capital and revenues. In principle, the individual will be taxed on his/her own income. But the joint tax of wife and husband is not influenced by the way in which they apportion the capital among each other. The rule of aggregation of income still applies when the total tax is computed.

3. The assessment of income tax provides for each individual liable to tax to be granted a tax reduction by means of a personal allowance.

Where the wife has no separate income, two personal allowances will be provided for in the husband's assessment.

Where the wife has an income which is assessed separately the personal allowances of husband and wife will be deducted individually from their separate assessments.

4. A married couple file their own tax returns and are each taxed on their incomes and property. Tax on unearned income and property, however, is assessed in relation to the other spouse's income.
5. If husband and wife have both played a considerable part in running the business belonging to one or other of them the partner to have rendered the greatest assistance will be taxed on the income yielded. At the request of the partners 50 per cent of business proceeds (not to exceed a certain amount which for 1983 due to the above-mentioned amendments is set at DKr 100,000) may be transferred as the income of the other partner.

Favourable Aspects

6. If the income of either partner is negative, the deficit will be set off against the income of the other partner.
7. Conversely, it can be an advantage to be unmarried, if both partners have positive incomes of a certain amount, since each partner's tax is assessed without reference to the other's income.

Remarks

8. The 'household' does not exist as a unit in Danish fiscal legislation.

III. GERMANY

General Rule

1. The income tax is perceived in two forms: As a profit tax for enterprises and as a personal income tax. A sub-division of the personal income tax is the "Lohnsteuer" the tax on wages and salaries.
2. In the case of the personal income tax there is no difference in taxation for single persons (either women or men) since the tax is raised according to an objective value, which is the income.

The same free sums apply to both men and women.

3. Married couples can elect to be assessed separately or jointly. If one of the married couple opts for a separate taxation (no distinction being again made as to the sex) then the couple is taxed separately, each person of the couple being liable to be taxed for his/her own income. In the case of joint assessment, a 'splitting' scale derived from the scale for single persons is applied. The essence of splitting is that the joint income of the married couple is apportioned equally between the two parties for tax purposes. Joint assessment is applied when both members of the couple opt for it.

Other Measures

4. Single parents with dependent children are assessed according to the scale for single persons. They receive an additional household allowance of the same amount as the basic allowance.

Favourable Aspects

5. In the case of joint assessment, the effect of splitting is at its most favourable where only one party earns a taxable income. However, if both parties contribute exactly the same amount to the family income, joint assessment with splitting does not reduce the tax liability compared with separate assessment.

The application of the splitting system in the case of joint assessment and the option of electing for separate assessment mean that married couples are normally better off in tax terms, but are never worse off than single persons with comparable incomes.

Remarks

6. German tax law does not provide for taxation based on households.
7. It would appear that, in general, there is no direct discrimination between men and women in German income tax. However, the "splitting" system can result in indirect discrimination and in situations where a married woman hesitates to take up salaried employment in view of the higher tax that would then be levied on the couple's aggregate income.

IV. GREECE

The Greek income tax is regulated by Law 3323 of 1955 as amended by Law 1249 (of 5th April 1982).

General Rule

Income tax is levied on natural persons in respect of their total net income, no distinction being made between men and women. In the case of a married couple, the spouses are required to file a joint tax return (bearing both signatures) for their incomes, on which tax is computed separately, and each spouse is responsible for paying the sum due on his/her income. A negative return on the part of one spouse is not transferable and may not be deducted from the income of the other spouse.

If the wife's income accrues from a personal partnership between the spouses or from an undertaking of the wife which is financially dependent on her husband, that income is added to the other incomes of her husband and is taxed in his name.

Exception to the General Rule

If the wife has an income of wages and salaries which is below 36.000 Drs. per year (a very low sum, 36.000 Drs. being less than 30.000 BF) then her income is taxed separately.

Only if it is proven that the members of the household live separately (the proof being a legal divorce or a police certificate) can they be taxed separately.

With regard to inheritance tax, the new law, 1249/82, has an extra provision that allows for separate declaration and taxation by the wife for her own fortune, if she so wishes. (The part of her fortune which was given as her dowry is exempted from this provision, i.e. it is considered as belonging to the husband's fortune).

Note - The institution of the dowry was abolished by Law 1329 of 18 February 1983 (published in O.J. 25 A)

Allowances

Married female tax-payers may request the deduction from their total income of non-taxable amounts in respect of themselves and dependants (both ascendants and descendants).⁽¹⁾

In the case of a widowed female tax-payer with at least one child below the age of 12 the non-taxable amount in respect of her deceased husband continues to be deductible.

¹ For details, see relevant section of Mrs PANTAZI's report on "The situation of Women in Greece" (PE 84.301).

7. If her husband has no income or if the income he receives is not sufficient for the customary non-taxable amounts to be deducted, the entire amount or the difference as the case may be is transferred and deducted from the wife's income
8. 10% of the income which a working woman, married or unmarried, receives from paid employment or professional activities is deductible, without supporting documents, for the care of her minor children up to the age of 6.

Discrimination

9. Greek income tax clearly discriminates against women, since article 6, Law 3323/55 states that the wife's income after marriage is added to the husband's income who is taxed for the whole income.
10. There is no opportunity for separate taxation of the wife, even if she has an independent income and even if her income is higher than her husband's.

It is stated in Article 11, par. 2 of Law 3323/55 that "the husband is responsible for the tax declaration for the aggregate of their incomes", and in Article 6, par. 1, it is stated that "The income of the wife, after marriage, is added to the income of the husband, who is taxed for the aggregation of these incomes".

11. Law 1249/82 amends Law 3323/55 as regards many points (for example increases in tax-free incomes etc.) but there is no amendment to the main point, i.e. it is still not possible for the wife herself to decide to be taxed separately. The wife is still considered to be dependent on her husband for all purposes of income taxation.
12. The couple's joint tax return bears both signatures and declares their incomes separately. But the husband is responsible for submitting this return to the tax authorities, all administrative correspondence concerning the return and the tax due is addressed to him, and he is primarily responsible for paying his spouse's tax - she is secondarily responsible.
13. The situation described in the second paragraph of point 1 may be a disincentive to a married woman wishing to participate in a family business or desirous of setting up an undertaking with financial assistance from her husband.

V. FRANCE

General Rule

Under the general rule the household is taxable in respect of total income, with joint management by married couples of the family income. A wife who is assessed jointly with her husband is obliged to sign the tax declaration return, and may examine at the premises of the authorities all supporting documents furnished by the husband.

To arrive at the actual amount of tax payable, the combined income of the household is divided by a quotient which reflects the family circumstances of the taxpayer. For example a married man with no children will have the chargeable amount of income divided by a quotient of 2 and tax will be assessed on the resulting figure; again a married man with three children will have the total household income divided by a quotient of 4.

Both husband and wife, living under the same roof, (and irrespective of whether they are married under the regime of "communauté des biens" or "séparation des biens") are jointly liable for the income tax debts of one or other spouse.

Thus for the purposes of French income tax law, the family undoubtedly represents the tax unit.

Exception to the General Rule

A married woman will be assessed separately for tax purposes when she lives apart from her husband.

In the case of the year of marriage the woman is taxed on her income prior to the date of marriage; after that date her income is included in the income of the household.

However a married woman who is self-employed may return a special declaration of her own earned income to the tax authorities even if she resides with her husband. Thereafter the authorities are entitled to amend the tax declaration concerning the household's total income.

8. Under this section, it is of interest to note that in computing the profits arising from a trade or profession or from an agricultural activity there may not be deducted as an operating expense a salary exceeding 13,000FB per year (figure applicable for 1980) paid to the wife living with her husband under the régime of "communauté des biens". Thus it is only worthwhile for a wife working with her husband, whether in a small enterprise or on a farm, to receive a salary for work done if she is married under the régime of "séparation des biens".

Special Measures

9. Parents may make a deduction for child care expenses of up to 3000 FF per child under 4 years of age.

Discrimination

10. The aggregation of all household income is a clear denial of the separate economic identity of both spouses.

Remarks

11. Certain anomalies can be seen depending on marital status:
- in the case of an unmarried couple, the first child is entitled to a full tax-free allowance instead of half;
 - conversely, an unmarried couple will not be entitled to the additional half allowance for a third child;
 - the non-aggregation of fiscal domicile in the case of an unmarried couple can lead to doubling of ceilings.

VI. IRELAND

General rule

1. The most usual position is that a married couple is assessed to tax on the basis of aggregation of the spouses' incomes. This means that a married couple is generally treated as a unit for tax purposes. The husband is assessed in respect of his own and his wife's incomes and he is entitled to all the allowances and reliefs provided for a married couple. In computing the tax chargeable on a married couple they are given the benefit of a double measure of the levels of income chargeable at the various rates. It is not necessary that both spouses have income for the aggregation basis to apply.
2. The tax-free personal allowance for a married couple is simply equal to the allowances of two single person.

No distinction is made between income derived from employment and income from investments.

Exception to the general rule

3. It is possible to opt for separate assessment. This means that the spouses make separate income tax returns, which are separately assessed. Each gets an appropriate proportion of relevant allowances. Child allowances are divided half each. The total amount of the allowances and reliefs allocated to the husband and the wife is the same as the total amount given to a husband and wife who are taxed on the aggregation basis. Similarly, the aggregate of the tax payable by the husband and wife is the same as the amount which would be payable on the aggregation basis. However, unlike aggregation, the tax is assessed, charged and recovered separately on the husband's income and the wife's income as if they were not married.
4. A third option - separate treatment- also exists. The two spouses are simply treated as if they were not married. Allowances are allocated according to entitlement.

Other allowances

5. The personal allowance of a widowed person (without children), irrespective of sex, exceeds the personal allowance of a single person, in similar circumstances, by £500 per annum. Additionally, the annual allowance limit for a widowed person in respect of certain interest payments is £3,500 as compared with a sum of £2,400 available to a single person.

Favourable aspects

6. In the case of joint assessment: as the couple receive the benefit of a double measure of the levels of income chargeable at the various rates, this can mean substantial tax savings, particularly to a spouse whose income is taxable at a high rate and where the other spouse has little or no income.
7. In the case of separate assessment: although the two spouses are being assessed separately, unused allowances can be transferred between them, and if one spouse has a lower income than the other this can be used to moderate the tax-band into which the latter would otherwise come.
8. The tax system operates in favour of the single parent who, in common with the widowed parent, is entitled to the personal tax-free allowance figure available to a married couple.
9. In the year of marriage, a married couple who opt for joint or separate assessment, can qualify for three times the personal allowance due to a single person. This arises from the fact that the woman is entitled to have a full year's allowances applied to her earnings as a single person in the part year to the date of her marriage. Following the marriage, the couple are then granted double the allowances of a single person for the full income tax year, regardless of the date of marriage.

Unfavourable aspects

10. In general a woman's income is deemed to be the husband's and she ceases to exist, for taxation purposes, from the time she gets married. As there are virtually no circumstances where separate assessment will show a positive financial advantage, it is usually only used in cases of marital difficulties.
11. In practically all cases, separate treatment will be much less favourable to a married couple than aggregation or separate assessment. As the spouses do not enjoy the benefit of double rate bands and in cases where the reliefs, allowances and rate bands granted to a spouse exceed the income of that spouse, the benefit of the excess is not given to the other spouse.

VII. ITALY

1. No differences exist in the tax rates applied to men and/or women. This situation derives in part from the general principles of fiscal legislation contained in Law no.151 of 19 May 1975 on the "reform of family law", which effectively established equality between the sexes under civil law.
2. Law no.114 of 13 April 1977, with effect from fiscal year 1976, recognized for taxation purposes, equality in terms of the tax liability of husband and wife, who are now regarded as distinct and separate tax-payers.
3. The fundamental characteristics of the tax on the income of natural persons are that it is personal and progressive.

The tax is personal in that all the earnings of the taxable person are grouped together as a single taxable amount. Men and women are taxed individually.

The second distinctive feature of income tax is that it is progressive. Taxation rates range from a minimum of ten per cent of taxable income up to three million lire to a maximum of seventy-two per cent of that part of taxable income which is above five hundred and fifty million lire.

Special measures

4. Dependent children

For children or adopted children who are minors, children who will always be unable to work and young people who are not more than 26 years of age and are students or unpaid apprentices, and who are dependent on the taxpayer, the tax abatement is proportional to the number of such dependents.

With the abolition of the principle of accumulated earnings, each spouse became entitled to the tax abatements. In the event of a legal separation or divorce, each of the spouses retains his or her rights to these deductions.

5. Dependent spouses

An abatement of Lit.240,000 is fixed for a spouse who is not legally and effectively separated and whose gross personal income does not exceed Lit. 960,000.

6. Single parent families

Single or widowed parents with one or more dependent children are entitled to a more generous tax allowance for the first dependent child who, for tax purposes, replaces the missing spouse.

Remarks

7. As a consequence of this system of taxation, the wife is no longer a 'dependent' taxable person and assumes, independently of her husband - and even if she freely consents to the submission of joint tax returns - the status of a taxable person in her own right, since the present law provides simply and without exception that 'taxable persons are natural persons who are resident or not resident in the territory of the State', which means that the wife acquires full legal capacity in fiscal matters.
8. The woman is personally responsible only for her own tax affairs, unless she opts to submit tax returns jointly with her husband, in which case she is jointly and severally responsible with her husband for payment of the taxes, interest and fines recorded in his name. However, where returns are submitted jointly, the husband is also responsible for the tax liabilities of his wife.

VIII LUXEMBOURG

General Rule

A husband and wife living together are taxed jointly, as if they were a single taxpayer and need return only a single tax declaration form. Thus the family is very much the tax unit with no option possible for separate assessment.

A husband and wife living together are jointly liable for any unpaid tax. It appears to be the practice of the administrative authorities to treat the couple as two individual tax-payers and as co-debtors.

A married couple without children would be considered a "Classe II" taxpayer, meaning that the joint income is "split" so as not to attract tax at the higher rates. A married person whose spouse is not in gainful employment remains a "Classe II" taxpayer. (Other "Classe II" taxpayers include those over 65, widows, widowers and divorcees who have at least one descendant.)

Any taxpayer with dependent children falls into "Classe III". The rules governing the computing of tax for "Classe III" taxpayers are complex (basically the chargeable income is reduced by a quotient which is a fraction of the number of dependent children).

Exception to the General Rule

5. A married woman is entitled to be assessed separately from her husband only when living apart from him.

Tax Relief

6. On request the taxpayer may obtain a reduction of his or her chargeable income for extraordinary expenses which, while being necessarily incurred, appreciably reduce his or her tax-paying ability. A taxpayer is deemed to have extraordinary expenses if he or she has obligations which one in the taxpayer's position would not normally have to bear. Examples include educational expenses for widows and expenses incurred for dependent child care while the parent or parents are out at work.

Favourable Aspects

7. The tax system operates in favour of a single parent with dependent children in that, as well as the dependent's allowance, he/she benefits from "splitting" (see paragraph 3 above).

Unfavourable Aspects

8. There is no provision for separate assessment in the case of a wife living with her husband.
9. Remuneration paid out of income arising from a trading activity or from agricultural and forestry activity to a married woman by her husband with whom she is living is not considered a deductible expense for tax purposes.

IX. NETHERLANDS

[In the absence of an answer from the tax authorities of the Netherlands to the questionnaire addressed to them on 25 June 1982, the following analysis of the fiscal situation in the Netherlands is based on the study prepared in June 1982 by the Directorate-General for Research and Documentation (PE 79.973) and on information supplied by the Commission.]

General rule

1. The principle is that of separate taxation of the actual and professional incomes of the wife, irrespective of the matrimonial system. All other income is taxed in the husband's name. The return must be introduced by the spouse in whose name the incomes are taxable. In assessing this situation, it must be remembered that an overwhelming majority of married women in the Netherlands are married without a contract. Hence the laws on joint estate apply to them.
2. To take account of individual situations, taxpayers are divided into four groups to which different exempted minima correspond. These are:-

Group 1: married woman

Group 2: unmarried taxpayer

- having never been married and minimum 35 years of age
- having no right to family allowances

Group 3: unmarried taxpayer not to be classified in Group 2

Group 4: married man

(Note: the fact of having one or more children who give entitlement to family allowances will determine whether the taxpayer belongs to Group 2 or 3. The number of children is not taken into account).

Through marriage, a woman will go from Group 2 or 3 to Group 1, where the exempted amount is far less important, while the husband climbs into Group 4 where the exempted amount is highest.

3. It is assumed and still accepted as a social fact that, given the reciprocal effect of marriage on the financial situation of each member of the couple, income tax is best calculated on the basis of the joint income. It is also assumed that marriage still enables the couple to live more economically.
4. Since most married women in the Netherlands do not have an independent income, 5/6 of the total tax-free amount is generally allocated to the husband and 1/6 to the wife. Hence, women's earnings are - at least in

the lower income brackets - assessed as extra income earned by the husband. It is possible for married couples to exchange the tax-free amounts by an inversion of groups (see paragraph 2), but this is only of advantage to couples if the husband's income is below the tax-free limit and that of the wife above it. This is effected only on explicit demand, and the abatements are not transferable from husband to wife. Negative income of one spouse can be deducted from the income of the other spouse, on explicit demand.

Other measures

5. In 1973, however, a new law entered into force concerning national insurance deductions from current earnings for which women became independently assessable. Since 1976 women's disability benefits have also been calculated independently in relation to their current earnings.
6. Costs for day nursery, crèche, education of the children are not deductible as professional costs but may be deducted under the heading of extra charges. It is the husband who benefits from abatements for personal obligations or other extra charges, even if the expenses are borne by the wife.

Remarks

7. There is no possibility of separate assessment for a married couple living together. Only the incomes from actual work are taxed separately.
8. In the Second Chamber, the Standing Committee on Finance and Emancipation Policy is considering a Government memorandum entitled 'Towards equal fiscal treatment for (married) working women and their husbands on the one hand and those cohabiting or living together outside matrimony on the other', which was submitted to the Second Chamber of 5 October 1979 by the then State Secretary for Finance, Mr A. Nooteboom (Second Chamber Document No. 15835). The memorandum is still being studied.
9. It is also recognized that, further to the EEC Directive of 19 December 1978 on the progressive implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women, the necessary measures must be taken by 22 December 1984.

10. Quite apart from the question of civil rights, the Dutch tax authorities are endeavouring to take account of the de facto situation in making changes to tax legislation, which is currently under review.

X. UNITED KINGDOM

General rule

The incomes of husband and wife are normally added together for tax purposes and taxed as one. The husband is responsible for dealing with the couple's tax affairs and ultimately liable for the tax due on both his and his wife's income. Married men get a tax allowance just over 1 1/2 times as large as the allowance given to single people. In addition couples where the wife goes out to work qualify for an extra allowance - equal to the single person's allowance - which can be set against her earnings.

Exception to the general rule

It is possible to choose either separate assessment and/or wife's earnings election. Separate assessment does not affect the total amount of tax payable, but enables husbands and wives to assume individual responsibility for their share of the total tax bill. Under wife's earnings election, however, the wife is taxed as a single person on her earnings and the husband, who remains responsible for the tax on his wife's investment income as well as his own income, exchanges his married man's allowance for the ordinary single allowance.

Other allowances

A widowed person with dependent children is entitled to an additional personal allowance, which is the difference between a single person's allowance and a married person's allowance. A special allowance, the additional personal allowance, is given to lone parents with single handed responsibility for one or more children. The level of this allowance is currently set at £880.

4. A married woman, whose husband is not employed, is also entitled to this allowance.
5. Provision for children is made through the social security system in the form of a tax-free benefit. Under UK revenue law, income tax deductions may not be made for expenses incurred in having dependent children looked after while the single parent or the parents are absent at work.

Anomalous_situations

- 6.- A two-earner married couple receive a higher total of allowance than either a one-earner married couple or two single people.
 - A married couple without children will pay less tax than an unmarried couple.
 - A one-earner couple where only the wife is in employment are at an advantage over two single people and over a one-earner couple where only the husband is in employment.
 - Married or unmarried couples will always pay less tax if the income is earned by two people rather than one.

Unfavourable_aspects

7. The impossibility of a married woman having her unearned income assessed separately (as it must be aggregated to her husband's income both earned and unearned) constitutes a serious discrimination. This is particularly true of elderly couples who rely more heavily on investment income than younger couples, and so would stand to gain more from the individual taxation of husbands' and wives' investment income.
8. A married woman with dependent children and an invalid husband is discriminated against vis-à-vis a married man with an invalid wife who is also entitled to the additional personal allowance. The discrimination resides in the fact that in this case the total allowance for the wife is equal to the single person's allowance plus the additional personal allowance, while the total allowance for the husband equals the single person's allowance plus two times the additional personal allowance.

he tax system discriminates against the married couple with regard to investment income since (a) the wife's earned income allowance can be offset against her earnings only and (b) the couple's investment incomes must always be aggregated which can lead to a higher tax bill. The tax system also discriminates against a married couple with regard to mortgage interest and life assurance relief. This is because the couple are treated as one unit and so receive only one ceiling for relief in each case.

A single parent receives the same total of allowances as a one-earner married couple where the husband only is in employment and is therefore at a disadvantage compared with a one-earner married couple where the wife only is in employment and two single people.

Remarks

The UK Government is currently reviewing the tax treatment of married couples. A consultative document - the "Green Paper on the Taxation of Husband and Wife" - was published in December 1980.

The Equal Opportunities Commission has called for the abolition of the MMA, which "embodies more than any other provision the outdated and objectionable assumption of dependency on which the present system is based." The EOC also noted that "the historical basis for the MMA (until World War II all but a small proportion of women stopped work when they married, this meant that the MMA had some social and economic justification) has been almost completely eroded"; and recommends the substitution of the individual for the family as the tax unit.

Conclusions

1. This brief summary of the situation in the Ten Member States indicates the following areas where discrimination may be discerned:
 - (i) the woman's income is often treated as belonging to her husband. Thus the woman often has no separate existence as a "taxable person"; it is quite possible that, in many cases, a married woman is completely ignorant of household income and declaration for tax purposes;
 - (ii) the married woman has no privacy in respect of her own income;
 - (iii) the woman is not entrusted with the handling of her own tax affairs;
 - (iv) tax deductions are often set against the husband's income and not the wife's which means that, where income tax is withheld at source by the employer, the wife will have vis à vis her husband, a proportionally greater amount of tax withheld.
2. Whereas the notion of the husband as "head of household", being the provider and thus responsible for the financial support of the family, may have reflected social reality in the past, it no longer corresponds to the modern woman's conception of her role in society.
 - a woman in salaried employment is entitled to the responsibility of managing her own income;Equally,
 - there is no reason why a woman who chooses to devote herself full-time to the management of her home and the rearing of her children should thereby become a second-class citizen from an economic viewpoint. Consideration of the aggregate incomes of the child nurse, housekeeper and cook whom she replaces would rapidly establish the value of her contribution to society!
3. The first two Council Directives aim at equal treatment of men and women in the field of employment: that they should receive equal pay for equal work, and that they should enjoy equal access to employment. It is obvious that a married woman will hesitate to take up salaried employment if this will result in

an additional tax burden for the family. Where such constraint exists, she cannot be said to have equal access to employment and promotion.

As well as equality of the sexes, any revision of tax systems must take account of the basic notion of a fair division of the total tax burden between married and single people, between one-earner couples.

Clear definition of the exact areas of discrimination will not be easy - this can be seen to exist, on one level, within the family unit, in so far as there may be different tax treatment of husband and wife. It also exists between different types of family unit, e.g. single-parent families, one-earner couples, couples where both partners work. There is no reason why fiscal legislation should incorporate "moral" judgments on family/marital status, leading to different tax treatment of married and unmarried couples with children. Reconciling these various criteria will not be easy; no single system will be able to satisfy all of them.

Any revision of tax systems may have an effect on the income of the state; naturally care would have to be taken to protect those whose tax bills would otherwise be suddenly increased. Similarly the national civil services charged with implementing any changes could incur high administrative costs due to the extra civil servants who might be needed.

Recommendations

The tax system should be neutral as between the married couple where only one partner is in paid employment and the married couple where both partners are in paid employment.

The long-term objective of fiscal reform should be a mandatory system of independent taxation for husband and wife.

To this end, the need for realistic allowances for dependants (children, elderly, invalids...) should be considered : for example, couples where one of the spouses is unable to work because of the need to care for dependants should be genuinely assisted.

3. In the case of harmonisation of national legislations in regard to taxation, the choice of the individual as the tax unit, with appropriate allocation of allowances, is preferable to that of the family or household.
4. If the tax authorities persist in treating the family as the tax unit, married couples where only one partner is in salaried employment should be able to made the tax deductions of two single taxable persons.
5. Access to employment for women might be facilitated if crèche expenses were made tax deductible in all Member States.
6. Given that the ultimate aim of revision of fiscal legislation, undertaken pursuant to the objective of equal treatment of men and women, is the recognition of the independent economic identity of women, it follows that a spouse would no longer be liable for the unpaid tax of the other spouse.

COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

TOPIC NO. 16

of the Report of Inquiry

on

Problems of Women in Less-Favoured Regions

Rapporteur: Miss Síle DE VALERA

At its Constituent meeting of 15 October 1981, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe adopted 18 topics of inquiry including the problems of women in less favoured regions for which Miss Sile DE VALERA was appointed rapporteur.

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At the end of October 1981, the Commission submitted a proposal to amend the ERDF Regulation which was sent by the Council to the European Parliament for its opinion. This proposal was then referred to the Committee on Regional Policy and Regional Planning with a request to draw up a report.

As this subject was related to Miss DE VALERA's inquiry, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe charged Miss DE VALERA with drawing up an interim report of inquiry on the Commission's proposal to amend the ERDF Regulation insofar as this affected women. This report (Doc. 1-102/82) proposed amendments to the ERDF Regulation to take greater account of women's concerns. It is of interest to note that most of these amendments were accepted by the European Parliament when it adopted its opinion on the Commission proposal amending the ERDF Regulation on 22 April 1982 (OJ C 125, 17.5.82).

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The draft report was considered by the Committee at its meetings of 26/27 May 1983 and 17/18 October 1983.

This report was adopted unanimously at the meeting of 17/18 October 1983. The following took part in the vote: Mrs CINCIARI RODANO, Chairman, Mrs VAYSSADE and Dame Shelagh ROBERTS, Vice-Chairmen, Mr ENRIGHT (deputizing for Mrs LIZIN) and Mrs SPAAK.

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This study was carried out on the basis of the initial working document (PE 76.878/16) and of contacts which the rapporteur made in various Member States and through other Members of the European Parliament.

On the occasion of the meeting in Athens of the Committee of Social Affairs and Employment in June 1983, the rapporteur made contacts with the Greek Authorities in connection with her report of inquiry.

The rapporteur was also authorised by the Bureau of the European Parliament to carry out a mission of inquiry to Sicily from 1-3 July 1983.

Articles for inclusion in the motion for a resolution accompanying the final report of the Committee of Inquiry

- welcomes the Commission's intention to take account "of the situation and perspectives for female employment"¹ in regional development programmes and periodic reports, and asks it to take account of the checklist attached to this report designed to evaluate the effects on women of projects submitted for ERDF aid;
- calls for a massive information campaign concerning Community aid available to the regions and the procedures for application, designed specifically for regional authorities and women's organisations in the regions, with a view to overcoming the impression of difficulty many women feel with regard to applying for funding;
- deplores the delay of the Council in reaching a decision on the revision of the ERDF Regulation, and calls on it and on the Governments of the Member States to be mindful of the particular problems of women in less-favoured areas when drawing up regional policy at Community and national levels.

¹ New Article 31(a) of the Commission's amendments to the Proposition for a Modification of the Council Regulation on the ERDF (COM(82) 572)

EXPLANATORY STATEMENT

I. Background to the present inquiry

1. From the very beginning of the European Regional Development Fund, the European Parliament has called for account to be taken in regional policy and planning of "social and human factors".
2. Having evoked in some detail the particular problems facing women "living in sparsely populated country areas" (article 40), and "in depressed areas" (article 46), the resolution adopted by the European Parliament on 11 February 1981⁽¹⁾ went on to call for "more emphasis to be given to the position of women in defining the specific needs of each region in the context of the forthcoming ERDF reform" (article 46).
3. In April 1982, the European Parliament debated the revision of the European Regional Development Fund on the basis of the report by Mr DE PASQUALE⁽²⁾. The Committee of Inquiry presented an interim report⁽³⁾ on the position of women in the less-favoured regions of the European Community in the context of the revision of the ERDF Regulation, which was considered along with the DE PASQUALE report.
4. On the occasion of the votes on these two reports, the Parliament adopted many of the amendments tabled by the Committee of Inquiry, designed mainly to oblige the Member States to take account of the "women's dimension" in their national regional policies, and to make this aspect felt at Community level by calling for the quantification of statistics in the periodic reports "by sex and age-group".
5. In its revised proposition for a modification of the Regulation (COM(82) 572), the Commission has taken account of the Parliament's views which were clearly expressed in the vote of 22 April 1982⁽⁴⁾, and

(1) O.J. No. C 50 of 09.03.1981

(2) Doc. 1-61/82

(3) Doc. 1-102/82

(4) O.J. No. C 125 of 17.05.1982

has added a new article 31(a) as follows:

"The Commission shall make sure that account is taken of the situation and perspectives for female employment and the different age groups as far as statistics allow,

- when drawing up the coordination instruments set out in Article 2 above and in particular in the regional development programmes and the reports on their implementation;
- in the requests for assistance for programmes and investment projects;
- in the Fund assistance decisions concerning these applications;
- as well as in the drawing up of the report on the application of this Regulation set out in Article 36."

6. The Committee of inquiry welcomes this recognition by the Commission of the role of women in the less-favoured regions, and hopes that the Council will show an equal understanding of the problems facing these women, and the necessity of taking account of their particular situation in revising the European Regional Development Fund Regulation.

7. It is now 16 months since the European Parliament pronounced itself on the revision of the ERDF Regulation. The Council's delay in reaching a decision "presents the citizens of Europe and, in particular, the regions concerned with the depressing picture of a Community incapable of action"¹. At a time when public opinion is more and more sceptical regarding the realisation of a genuine European Community, it is imperative that the Council reach a decision soon on an instrument genuinely geared to the needs of the regions.

¹ Resolution adopted by the European Parliament, 9.6.1983, OJ C 184, 11.7.83

II. What is a less-favoured region?

1. The Council Directive of 28 April 1975 on mountain and hill farming and farming in certain less-favoured areas (75/268/EEC)¹ sets down strict definitions of the criteria which characterise less-favoured areas, within the terms of the directive, which is accompanied by a map depicting the areas thus defined. No such criteria exist with regard to the Regional Fund. There is no map of less-favoured regions eligible for aid from the ERDF. "The ERDF can provide assistance only in response to applications from the Member States, which it is up to them to submit in the light of the social and economic situation of the regions".² Thus it is that the Commission's annual reports on the ERDF contain maps of the Community indicating those regions to which funds have been allocated.
2. Consequently, there are no constant criteria enabling the drawing-up of a list of regions eligible for ERDF aid, which brings us back to the original question - what is a less-favoured region? The oft-quoted disparities, in economic terms, between different regions of the Community, are so well-known as to be almost clichés - the G.D.P. of the Community's richest regions is up to six times higher than that of the poorest regions. But these poorer regions vary greatly in character.

Basically, there are two types of problem region: agricultural and industrial

A. Underdeveloped rural areas

These areas are characterised by

- predominance of agriculture, which accounts for up to 40% of all employment (as against a Community average of about 8%);
- small farms which are under-capitalised and economically not viable;
- absence of alternative employment, leading to
- high levels of emigration from the land:

¹ OJ L 128, 19.5.1975

² Answer to Written Question 869/82, OJ C 287, 4.11.1982

the resultant drop in population is worsened by the consequent decline in marriage and birth rates; hence an "older" population, more resistant to innovation;

- inadequate infrastructure: lack of hospitals, social services, transport and communications facilities, is common to many regions; in some particularly remote areas such as the mountains above Catania in Sicily and some of the Greek islands, there is a total lack of water with the resultant practical problems (and high cost) of providing this basic commodity.

B. Industrial areas in decline

One of the major problems confronting the European Community is that of areas having had an important industrial activity which is now in decline because it is no longer competitive, due to exhaustion of raw materials and/or inability to modernise structures and equipment. Many of the Community's traditional industries (steel, coal, textiles, shipbuilding) are in this situation, which is rendered more acute by general economic difficulties. The problem is further aggravated by the fact that, in many cases, the economic activity of a given region was exclusively geared to one production; so there is no alternative employment for workers made redundant. The human suffering thus created contains the seeds of tremendous social problems (cases of wives and children bearing the brunt of the frustration of unemployed husbands and fathers are all too familiar, as witness the growing numbers of refuges for battered wives ...) with a latent potential for social strife.

C. Urban congestion

Massive urban development in many parts of Europe, particularly in and around capital and major cities, has too often had negative side-effects on the environmental level, with the congestion and pollution all-too familiar in many cities of Europe. The recent tendency of residential and industrial developments to move to the suburbs has resulted in the growing dereliction of many older inner-city areas whose basic infrastructure (sanitation, electricity, even water supply in some cases) has never been up-dated, where unemployment is particularly high and the standard of living often frighteningly low, which is all the more shocking as these pockets of decay often exist in the midst of great prosperity and affluence.

III. The role of women in rural society

1. Western society is still based on the family unit, and nowhere is the importance of the mother's role more apparent than in the rural family. The enormous contribution to farming of farmers' wives (too often in the total absence of remuneration of this contribution) has been dealt with in Mrs MARTIN's report (PE 82.000). The fundamental problem of the "derived" rights of spouses as regards social security and other benefits is most apparent in agriculture. In brief, the problems of women everywhere are magnified when one comes to consider the rural world, still largely dominated by traditional attitudes and values.
2. The constant drain of young people to urban areas in search of employment lead to a decline in rural population. The absence of job opportunities for women in rural areas and their resultant flight to the cities has led, in many areas, to a dramatic drop in marriage rates. Those who remain on the land are literally a "dying" population - the average age is quite high, people tend to have conservative attitudes and to resist those innovations which could improve their lot, and the low marriage rate results in a declining birth rate. In many cases, there is little or no incentive for a well-educated young woman to remain on the land, and thus many potential wives and mothers are lost to the areas that need them most. Ireland's Minister of State for Women's Affairs has stated the case very clearly: "The economic and social life available to women in rural areas will clearly be a major factor in stabilising rural population and in maintaining agricultural employment and output. Rural economic and social opportunities will need to be comparable with those in urban areas: at present they are inferior in access to cultural and recreational facilities, to participation in economic life and to some extent in housing and living conditions".

3. The basic school training and later vocational training of young girls (which form the subject of Mr ESTGEN's and Mrs von ALEMANN's inquiries) still show lamentable deficiencies as compared to the schooling and training of young boys. This is even more true of rural societies where long distances to schools, reduced curricula, preference of sons when considering third-level education (still, alas, too prevalent) often mean a lower educational level among girls. It is nevertheless true to say that girls are attaining higher levels of schooling than was formerly the case in rural societies. Having stimulated the brains of these young people, it is simply not enough to expect them to accept an economically unproductive life - creation of employment in rural areas means jobs for girls as well.
4. There is no intention to suggest that every woman living in those regions classified as less-favoured should feel obliged to look for salaried employment - it is merely suggested that all people living in these regions be considered to have the same entitlement to those jobs which are available, in accordance with their qualifications and desire to work; the simple and logical corollary of this thesis is the personal entitlement of all those whose contribution to the life of the farm, undertaking, etc. is unsalaried, to all social benefits available to all workers.
5. No criticism of traditional values is intended - surely these can be maintained along with a realistic appreciation of the contribution to family, professional and social life made by women.

6. Rural societies often show features of a 'matriarchal' organisation where the woman is the undisputed 'boss' of the house, to the extent of 'doling out' drinking and entertainment money to the men of the family. But, in public, this same woman often accepts a secondary role, letting the man speak with authority on all matters of importance. This problem can be clearly seen in the poor level of representation of women in agriculture co-operatives and occupational bodies.
7. Full recognition of the social and economic role of women in these circumstances is necessary; this will both stem from and stimulate their own awareness of the important contribution they make at all levels of life from the purely domestic/local community to the national level.

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IV. Unemployment of women in less-favoured regions

A. The dimensions of the problem

1. The "First Periodic Report on the social and economic situation of the regions of the Community" (COM(80) 816) clearly stated the alarming dimensions of female unemployment.
2. Specifically, the Report stated that "while male registered unemployment roughly doubled over the '70s, female unemployment more than quadrupled (600 000 females in 1970 and 2.6 million in 1978)."
3. "At the same time," the Report continued, "youth unemployment (in the 14 - 24 age group) rose steeply in all Member States. This reflects two important changes in the labour force ... - the steady rise in numbers reaching working age and the sharp increase in female participation rates."
4. Referring specifically to long-term unemployment, (i.e. unemployment continuing for more than 6 months), the Report stated that "in more than half of the European regions female long-term unemployment amounts to over 50 % of the total."

5. These passages underline the fact that to talk about the problem of female unemployment in the European Community today is not merely to refer to one aspect among many of the problem of unemployment: it is to reach right into the very heart of the problem. That this is so should be all the clearer when one reflects that the categories of "youth unemployment" and "female unemployment" overlap. A high proportion of the young unemployed are young women.
6. On the basis of that "First Periodic Report", the Commission then drew up a communication to the Council on "New Regional Policy Guidelines and Priorities" (COM(81) 152).
7. This communication makes no reference at all to women. This is remarkable in view of the very clear terms in which the reference to female unemployment are couched in the First Periodic Report. Moreover, the communication does refer specifically to youth unemployment, which, as has been seen, was treated in conjunction with female unemployment in the First Periodic Report.
8. On the occasion of the European Parliament's debate on the revision of the European Regional Development Fund, the rapporteur for the Committee on Regional Policy and Regional Planning defined the ideal "new" regional policy as follows:

"For us, a regional policy means giving a regional aspect to all policies; it means economic, fiscal and administrative measures which will be strongly selective in favour of the weakest or declining areas ... For us, a regional policy should give new impetus to the productive potential of the weakest areas and of the local markets ...

Ladies and gentlemen, we must abandon the short-sighted view that looks at immediate costs of and immediate benefits from the Community budget, and if we do that we shall see that a genuine regional policy may rebound to the mutual benefit of both the weak and the strong areas of Europe ... "(1)

(1) Annex to the Official Journal, L-284, April 1982 (page 102)

9. In the course of that same debate, it was pointed out that "women are, by far, the section of the population in Europe who are worst affected by unemployment and the proportion is greatest in the most oppressed regions".⁽¹⁾
10. It follows that account must be taken of these women in any efforts to improve the situation of the less-favoured regions of the Community.

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B. Importance of statistical information in assessing the problem and possible solutions

11. As argued in my interim report (doc. 1-102/82), the narrow conception of the Regional Fund - the piecemeal, "book-keeping" approach which sticks to economic criteria alone and offers little opportunity for Community coordination on initiative - offers no solutions to the problems facing women in the less-favoured regions of the Community, particularly that of unemployment.
12. The broad conception does provide opportunity for Community co-ordination and initiative, and although it sees the Fund as first and foremost an economic instrument it recognises that the economic imbalances of the Community's regions can only be understood in certain human and social contexts.
13. From the point of view of improving the position of women in the less-favoured regions, the adoption of the broad view of the Regional Fund's role is a prerequisite for success.
14. This is particularly true with regard to the higher rate of female unemployment in less-favoured regions, which was made so clear in the "First Periodic Report". This report clearly showed that female unemployment is of different kinds, having different causes. Some of

(1) Annex to the Official Journal, 1-284, April 1982, page 123

these causes may have been economic, in the sense of being related to either short or long-term trends in economic activity, but others were demographic, in that they arose from the age-structure of local populations, or social, in that they related to basic social changes affecting the willingness of women to enter the labour market.

15. Plainly, a narrow, "book-keeping" approach to regional policy is hardly likely to do justice to a problem of this complexity. This is why the best hope for detailed and perceptive treatment of the problems of women in the less-favoured regions lies with the broad approach.
16. That the success of the broad approach is closely bound up with the availability of full information and with effective analysis of that information is something which the Commission has realised.
17. The emphatic call of the European Parliament for the quantification of statistics on unemployment and job-creation programmes has been heeded by the Commission in the amended proposition for a modification of the Council Regulation which is now before the Council.
18. The Commission, when drawing up its periodic reports on the regions, will depend on the information to be communicated by the Member States, when submitting their regional development programmes, and concerning the results achieved in the preceding year.
19. The future effectiveness of the Regional Fund will depend on the efficient functioning of these information channels and procedures. Unless adequate, accurate information circulates among the various authorities involved, the attempt to achieve greater coordination of regional policies will fail, and the attempt to relate them to Community-wide standards and averages will be a waste of time.
20. Accordingly, it is imperative that information provided to the Commission by the Member States about plans for, or results of, regional development programmes and similar measures at least include information about the impact of these measures on the two sexes¹ and on different age-groups.

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¹ A proposed checklist for projects submitted for Regional Fund aid, designed to assist in evaluating the effects of the project on women in the region, is to be found at Annex II.

V. Regional policy - the global context

1. "The regions" are not nebulous entities with an existence independent of day-to-day life; they too are part and parcel of the ongoing process of the Community.
2. Equally, regional policy is not something which exists in a vacuum; it is only one thread of the fabric of Community life, linking the men and women of Europe throughout the Member States.
3. The less-favoured regions, particularly those at long distances from urban and market centres, have amplified problems with regard to transport, and social infrastructure. One has only to consider the problems confronting a woman undergoing a difficult pregnancy, where the nearest maternity hospital with adequate facilities may be several hours away.

It is manifest that these problems are even greater in peripheral regions, notably islands, where a sea-crossing may form part of every journey, with its added potential for unforeseen complications and attendant delays.

4. Thus it is abundantly clear that regional policy must be firmly placed in the human and social context of the men and women who people the regions of Europe.
5. In this time of economic difficulty, the socio-economic problems in the less-favoured regions or those in decline, are multiplied. But this should not blind our planners and legislators to those aspects of life in the regions which are not purely economic. The regions are also their roads, their ports, their railway networks, their hospitals, clinics and consulting centres, their social services ... the men and women of the regions are people and not just statistics. As such, they are entitled to proper health and social services, to sufficient schools and hospitals, with adequate roads and transport facilities to enable them to avail of these services. "The quality of life" must not be the prerogative of the prosperous regions and developed urban centres; if care is not taken to provide proper living conditions in the regions, the day may come when our regions will be deserted, our culture and traditions irreparably impoverished and our peoples spiritually the poorer - that day, it will be too late for the regions.
6. Regional policy must be seen in relation to all other Community policies; to cut it off from the mainstream of the Community process would be to cut the regions out of Europe.

VI. Specific problems of women in certain regions

A. Situation of women in overseas territories

1. An extensive report received by your rapporteur on the situation of women in Réunion traces the portrait of a situation where the "normal" problems of discrimination, absence of equal treatment and equal opportunities, are compounded by the violent past of the region and a history of domination of women in both personal and professional roles.
2. This Committee, through the inquiry undertaken by Mrs LIZIN and through its contacts with Mr BERSANI, co-Chairman of ACP-EEC Joint Committee, and Mr PISANI, the Commissioner responsible for development policy, has continually emphasised the importance it attaches to the improvement of the lot of women in less-developed countries.
3. The progress we are calling for in greater social and professional possibilities for women in less-favoured regions must be realised on all fronts, in all parts of our far-flung Community, so that recognition of the true role of women at all levels of society, in parallel with a greater awareness by the women of their own potential, may benefit all women in all regions of the Community to the ultimate benefit of the whole social fabric of the Community.

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[Your rapporteur made contacts in connection with this report on the occasion of the meeting in Athens, from 21 - 23 June 1983, of the Committee on Social Affairs and Employment; she also carried out a mission of inquiry to Sicily from 1 - 3 July 1983. She wishes to take this opportunity of thanking all those who met with her for their valuable contributions to this inquiry]

B. Sicily

1. It has been found that the attempt to keep women confined within restricted and out-dated social limits is particularly persistent in Sicily: the provision of social services is very poor and is justified by the express opposition (expressed even by a lady mayor who is herself a qualified doctor) to the provision of an adequate network of social services because these services are best provided in the home by mothers. This applies to auxiliary medical aid: it is accepted practice that, should a member of the family be hospitalized at a centre distant from the home, the woman should accompany him to look after him. The 'political' statistic which emerges from this is that representation of women in official political life in Sicily is less than half that in the Camera dei Deputati (see table at Annex I).
2. Unemployment in Italy is about 14%; in Sicily this figure is 17%, of whom about 1/5 are women. The statistics on unemployment amongst women in Sicily may well be distorted because, your rapporteur was assured, women who cannot get a first job are not counted amongst the unemployed. Traditional employment for Sicilian women is still therefore out-work, in black market conditions, seasonal work, subject to 'middle men', or, in the area of Catania, working tiny plots of land belonging to members of the family. In fact, in some regions traditional customs recognized by law still apply, in derogation from the Civil Code. The effect of these is that land and fixed capital owned by peasant families is inherited only by the male children. On the other hand, the family must provide a dowry for the daughters.
3. The village of Maniaci, in the mountains (about 80 km. from Catania) suffers from a total lack of basic facilities, even lighting and water, and social services. There are no secondary schools in the area. There is extensive emigration with long absences of the men; traditionally this movement was to Switzerland, but there is an increasing move to Mainland cities. The main type of work available is at the level of cottage industries - embroidery, ceramics, etc. Out-work is common - the lack of an adequate transport network becomes an incentive to the spread of out-work, as well as leading to isolation of the workers. This area has one interesting experience - the surrounding lands formed part of the estates of the Nelson family, and have been subject to land reform since the 1950's. The area has potential for agricultural specialisation, and is a good example

of what can be done. It is important that information be made available to those involved at a regional level, with a view to integrating such operations into a coordinated global policy.

4. The province of Agrigento is typical of the problems encountered by women on the labour market in Sicily. There are approximately 20 cooperatives in the area, concentrating on the wine trade, but women are employed only at unskilled jobs with the lowest incomes. There are no legal obstacles to equal employment opportunities for women, but given their poor level of qualification and the prevalence of conservative attitudes on the role of women, practical application of the laws is well-nigh inexistent. Another excellent example of the practical problems that arise is supplied by the GEPI textile industry, in Agrigento, which was closed down in 1976, due to lack of water for the dye-baths. The cost of transporting water rendered the business non-competitive, so it was moved back to the north of Italy. This industry principally employed women who are themselves not optimistic despite talk of the re-opening. In this province your rapporteur found evidence of local initiative with regard to the development of the area - the region's Commission for Development has formulated a project for Agrigento, based on light industry and tourism.

One fundamental problem was reported to be that of European Fund distribution - aid which was allocated did not always arrive! Local authorities saw this as a problem of "middlemen", and called for strict supervision of the distribution of funds.

5. Sicily's most serious problem nowadays is the presence of a powerful and widespread organization of the Mafia which holds the monopoly in drug trafficking, even to foreign markets. In Palermo a group known as 'Women against the Mafia' has emerged, its organizers being the widows of politicians, judges, journalists, high-ranking policy officials and many others engaged in this struggle who have been cruelly assassinated. With regard to the means of tackling the power of the Mafia your rapporteur heard the opinion expressed by many different parties that it was essential to tackle the drug problem at source, by cooperating with drug-producing countries to enable them to produce alternative crops. Many people emphasized the extreme urgency of helping young people to find employment before falling under the influence of the Mafia.

6. It was generally felt by those people whom your rapporteur met in Sicily, that membership of the EEC had been a positive experience for Italy, thanks to the increased contact with other cultures and more "liberated" societies.

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C. Greece

1. The over-riding concern at Government level with regard to equal job opportunities for women is to provide adequate education and training, so that the principle of equal access to employment, which is enshrined in Greek legislation, may be practically applied. Great emphasis is placed on the availability of training courses, and there is at least one training college in each of the 52 Greek departments - but when one considers the enormous size of some of these departments, this is acknowledged to be inadequate. The Social Affairs Committee visited the Adult Vocational Training Centre at Moschaton in June 1983, and found there were no women trainees. Submissions received from Greek women's associations in connection with the hearing organised in Athens by this Committee in September 1982 emphasised the necessity to facilitate women's access to education and training through adequate social services, and financial aid where replacement services were required.
2. Training tends to be mainly orientated towards agriculture, with other courses in traditionally female areas such as sewing, fruit canning, embroidery and pottery. Only in recent years have courses on the use of machinery been introduced. The courses are generally of short duration (2 - 4 weeks); for example, a typical sewing course lasts 20 days. In many of these regional colleges, the majority of the instructors are women, who would require further training themselves to reach adequate levels of expertise.
3. The Greek Government has abolished the concept of "head of household" and has ratified all international conventions on women. But given that so many categories of workers (women in agriculture, liberal professions) have no security coverage, that women have been dependent for long generations on fathers and husbands, and considering the extreme

reluctance with which conservative attitudes tend to yield to legislative innovation, it will require a massive effort of education and information to make women aware of the possibilities open to them and render them capable of exploiting these possibilities.

4. Not surprisingly, the Greek Government, which has just taken over the Presidency of the European Communities, is extremely interested in the extent to which the country can benefit from the European funds. It is particularly keen to see the Regional Fund restructured so that it can be concentrated on "black spots" - perhaps we can hope that we will finally see some action on the revision of the ERDF Regulation, having already waited 16 months since the European Parliament gave its opinion on this matter¹.
5. The Government hopes to receive funding from Europe for education programmes for women in non-traditional fields, and to promote tourism. There is also a call for expansion in crafts, where heretofore "black work" has been a great problem. The extent of the problem may be calculated in view of the fact that there are only about 4,000 employed in "organised" crafts (3,000 in embroidery, 1,000 in weaving).
6. Many of those involved in training and crafts complained of lack of information concerning European funds and their operation. A 1982 law on cooperatives enshrined the principle of equal participation by women; massive information is required: for the women involved, to assist in creating more cooperatives, to train more teachers for training courses, to train people in running the cooperatives.
7. Education is seen to be of fundamental importance in changing attitudes to women and their role in society. Revision of school textbooks is underway, but any changes introduced will take a long time to bear fruit. There is a perceptible dichotomy in modern Greek society between educated middle-class women and others. Many of the former are qualified lawyers; 25 years after qualifying, only 15% of these are still practising.
8. Many contacts made by your rapporteur felt that Greece was not fully ready for membership of the EEC; they feared that the move away from Greece's traditional markets towards Western European markets could jeopardise jobs and that women, who predominate in certain traditional sectors, could be hardest hit.

¹ OJ C 125, 17.5.1982

D. Peripheral Regions: Possible Developments in Tourism

1. The peripheral regions of the European Community (e.g. Ireland, Scotland, Greece) are, in general, economically under-developed. The extensive coastline and the mountainous configuration of such areas result in great natural beauty and in enormous difficulties for farming; transport facilities and communications are often inadequate, most particularly in island regions, resulting in higher production costs.
2. Perhaps because of this very difficulty of access, these regions are often rich in age-old traditions, crafts and the cultural heritage of, in some cases, ethnic minorities. An important ingredient in the "ever closer union among the peoples of Europe" desired by the founders of the European Communities is the awareness by the peoples of Europe of the diversity of their common past. The recent cultural phenomenon triggered in part by the successful American television series "Roots", and subsequent investigation by individuals of their own family heritage, culture and past has resulted in a growing wave of "cultural" tourism.
3. Given that the vast majority of Europe's population live in cities and urbanised areas, the "back-to-nature" vogue, partly inspired by and perhaps partly responsible for the ecological movement, has led to an increased interest in rural holidays. This last aspect most directly affects the situation of women in these regions who have, in many cases, found an economic role by providing farmhouse accommodation, bed-and-breakfast facilities, tea-rooms, etc.
4. Two recent communications from the Commission, "Initial Guidelines for a Community Policy on Tourism"¹ and "Stronger Community Action in the Cultural Sector"², underline the potential of tourism as an economic sector that could help in the development of the poorer regions by providing employment, and enable farmers to supplement their income by catering for tourists alongside their main activities.

¹ COM(82) 385

² COM(82) 590

5. The protection of the architectural heritage, the conservation of traditional skills through apprenticeships and the setting-up of crafts centres and cultural folk parks, would provide jobs, create tourist attractions and safeguard the cultural heritage of our regions for future generations. Very often, due to traditional cultural biases, women are the repositories of a wealth of folklore, regional tradition, music and craft skills. Their role is of vital importance in transmitting this knowledge and these skills, thereby stimulating interest in the past, creating jobs in the present and preserving these non-material treasures for the future.
6. The aforementioned communications from the Commission give details of the aids available from the European Regional and Social Funds, the EAGGF, the NCI and the European Investment Bank. These cover:
- vocational training and retraining for people employed in the tourist industry
 - training of agricultural workers wishing to switch to tourist activities either full or part-time
 - assistance to craft workers working for the tourist trade or wishing to assist in restoration of historic buildings
 - financing of transport infrastructure developments
 - building and modernisation of various tourist-orientated facilities (hotels, campsites, leisure and sports facilities).
 - development of tourist activities which complement farming activities
 - tourist developments on farms.

The availability of fund aid for training and retraining is all very well, but the material conditions in which women can avail of such training must be realised - namely, the convenient situation of training centres throughout the regions, and the provision of child-care facilities, home-aid in the case of handicapped dependants and, where necessary, replacement services, in order to enable women to follow such training and retraining course.

7. It is of interest to note the relevance of this whole aspect to current preoccupations in the European Parliament: the potential for job creation in services, crafts, leisure activities, etc. in the regions was a recurring theme of the resolution on the employment situation adopted on 28 April 1983 (OJ C 135, 24.5.1983). Two resolutions adopted on 20 May 1983 (OJ C 161, 20.6.1983) concerned the employment potential of the less-favoured regions, and the peripheral maritime regions and islands of the European Community. In replying to these two debates, the Commission agreed on the necessity of the development of resources indigenous to the regions, and recognised the importance of small - and medium-sized undertakings, and crafts. Apart from emphasizing the Commission's awareness of the regions, no new declarations of intent were forthcoming!
8. The potential for development of the regions in this context is manifestly clear, as is the possibility of an important contribution by the women in these regions towards the preservation of the cultural heritage and traditions. By providing tourist accommodation and facilities, they can enhance their own economic role in the local community and hope for an increasing awareness and appreciation of their contribution to the development of the region, thereby benefiting all of its inhabitants.
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9. Given that applications for Regional Fund aid must come from the Member States, and given the impression received by your rapporteur in many different regions, both from contacts made and submissions received, of the difficulties women in the regions feel with regard to applying for funding, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe calls on the Commission to organise a major information campaign designed specifically to inform regional authorities and women's organisations in the regions of the funding available and the procedures for application.
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E. South Wales - women in areas suffering from industrial/urban decline

1. The European Parliament, in its resolution of 11.2.1983 (1) on the problems of urban concentration in the Community, underlined the links between underdeveloped peripheral regions and urban concentrations, regretted that the resources of the non-quota section of the ERDF were insufficient to assist the regeneration of cities, and regarded this task as "one of the objectives to be pursued within the framework of the Community's regional policy" - (Article 5).
2. Your rapporteur is greatly indebted to Mr Win GRIFFITHS, MEP for South Wales, who supplied much useful documentation concerning female unemployment in his constituency. This area is one which has suffered greatly as a result of the decline of its traditional industries, with the resulting impoverishment of its long-established urban centres. Many of the attitudes and problems experienced in this region are common to similar regions throughout the Community, and as such may contain useful guidelines and lessons for planners.
3. In the South Wales area, female employment is seen to be an important secondary source of family income. Women need jobs for the money they provide, and in general will accept any work offered. This is all the more true where the husband is unemployed, or where the mother is a single parent.
4. In most cases, women are poorly qualified for the labour market - this is often due to the traditional attitude that education is less important for girls whose future is seen to be in marriage and child-rearing. When one income proves inadequate and the woman seeks employment, she inevitably ends up in unskilled, poorly-paid work.
5. There is a general feeling that social structures do not take account of the realities/difficulties facing the working mother. In general, social security benefit is automatically paid to the husband, even in cases where this has been proven detrimental to the family's well-being - problems have been encountered in cases where an alcoholic husband was receiving all benefit and giving no money to his wife. This is only one example of a situation which is felt to be unsatisfactory, both by women "on the receiving end" of difficult relationships and those concerned with trying to help them.

¹ OJ No. C. 68, 14.3.1983

6. Children are seen to be the responsibility of mothers, but adequate social services are not available. Traditional work organisation takes no account of the problems facing working mothers; at the same time, part-time work is often lacking in job security and rights, and job-sharing is still a relatively un-tried idea. The provision of adequate child-care centres is essential in order to free mothers seeking employment; the fundamental re-thinking of the sharing of family responsibilities, and the resulting changes in work organisation, are the long-term solutions which will ultimately reconcile the difficulties facing women who need to work in order to supplement an inadequate family income, or to provide for their families.
7. In conclusion, we can see that the problems apparent in this region are those faced by too many women in too many regions, and can be resumed as follows:
- inadequate training and/or qualifications leading to poorly-paid jobs in low job categories;
 - inadequate social infrastructure, particularly with regard to child-care.

The immediate necessities are for campaigns designed to encourage girls to acquire proper training and qualifications, the provision of adequate child-care facilities, and the recognition of the genuine role of child-rearing through payment of relevant benefits and allowances to the person actually responsible for care of children.

VII. Conclusions

1. The European Communities are composed of a group of countries whose economies are undeniably linked, and whose governments, having recognised this, have opted for intra-community co-operation with a view to finding joint solutions to the problems facing all our countries in this difficult period.

The true spirit of this Community resides, not in economic considerations or in governmental ponderations, but in the individual men and women who form the peoples of Europe.

2. The "narrow" conception of the Regional Fund, geared only to economic considerations, has been seen to be a failure; regional disparities have increased rather than diminished since the setting-up of the European Regional Development Fund.
3. Now the broad approach is being adopted. The Commission and the Council must show that they intend to make it work. Their attitudes to the problems of women in the less-favoured regions of the Community will be a test of their intentions. In particular, it will be a test of the strength of their determination to adjust Community policy, on an objective basis, to social and economic changes in the regions of Europe.
4. At the same time, their willingness or reluctance to make specific acknowledgement of the problems of women in the less-favoured regions when formulating one of the Community's most important policies will be a sign to women everywhere in Europe of how seriously they are prepared to confront the problem of making equal opportunity a reality.

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5. The Commission, in answer to the debate in April 1982 on the European Regional Development Fund revision, stated its concern about the problem of female unemployment in the regions and underlined the importance of "the statistics, the data and the analyses"⁽¹⁾ required to measure the true dimensions of the problem.
6. The Committee of Inquiry recalls and welcomes the Commission's commitment, made on that occasion, to take account of the problems raised by this Committee's interim report; having noted the incorporation of that concern into the Commission's amended proposition for a modification of the Council Regulation on the European Regional Development Fund, the women of Europe now look to the Council and its Member Governments to make this concern their own and to translate it into practical terms in their national and community regional policies.

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(1) Annex to O.J. No. 1-284, April 1982, page 126

WOMEN MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT

IN ITALY

SENATO

13 women out of 315 members = 4.13%

including 8 Communist Party
 3 Christian Democratic Party
 1 Independent Party of the Left
 1 Italian Socialist Party

CAMERA DEI DEPUTATI

50 women out of 630 members = 7.94%

including 1 Italian Republican Party
 3 Radical Party
 9 Christian Democratic Party
 34 Italian Communist Party
 1 Italian Socialist Party
 2 Mixed

Regional Parliament in Sicily

3 women, out of 90 members = 3.33%

All 3 are members of the Communist Party

A Regional Council for Women (an all-party committee) is in existence in Sicily, but your rapporteur was given to understand by many contacts that this body was ineffective, due to its preoccupation with theory and neglect of practice.

Given the Commission's commitment, in its revised proposition for a modification of the Regional Fund Regulation (COM(82)572), to take account "of the situation and perspectives for female employment in the requests for assistance for programmes and investment projects, in the Fund assistance decisions concerning these applications" (new article 31(a)), the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe hereby submits the following checklist to ensure that "the situation and perspectives for female employment" are adequately considered in applications for Regional Fund aid. This aspect should be considered before fund assistance decisions, during the realisation of the project and after its completion, with a view to evaluating the effect of Regional Fund aid on women in the less-favoured regions.

Proposed Checklist for Projects submitted
for Regional Fund Aid

A. BEFORE submitting the project

1. What is the situation of female employment in the region?
2. What are the perspectives for female employment should this project be accepted?
3. How have the data in answer to 1 and 2 been compiled?
4. To what extent, and in what way, have women participated (planning, consultation ...) in the drawing-up of this project?

B. DURING the realisation of the project

1. What effect is this project having on female employment in the region?
2. To what extent, and in what way, are women participating in the realisation of this project (labour, consultation, management)?

C. AFTER completion of the project

1. Did women in the region benefit from this project (directly/indirectly)? If so, how? If not, why not?
2. Have "the situation and perspectives for female employment" in the region been modified by this project, and in what way?
3. What lessons have been learned regarding female participation in regional projects of this kind?
4. To what extent, and in what way, have the data relating to the effect of this project on "the situation and perspectives for female employment" in the region, been compiled, with a view to their inclusion in the information to be forwarded by the Member State to the Commission for the preparation of the periodic reports?

COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

TOPIC No. 17
of the
REPORT OF INQUIRY
on

the education of girls in the European Community

Rapporteur: Mr N. ESTGEN

At its constituent meeting of 15 October 1981, the Committee of Inquiry into the Situation of Women in Europe selected 18 topics of inquiry, including the education of girls in the European Community, a subject for which Mr Nicolas ESTGEN was appointed rapporteur.

The draft report was considered by the Committee of Inquiry at its meeting of 17 and 18 October 1983.

The committee unanimously adopted the report at its meeting of 3 and 4 November 1983.

The following were present at the time of the vote: Mrs CINCIARI RODANO, chairman; Mrs von ALEMANN, vice-chairman; Mr ESTGEN, rapporteur; Mr EISMA, Miss HOOPER and Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN.

I - Articles to be included in the Committee of Inquiry's final motion for a resolution

- deplores the Commission's failure to take the action called for in the European Parliament's resolutions of 11 February 1981 and 12 May 1982;
- deplores the Council's failure to continue its joint measures after the communication from the Commission to the Council of 9 February 1976;
- emphasizes the urgent need for coordinated intervention in this sector and draws attention to the increase in unemployment among girls, which is primarily due to their having received an inadequate education;
- in view of the fact that for women equality of opportunity in employment is directly dependent on equality of opportunity in access to vocational training and that this, in turn, depends on previous schooling, calls on the Commission to step up the media campaigns aimed at alerting families to this problem and changing parental attitudes;
- calls on the Ministers of Education of the Member States to introduce courses preparing boys and girls on an equal basis for their respective duties as citizens, spouses and parents;
- calls on the Ministers of Education of the Member States to submit to the European Parliament a biennial report on the practical measures undertaken, with an analysis of the actual results obtained;
- calls on the Commission to conduct a comparative study of teaching materials, particularly school textbooks, and to propose to the Member States measures which might be taken to eliminate from them anything which might promote a stereotyped view of sexual roles; such books should, instead, reflect and encourage equal opportunity for both sexes and the equal responsibilities of men and women in the family, in society and in professional and public life;

- calls on the Commission to draw up a paper with a view to urging the Ministers of Education meeting in the Council to agree on joint measures to achieve complete equality of opportunity in the field of education in accordance with the following principles:
 - (a) guaranteeing access on equal terms to all educational and vocational training courses;
 - (b) taking measures to promote additional, entirely co-educational educational opportunities;
 - (c) eliminating, where it still exists, the unjustified division of educational establishments into two groups catering either for girls or for boys;
 - (d) launching special programmes to encourage girls to choose a wider range of occupations;
 - (e) and, in this light, reexamining the vocational guidance provided for girls;
 - (f) taking measures to ensure that teachers of both sexes teach all subjects, including mathematics and technical and scientific subjects;
 - (g) taking measures to ensure that women are adequately represented in managerial posts at all levels;
 - (h) retraining teachers who are already employed, and training women who choose a teaching career, in subjects where women teachers are under-represented at present;
 - (i) promoting the recruitment of male teachers in primary and nursery schools;
- parallel measures must be taken to ensure that boys are also encouraged to choose a wider range of careers and professions;
- calls on the Member States to include in their teacher-training programme courses stressing the importance of education for the female emancipation movement;
- recommends continuing education and retraining systems with a view to ensuring that women who have voluntarily given up paid employment to bring up their children can subsequently go back to work;

- calls once again on the Commission, as it did in paragraph 34 of its resolution of 11 February 1981, to organize in the near future a conference of the relevant authorities of the Member States with a view to considering how the principle of equal opportunity for girls can be incorporated into national educational policies, and how the Community can contribute to this objective.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

1. This investigative report is based ~~on~~ the resolution of the European Parliament of 11 February 1981¹ on the position of women in the European Community, and in particular paragraphs 28 to 35 which concern education.
2. The European Parliament has frequently raised the question of education for girls and women in seeking to promote equality of opportunities for women in the Community, for example:
 - in the above-mentioned resolution of 11 February 1981¹ in which it declares that a specific education policy is indispensable for the creation of equal opportunities for girls and in which it affirms that the coordination and intensification of educational policy measures at Community level will play a decisive role in the struggle against unemployment of women and young people.
 - in the resolution of 12 May 1982² in which the European Parliament regretted that the Commission's new programme did not tackle the problem of equality of opportunity in education and in which it considered it urgent that the Commission present precise proposals rapidly implementing the vocational training measures provided for in articles 10 and 11 of the action programme and enabling solutions to be found for the extremely serious problem of female unemployment.
3. This report was written on the basis of the answers received to a questionnaire drawn up by the rapporteur (PE 82.681) which he sent to the various Member States both to the Ministries of Education and to parents', teachers', trade union and church organizations whose addresses were passed on to him by the various ministries. The rapporteur also used the conclusions reached by the public hearings organized by the Committee of Inquiry in Athens on 22, 23 and 24 September 1982, and, more particularly, in Luxembourg on 25 and 26 April 1982 on education and vocational training for women in the Community and the answers sent to him on this occasion (answers by Mrs SULLEROT - PE 83.448 and of the EOC - PE 84.219; Summary of the public hearing - PE 84.838). The rapporteur also used the study made by Dr Eileen M. BYRNE

¹ OJ C 50, 9.3.1981

² OJ C 149, 14.6.1982

on equality of education, and training for girls (age group 10 to 18)¹ and the 'international comparative study of educational opportunities for girls and women'².

4. The very different structure of the educational systems of the Member States, which are constantly changing, means that it is almost impossible to give a complete picture of the situation in each Member State. The rapporteur refers readers who are interested to the recent study on 'the educational systems in the European Community'. This guide, published in 1981 in English by Lionel ELVIN, provides a detailed description of the structure of the educational system in the nine Member States (excluding Greece)³. Moreover the amount of information made available to the rapporteur varied considerably from country to country. Some of the answers were very succinct not to say sketchy, and others were very full, backed up by numerous documents, studies, and very useful statistics. This was the case with Germany, the Netherlands, France and the United Kingdom. This is why more details are given concerning the situation in some countries than in others. However, the rapporteur has tried to bring the information received into line as far as possible. The rapporteur chose a certain number of points, which he proposes to analyse in relation to each Member State as he considers them the most important, with a view to drawing up proposals to improve equality of opportunity in education for girls within the limits of the Community's terms of reference.

¹Published in 'Studies', Education series No. 9 - 1979 by the Commission of the European Communities

²Published by R. Oldenbourg Verlag München Wien 1981

³Published by NFER Nilson in Windsor 1981

SITUATION IN THE MEMBER STATES OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

Belgium

1. Balance of the sexes

(a) Balance of the sexes among teaching staff

There is no differentiation based on sex with regard to recruitment, training, placement in jobs and promotion at any level of education. However, the figures reveal that women while under-represented in higher education tend to be over-represented to a greater extent the lower the level of education.

(b) Balance of the sexes in classes in all types of education

In state education, all branches of study are open to boys and girls but in private education there are still a number of schools restricted either to girls or to boys. However, even in the state schools the physical education curriculum sometimes covers areas more suitable for boys and sometimes areas more suitable for girls, and physical education classes are not mixed. The same is true of certain handicraft and domestic science courses which are still not mixed.

It should be stressed that in Belgium both mixed education and what is known as coeducation are on the increase in private schools. Coeducation goes beyond mixed education and means the elimination of all stereotype subject matter or differentiation in compiling courses for boys and girls and a mixed teaching staff. Coeducation means a guarantee for children of both sexes of equal education in preparation for adult life based on the same scale of values, mutual respect and equal sharing of responsibility.

Many of the recent steps taken with a view to greater equality of opportunity in education originated in the Committee on work for women, set up in December 1978. This committee drew up an opinion with a view to introducing intensive information policy - on education in the family

- coeducation in all areas;
- access to jobs and vocational training.

Similarly within the national Ministry of Education a committee on equality of opportunity for girls and boys in education has just been set up.

2. School textbooks

School textbooks have seen very little change for many years. At present a subcommittee on school textbooks within the committee on equality of opportunity for boys and girls in education is carrying out a study of the stereotyped and discriminatory nature of teaching material with regard to girls.

4. Leaving school early

Over the last few years a tendency for both girls and boys to stay at school longer has been apparent. However, girls stay less long in certain areas of technical education and vocational education and in technical higher education whereas at university they tend to stay as long if not longer than boys.

5. The role of women in consultative bodies

Men are to be found at the head of the large organizations although statistically women outnumber men on the teaching staff.

6. Role and distribution of the sexes in executive posts in education

A comparison of the statistics from 1975 with those from 1980 reveals a slight increase in the number of women occupying headships and posts as vice-head or head of department although men continue to predominate even in the lower strata of the system where women are over-represented.

7. New technologies

Audio-visual methods are now used in teaching at all levels of education. Data processing is a part of a number of courses in secondary education and higher education, particularly economics, mathematics and history. There are even programmes to further encourage the use of the new technologies.

8. Differences between private and state education

There is no difference between state and private education with regard to training and education, although coeducation is less common in the private sector than in the state sector.

B. Denmark

1. Balance of the sexes

(a) Balance of the sexes among teaching staff

A great effort has been made in the area of education in Denmark in order

to achieve a better balance of the sexes on the staff in pre-school and primary education. For the last three years the percentage of men has been growing noticeably whereas in the past these jobs were held almost exclusively by women. It is interesting that private nursery schools take more trouble than state nursery schools to ensure the balance of the sexes from the very start of the child's school life. At the higher levels of the school system women are under-represented in technical subjects, mathematics and sciences and are over-represented in languages despite the fact that posts are open by law to both sexes.

(b) In classes and lessons

All lessons and courses are mixed.

(c) Studies

The committee for equality of opportunity in society, set up ten years ago, drew up a full report on education and vocational training for women which also analysed the problem of the mixed education without pointing to any definite general conclusions.

Similarly, the Ministry of Education set up a standing committee in 1976 to analyse the role of the sexes in education, to monitor the development of the educational system and to draw up proposals to facilitate a smoother transition from education to working life and for solutions to youth unemployment. Although Denmark is progressive compared with the other Member States it has not taken positive action to compensate for the shortfall of women both in education and in employment, as the committee for equality of opportunity recommended in its report on education and vocational training for women. However, these reports, even if they have not led to the implementation of practical proposals have helped to make people more aware of existing problems and have no doubt contributed to the continuing change in attitudes.

2. School textbooks

The report of the standing committee on the role of sexes and education analysed amongst other things the role of men and women not only in school textbooks but in all teaching materials and it emerged that the situation was far more advanced than in the other Member States.

3. Pilot schemes

A large number of pilot schemes are in operation in Denmark. However,

it was found that in the field of vocational training girls not only had less chance of getting a training placement in a firm but encountered greater difficulty once their training was completed in getting a job from the private firm.

4. Leaving school early

Girls stay at secondary school as long as boys. However, more female students than male students leave university without a degree and the same applies to all types of vocational training.

5. Role and distribution of executive posts in education

As women are under-represented at secondary level despite the large percentage of women in primary and elementary education it is not surprising that very few women occupy the post of head and fewer are to be found the higher up the education system one looks.

6. Specific problems

Despite Denmark's advanced situation there are problems in the area of educational and careers guidance and attempts are being made to enhance opportunities for women in employment by improving such guidance. Efforts are being made to retrain teachers and make them more aware of the importance of the choices girls make in respect of certain subjects and to ensure that, through this guidance, the right choices are made.

C. Germany

1. Balance of the sexes

(a) Among teaching staff

All discrimination on the basis of sex is illegal. Responsibility in this field lies with the various Länder and suggestions may be made at federal level. Women represent 55% of normal teaching staff but they represent only 31.7% of the technical and vocational teaching staff.

(b) Balance of the sexes in classes in all types of education

Girls and boys take the same lessons and have the same curricula and textbooks. All state schools are mixed and of the private schools some are for boys only and some for girls only. Only the state of Bavaria is an exception. There are special rules deriving from the constitution of the state which lay down that 'girls are to be taught, in addition

how to care for babies, bring up children and carry out household tasks'. These provisions are intended to help strengthen the marriage bond and protect the family unit.

2. School textbooks

There have been recent studies on this subject:

- the Federal Ministry of Education and Science held an important round table on the depiction of the role of women in school textbooks on 8 December 1978 in Bonn. It emerged clearly that the role played by women was very different from that played by men. For instance the men were always older than women, they came home in the evening, they drove the car, they played the role of the provider whereas the women never had a job of their own, stayed at home and did the housework and brought up the children.
- Reference should be made to another recent study¹ made at the behest of the Ministry of Education concerning the importance given to the role of women as pupils, teachers and mothers. The conclusions of this study describe the impact of the different depiction of the sexes in school textbooks, the different treatment and behaviour of the teachers faced with a male or female pupil, etc.
This study shows clearly that school serves to reinforce in children's minds the role played by parents at home. Everything tells them that these are the normal roles which differ according to sex.
- In 1978 steps were taken at federal level to alter the situation in the states but the states have the last word when it comes to altering school textbooks.

3. Pilot schemes

There are a large number of pilot schemes. Since 1978 the Minister of Education and Science has been supporting pilot schemes for the training of young women in mechanical engineering and electronics and in other technical subjects. Experience has shown that training does not raise problems but that because girls have very little professional experience to begin with both in technical and manual skills they hardly ever choose these jobs. These experiments have succeeded in interesting more girls than in the past in non-traditional jobs (from 2% in 1977 to 6.4% in 1981). They have also proved the importance of the part played by guidance for pupils when they come to choose their professions.

¹ 'Women and school, pupils - teachers - mothers' by Dr Uta Enders-Dragässer, Giessen, September 1982.

Some of these schemes are run by the Bundestag committee of inquiry into women and society, which in its report stressed the shortcomings in girls' education and the different approach of girls to the choice of a course of vocational training which they did not always consider to be very important for their future, although attitudes are changing slowly.

The federal ministry is also running a publicity drive to inform women by publishing various brochures such as: 'Women and education', 'Women', 'Who says girls are not as clever?'.

4. Studies on the relationship between social class and the educational option chosen by children according to sex

The federal Ministry is following this question closely. A brochure on working class children in the education system of December 1981 describes the differences in opportunity according to the social background of children.

5. Leaving school early

In 1981 36.2% of girls left school without qualifications. This is the average percentage of people leaving school early. At university 11% of girls and 8% of boys leave without finishing their studies. There are thus hardly any major differences between the sexes to speak of.

6. New technologies

These techniques are beginning to take on great importance and a study entitled 'youth and technology' has described the approach of girls to these technologies. A joint education committee at federal and state level is examining how better to integrate these subjects into future courses.

D. Greece

Legislation has just been entirely rewritten and the principle of equality between the sexes, enshrined since 1975 in the constitution, has just been recognized in civil law under which women are now equal to men. However, an age-old tradition of inequality between the sexes cannot be eradicated overnight by changes in the law.

From the start of his pre-school education the child is drilled in the lesson of the role his parents play, the father is the head of the family, which he must

support, and the mother is responsible for the home and bringing up the children. Equality in education is still far from being achieved. There is still a serious problem of attitudes. The rapporteur would refer the reader to the section on women and education in the report by Mrs PANTAZI¹.

France

1. The balance of the sexes

(a) The balance of the sexes among teaching staff

There is no differentiation on the basis of sex in recruitment, training or placement of teaching staff. The only exception at present concerns teachers of physical education who do not follow exactly the same courses in sports subjects. A study is under way with a view to removing all differentiation in this discipline too.

(b) The balance of the sexes in classes and courses

Mixed classes are the rule in all subjects. Only sports are taught separately to boys and girls.

(c) Research and studies

Research into the influence of mixed education on women's liberation is rare.

2. School textbooks

The importance of the question of school textbooks and the depiction of women in them, the images which they can convey, has attracted the attention of French governments for almost ten years. Committees for the revision of school textbooks have been set up to promote women's liberation. This policy is embodied in the order of 12 July 1982 by the Ministry of Education to the effect that education 'should counteract sexist prejudices', which covers not only school textbooks but all teaching materials and which assigns teachers a vital role in the fight against sexist prejudices; by showing children the unequal position of women in relation to men they will make their pupils think about the participation of women in economic and social life and about the guarantees of equality which they should be given in all fields and about the problem of the sharing of domestic work and roles.

Moreover, the Ministry for Women's Rights has already reached agreements with about 30 town councils under which it contributes to the cost of buying primary

¹PE 84.301 - point 7, pp. 46 to 50

school books (provided free by the towns to the children if they are on a list of books approved by the Ministry).

3. Studies on the relationship between social background and educational options chosen by children according to sex

There are statistical studies of all children following various courses according to the socio-professional group to which their parents belong. Boys and girls of the same age on entering secondary school, from the same socio-professional class and having attended the same classes in the first four years of secondary education often react differently when it comes to choosing among the various educational options. In the privileged social categories: top executive, middle management, industrialists, business people, the reaction of boys and girls is more or less the same although there is a difference in the 'industrialists/business people' category. Similar behaviour is also to be found in the categories of 'domestic workers' and 'agricultural employees'. In all the other categories larger numbers of boys turn to courses leading to a job in a short space of time (BEP, CAP, etc.); this emerges very clearly in the case of the children of blue-collar workers: 32.6% choose, after their fourth year at school, a short course of further study or an apprenticeship (22.5% of girls), and in the case of the children of farmers: 35.4% take up this sort of study of whom 14.5% opt for the short agricultural course (25.1% of girls).

4. Leaving school early

Generally speaking it is boys rather than girls who leave general education early with the result that there are more girls than boys both entering for and passing the baccalauréat. Similarly, there is a larger proportion of girls over the school-leaving age still in education.

It also seems that boys who leave school at an earlier age to take up apprenticeships and jobs, particularly the children of labourers, clerical workers and farmers, encounter fewer problems in finding a job than girls who continue to pursue general studies not geared to any particular job.

5. The role of women in consultative bodies

There are more women than men in parents' associations and on the schools councils on which parents are represented but at the head of these associations there are almost always men.

6. The role and distribution of women in executive positions in education
The following are the percentages of women at the head of educational establishments: pre-school 99.6%; primary school: 49.8%; secondary school: 25% (greater proportion in general secondary schools and a lower proportion in technical secondary schools).

7. New technologies

The new technologies are being used in all areas of education with no discrimination between girls and boys.

Ireland

1. The balance of the sexes

The ESRI (Economic and Social Research Institute) has just completed a very full report on school and the role of the sexes at the request of the Employment Equality Agency. This report stresses the vital importance of education with regard to the job chosen in later life. The Agency argues that equality of the sexes in employment can only be achieved if there is a change in educational and vocational training policy. Equality of opportunity in employment depends on equality of opportunity in education. On the basis of the ESRI report the Employment Equality Agency has submitted a detailed plan to the Ministry of Education on the promotion of equality of opportunity in education. This plan should be adopted both at governmental and local level.

(a) The balance of the sexes among teaching staff

More and more women opt for a career in teaching but only in certain branches. Subjects like mathematics, science, etc., are taught by men.

(b) The balance of the sexes in classes and lessons

Even in mixed schools a large number of courses are restricted to boys or girls. For example, in these schools girls have courses in home economics while boys have courses on technical subjects during these periods.

2. School textbooks

The ESRI study analyses in depth the impact of the stereotyped role of the sexes depicted in school textbooks.

3. Pilot schemes

A series of pilot schemes have been set up on the initiative of ANCO (Industrial

Training Authority) and have achieved good results as long as the environment (parents and teachers) encourages the young women. The ESRI report proposes that these experiments be stepped up in all fields which in the past have been restricted to boys.

4. Studies on the relationship between social background and the educational options chosen by children according to sex

The ESRI report shows that sex and social background are a determining factor in the choice of subjects and in leaving school early.

5. Leaving school early

The Ministry of Education provides figures for pupils who leave school early and those who finish their studies (according to branch of study).

G. Italy

1. The balance of the sexes

(a) Among teaching staff

The staff in kindergartens is 99% female but the recruitment of men is on the increase. The percentage of women staff decreases the further up the education system one goes.

(b) in classes and lessons

It is primarily in technical and vocational schools that lessons are given for the typically female jobs.

2. Pilot schemes

In the field of vocational training there are numerous pilot schemes to train women for non-traditional jobs. However, these experiments are not coordinated centrally despite their success.

3. Leaving school early

More girls than boys, 29% (boys 13%), leave school at the age of fifteen without any qualifications for a job.

4. The role and distribution of women in executive positions in education

Very few women hold the post of head.

5. New technologies

For several years the number of schools offering courses geared to the new

technologies has been increasing and in the Rome region there are plans to introduce data processing at the higher level of primary education.

Luxembourg

1. Balance of the sexes

(a) Among teaching staff

There is no differentiation on the basis of sex in recruitment except in pre-school education where the percentage of young men admitted to the relevant course of training varies from 5% to 7%. Thus the number of female candidates admitted to the teacher training college is far higher than that of male candidates. There is no differentiation in the training of teaching staff. The same is true of the placement of staff, but it must be said that women are more interested in pre-school education and teaching domestic science in secondary modern schools, and that men are more interested in other disciplines.

(b) The balance of the sexes in classes

Generally speaking mixed education is the rule in all state schools. Exceptions are made in various secondary school classes in woodwork and metalwork where girls are not found or are found in smaller numbers than boys.

2. School textbooks

School textbooks have now been revised but they still depict the stereotyped roles of the two sexes.

3. Pilot schemes

Very few pilot schemes are organized. In order to ensure greater equality of opportunity for women on the job market, two organizations have drawn up pilot training programmes in accordance with criteria established by CEDEFOP. The initiators of these two pilot schemes were the national Ministry of Education and the Ministry of the Armed Forces. The pilot scheme organized by the Ministry of the Armed Forces was set up because pursuant to the law of 11 January 1979, the careers of police officer and deputy officer, hitherto restricted to men, became open to women.

In the private sector no firms have so far offered any new specific course of training to ensure better integration of women into the job market. Most large firms if they do offer extra training, do so irrespective of sex.

However, there is a marked lack of enthusiasm for these courses amongst women. Therefore, most firms, even if they are in favour of extra training for women, are not very interested in drawing up specific programmes for them.

4. The role of women in consultative bodies

In parents' and teachers' associations the role and percentage of women vary. Even if they are not at the head of these organizations they are always represented on committees.

5. Role and distribution of women in executive positions in education

In Luxembourg there is no woman government counsellor nor any high-ranking female official in the national Ministry of Education. Men fill all ten posts. There was however, a woman appointed at the ministry about ten years ago but after a few years she gave up this post to look after her children.

In the technical high schools there are no female heads. In the twelve secondary schools there are two headmistresses. Of the thirteen inspectors of primary education three are female.

However, over the last few years women have been slowly beginning to assert themselves and to aspire to a career in executive positions.

6. New technologies

New technologies are beginning to appear in all courses with no distinction between boys and girls.

7. Differences between private and state education

In Luxembourg there are practically no differences between state education and private education which is subsidized by the state in any case and is subject to the same rules as those governing state education.

8. Specific problems

Immigrants: In Luxembourg the large number of children of immigrant parents is beginning to cause problems. The problems arise over the integration of these children into normal schools because of language, since a large number of subjects are taught in German. Some steps have been taken but they are inadequate. There are no specific measures for the education of immigrant girls.

The Netherlands

1. The balance of the sexes

(a) Among teaching staff

A balance of the sexes is the rule but in primary schools (4 to 6 years) the staff is predominantly female; in technical schools and for technical subjects in secondary schools, the staff is exclusively male. Domestic science courses in secondary schools and in domestic science colleges are taught exclusively by women.

(b) In classes, lessons and courses

All teaching is based on the principle of coeducation and all classes are mixed. In secondary schools, however, technical courses are taken almost exclusively by boys and practical domestic science courses almost exclusively by girls. In primary schools technical and craft lessons are sometimes given separately to boys and girls. Gym classes also are often held separately for boys and girls. For instance in these lessons boys are required to run faster and jump further than girls.

2. School textbooks

Over the last few years various studies have been made into the stereotyped nature of the books used in various lessons. A special committee was set up by the Ministry of Education and Science to try to improve school textbooks. This committee drew up a special questionnaire which it sent in 1982 to the various publishers to assess the stereotyped nature of school textbooks.

3. Pilot schemes

A number of attempts have been made and since 1973 the 'Mary Word Wijzer' foundation has been giving subsidies for the organization of experimental courses in this area. Another foundation 'Tijd voor school' has worked primarily on the better organization of time spent at school and time spent on holiday. Since August 1979 a series of pilot schemes has been launched throughout the education system to improve equality of opportunity for girls.

Instructions are given to teachers to promote the liberation of young girls. In 1980 a contact committee for the liberation of women in education was set up in the national Ministry of Education and Science. All these experiments have shown promising results proving that these experiments should be continued until genuine equality of opportunity in education for girls is achieved.

4. Studies on the relationship between social background and the educational options chosen by children according to sex

The Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) is currently making a study of this subject as regards apprentices in secondary schools on the basis of statistics kept since 1977-78.

5. Leaving school early

According to the statistics, girls do not pursue advanced secondary or university education for as long as boys, but they do stay in ordinary secondary education for as long as boys. Girls generally leave full-time school education earlier than boys (46% of women to 28% of men).

6. Role and distribution in executive positions in education

In pre-school education, 99.9% of teachers are women. Of all the headships held in the primary sector 3.9% are held by women and 96.1% by men (1979-80). In secondary education 2.9% of heads are women and 97.1% are men. However, in establishments where domestic science is taught, women hold 46.8% of the headships and men 53.2%.

J. The United Kingdom

1. The balance of the sexes

(a) Among teaching staff

Under the 1975 Sex Discrimination Act (SDA) any discrimination on the basis of sex over recruitment, training or placement of teaching staff is illegal. There are two exceptions, namely the training and recruitment of physical education teachers and the recruitment and training of teachers whose work entails physical contact or proximity, as, for example, in boarding schools or special schools for pupils with specific needs. In general, more women than men choose teaching (in 1978 59% of full-time teachers).

Female teaching staff are concentrated in the pre-school (99%) and primary (77%) sectors, and efforts are being made to recruit male staff. In general secondary education women account for 44% of the teaching staff. The technical subjects in the sixth form are traditionally taught by men to male pupils although a change is beginning to become apparent and girls are now learning woodwork, metalwork and CDT (craft, design and technology). In higher education (university) women represent only 10% of the staff and are concentrated in the lower grades. They

represent only 3% of staff with professional status.

(b) The balance of the sexes in classes and courses

The education system in the United Kingdom comprises mixed schools and single sex schools. Under the Sex Discrimination Act there must be no difference as regards the subject and the quality of the lessons given to girls and boys apart from competitive sports. In mixed secondary modern and technical schools classes are mixed for almost all subjects with two exceptions: one being physical education and sports, the other, craft subjects which are generally taught in single sex groups, as they were before the passing of the Sex Discrimination Act.

(c) Research and studies

There has been a certain amount of research into the relative advantages of mixed schools and single sex schools, but none of them has shown conclusively that mixed schools promote equality¹.

2. School textbooks

During 1979 a working party of the Council of Publishers of Schoolbooks was asked to study the male and female stereotypes in schools and textbooks. The report submitted in 1981 gives a list of references and definitions of stereotypes and advice on how to avoid them. The Girls and Mathematics Association which considered the whole question found that schoolbooks reinforced the stereotyped idea that mathematics were a male discipline. The Association wrote to all publishers to point out that their books were aggravating this situation and to invite them to eliminate sexism and stereotypes when they came to reprint books and publish new ones.

In 1981, the EOC submitted a report to a committee of the House of Commons to the same effect.

3. Pilot schemes

There have been a whole series of pilot schemes, e.g.:

- GIST (scientific and technical studies for girls)

This is a four year research project (1979-1983) which aims to encourage girls to choose scientific and technological careers.

- DAS (anti-sexist strategies)

This project aims to identify and eliminate implicit and explicit sex discrimination in the courses at the two mixed schools in Hackney:

¹R.R. Dale, works on the question of mixed schools published from 1969 to 1974 in three volumes; Spender and Sarah publ. (see original P.23 for footnote)

Clissold Park and Woodberry Down. It was designed jointly by the EOC and the ILEA.

- Hackney Down - courses in preparation for life - initiating boys in non-traditional subjects.

4. Studies on the relationship between social background and educational options chosen by children according to sex

The GIST Project has compiled information on social class but the results will not be available before 1983 at the earliest. The ILEA is currently carrying out research into the failure of girls, of working class children and children of ethnic minorities to take up opportunities.

5. Early school leaving throughout the educational system

Department of Education statistics published in 1983 show that there are various broad trends namely: in 1981 to 1982 more girls than boys followed full-time courses of study after the age of 16 (20% of girls - 13% of boys); it is rare for girls to find a job which gives them the opportunity to take one day off a week to follow a vocational training course (4% of girls - 11% of boys); more boys than girls however, go into higher education (41,000 boys - 31,000 girls).

6. The role and percentage of women in consultative and cooperative bodies in education

Following a survey of the organizations appearing in the 1982 Education Year book, the EOC found that in consultative and cooperative organizations men outnumber women on average by 10 to one. This figure is due to the fact that some organizations employ one woman for 40 men, while others have one woman for every four men. If a woman is active in this area, it is rarely in a position of authority; in other organizations such as parents' associations, women hold more of the senior posts, on average one for every two held by men.

7. The role and distribution of women in executive posts in education

Throughout the educational system women hold 38% of headships. In the primary sector they hold 43%, in general secondary education only 1%.

8. New technologies

The British Government has recently been encouraging the purchase and use of information technology in teaching by providing secondary schools, and more recently higher education establishments, with the requisite financial aid.

The government wishes to have a generation of schoolchildren who know how to use the software and hardware and who are also aware of the social, economic and political implications of information technology on society in general. With this end in view, the Ministries of Industry and Education and Science have taken additional steps to promote the purchase and use of micro-technology in primary and secondary schools, namely a project entitled 'micro-technology in schools' and a plan for micro-electronics in the curriculum (MEP).

Difference between private and state education

Most private schools are governed by statutes or charitable organizations. Under Article 43 of the Sex Discrimination Act, the provisions of these bodies on the granting of privileges to persons of one sex or another take precedence over the provisions of the Sex Discrimination Act. Under their statutes mixed private schools are thus empowered to treat boys and girls differently. Statistics indicate that girls studying in private schools - and in non-mixed state schools - achieve better results in mathematics, physics and in sciences generally.

IV - ASPECTS OF EDUCATION IN THE COMMUNITY

The EEC Treaty does not deal directly with education, but it can be seen from the chapter on social measures, Articles 117 and 118, that, in order to improve living and working conditions, it is the Commission's responsibility to encourage close cooperation between Member States in various areas including basic and advanced vocational training. In all Member States vocational training is closely linked to the education system and whether or not the field of education is an area in which the Community has responsibility depends on the wishes of the Member States, according to whether a broad or narrow interpretation is taken.

The Ministers of Education of the Member States have at any rate met on numerous occasions in the Council of Ministers and the most important resolution, on women, was adopted on 9 February 1976. They declared: 'The achievement of equality of opportunity for free access to all forms of education is an essential aim of the education policies of all the Member States and its importance must be stressed in conjunction with other economic or social policies, in order to achieve equality of opportunity in society'. As regards the education of women, this resolution was the practical outcome of the Council resolution of 21 January 1974 on a social action programme. It is interesting to note that following this resolution of 21 January 1974, the Commission attached to its memorandum of 12 February 1975, on the equality of male and female workers, a proposal for a Council directive on the implementation of the principle of equality of treatment which, under Article 3, aimed to do away with the remaining discrimination against women in respect of access to education, vocational guidance and initial and advanced vocational training and retraining. The Commission was of the opinion that equality of opportunity in employment depended on equal training opportunities which, in practical terms, should consist of comparable teaching and academic and careers guidance, together with equality of opportunity for access to and acquisition of basic and advanced vocational training and retraining. Article 3 of the proposal for a directive states that 'the implementation of the principle of equal treatment in regard to vocational training requires access to all levels of general education, initial and advanced vocational training and retraining'.

When, on 9 February 1976, the Council adopted this directive, it endorsed only the application of the principle of equal treatment in respect of careers guidance and vocational training and declared in the minutes accompanying the adoption of the directive that the progress to be made in this area was closely allied to the question of equality of opportunity for boys and girls in educational and vocational training. The Council thus clearly showed that it did not wish to harmonize education by means of a directive.

The work of the Education Committee which prepares the meetings of Ministers of Education meeting within the Council nevertheless continued to deal with the problems of the education of girls, especially as regards the transition from school to work. When the Council of Education Ministers adopted on 13 December 1976 an action programme dealing largely with measures to be taken to prepare young people for working life and to ease their transition from study to working life, it mentioned the need to draw up and formulate specific action to guarantee equality of opportunity in education for girls.

Given the Council's refusal to deal with the matter of the education of girls in a directive, the Commission proceeded to examine the extent, type and nature of inequalities in the education and training of girls, especially at secondary school level.

On the basis of this work, and especially of the report by Dr Byrne, the Commission forwarded to the Council, on 2 October 1978, a communication whose purpose was to identify the specific areas in which it would be possible to take common action, as advocated by the resolution of 9 February 1976.

The rise in unemployment among girls and young women in all Member States constituting a direct consequence of inadequate vocational preparation, made this problem even more urgent.

At the Council meeting of 27 June 1980, agreement was reached on the form of the action to be taken at the level both of the Community and of the Member States on preparing girls for life at work and equality of opportunity for girls and boys in society.

It was agreed that Member States would, amongst other things, undertake to support initiatives to eliminate the stereotyped patterns of attributing roles according to sex in teaching material, to foster the implementation of specific programmes designed to encourage girls to consider a broader range of occupations and to promote a fuller realization of this problem by teachers and careers guidance officers.

At the Community level, it was planned to encourage such measures at the national level by means of studies and exchanges of experience regarding, amongst other things, the analysis of the effect of coeducational teaching, the training of training instructors, the assessment of compensatory programmes, the role of the mass media, and the particular problems of certain ethnic and cultural groups.

The permanent representatives responsible for considering these questions have not yet been able to adopt the necessary acts for implementing the measures on which the Council has agreed.

On 22 June 1981, the Council and the Education Ministers meeting in Luxembourg expressed their deep concern about unemployment and stressed that particular emphasis should be placed on measures to help the daughters and wives of migrant workers.

Since then, certain Council resolutions have been adopted but consideration of the latest resolution, adopted on 3 June 1983, shows that there has been little progress. Indeed, this resolution recommends that, in the field of education, attention should be paid most particularly to the specific needs of girls in order to enable them to acquire qualifications giving access to vocational training and to broaden the range of careers open to them.

Requests by the European Parliament in both the resolution of 11 February 1981 and the resolution of 12 May 1982 for a Community education policy for girls, have thus been largely ignored by the Council and to a certain extent also forgotten by the Commission, since in its New Action Programme, it makes no more than a tentative reference to the education of women (points 10 and 11) by suggesting that the necessary action on this matter should be taken by Member States.

It could therefore be said that some of the Commission's courage has fallen by the wayside. In 1975, it stated, in a draft directive, that equal treatment also implied equal treatment in education. On 9 December 1981, the Commission expressed the view that it was up to Member States to ensure equal treatment.

While this attitude can be criticized, it is no doubt difficult to deal with a matter at Community level against the wishes of Member States. However, it is to be regretted that the Commission has acted in this way given that, as far back as 1975, it was aware that equality of opportunity in matters of employment depended on equality of opportunity in education and vocational training.

V - FINAL COMMENTS BY THE RAPPORTEUR

Any fundamental change in a society can only be achieved through a change in the education system. The rapporteur, therefore, takes the view that liberation and equality of opportunity for women can only be achieved if equality of opportunity is guaranteed in education. However, a child obviously receives the foundation of his education at a very early age within the family. It is thus important to make an effort both at Community and national level to ensure that the notion of equality of opportunity in education becomes current within the family, with the aid of the modern media (particularly television) so that a genuine change in attitudes is achieved. This effort to change people's attitudes needs to be made not only at national level, but also at Community level, with the help of the mass media in particular.

The rapporteur, having studied the situation in the Member States, considers that while some items of legislation still need to be changed the main problem is to bring about a change in attitudes. Community action in the field of education is a tricky matter: firstly because the EEC Treaty, on a literal interpretation, gives no legal basis for it, and secondly because some Member States want to keep this area outside the Community's terms of reference, and with reason, as a Europe which is completely uniform in the cultural and spiritual field is not a desirable goal. It would be desirable, however, to take joint action to ensure equal opportunity for women while respecting the diversity and richness of the Member States' cultures and their rights and powers in this domain.

As the impact of a reform of the education system cannot be measured solely in terms of legislation passed but also in terms of the manner in which it is applied, care must be taken to ensure that in practice legislation is applied in such a way as to achieve satisfactory results.

One aim seems essential in education: the education and training of boys and girls must inculcate in them an equal sense of responsibility in respect of their obligations both towards society and towards the family, in order to make them equal partners capable of adopting a critical and constructive attitude both with regard to the problems of society and to their role as parents and educators.

Action could thus be taken on various fronts:

1. Scientific, sociological and educational studies should be carried out to establish whether the rate of intellectual development and the propensity to study do in fact differ according to sex, and, if so, to what extent this difference is the product of conscious or unconscious conditioning.
2. A study should also be made (as none of the existing studies is conclusive) into whether co-education (which is generally practised in all the Member States) is in fact more likely to promote equal opportunity for women, and whether and to what extent it is detrimental to sexual equality, with a view to establishing what changes could be made to this system to eliminate the conditioning to which boys and girls are inevitably subject from childhood by the very fact of the sex of the teachers they see most and the staff teaching certain subjects, and by virtue of the subjects and careers towards which they are directed.
3. A standard programme for the training of teachers should be drawn up at Community level to make them more fully aware of the under-representation of women in leading positions in society in general and in the education system in particular, drawing attention to the fact that at present a large amount of intellectual, cultural and political potential is not being exploited.
4. A survey should also be made of the depiction of women in school textbooks and teaching material. Despite the fact that almost all of the Member States are currently considering this matter, the rapporteur has the impression that this is not being done in a sufficiently systematic and scientific manner to achieve anything in practice.

The Community should intervene and draw up a list of stereotypes in teaching materials which should be avoided.

In the course of his enquiry, the rapporteur found that four categories of problems which seem important to him are largely ignored in all the work done towards the emancipation of women in the Member States:

- there is no adequate training for responsible parenthood, either for girls or for boys. In general only the question of motherhood is covered;
- there is no adequate training nor sufficient opportunity for continuing education for women who opt freely to stay at home to bring up children;
- there is not sufficient opportunity for retraining courses and incentives for women who wish to take up work again after some time out of work to bring up their children;
- there is not sufficient discussion of the possibility of widening the range of subjects open to boys, or of policies likely to encourage boys to choose less traditional courses of study or careers.

The rapporteur would also like to make certain points which are valid for many Member States and which were brought to his attention by teachers' associations and parents' associations:

1. The growing predominance of women on the teaching staff which is reaching alarming proportions given that a child should encounter a representative proportion of the two sexes in education and not only women. Moreover, a 'feminine' profession is often undervalued.
2. Criticism is levelled at the fact that boys and girls are put in the same classes according to their age (date of birth). If courses in say sciences on the one hand, and arts on the other were planned over three or four years and children allowed to follow the course at their own speed, this would be more compatible with the intellectual development of girls and boys who do not usually develop intellectually at the same rate in the same subjects. Mixed education should go beyond simply putting children of both sexes together and should allow both sexes the opportunity to develop fully at their own pace in line with their own aspirations and their own abilities. The age of puberty is not the same for boys and girls. Equal opportunity for all children - boys and girls - requires educational structures which would permit all children to develop at their own pace, according to their aspirations and their abilities.

3. Teaching girls technical skills and sciences is far more difficult in certain fields. There are fashions: all girls want to do woodwork for a few years, and then something else, or something else again. But in general they are not very enthusiastic about technical and 'industrial' subjects. Experience in other countries which we have been able to observe (for example in the East) has shown that the tastes and skills of girls were not altered much by their being obliged to do technical work like the boys.

Experience over about 20 years and in about 20 countries has shown that we must tread carefully in this area. There are types of manual and technical work in which boys are very interested and which leave most girls cold. A minority is interested and in 20 years this minority has not grown significantly in certain fields, such as engineering, whereas it has grown significantly in other fields such as chemistry and biology.

A study of the attitudes of girls and young women when choosing a course of study or a career shows that many of them are still victims of unconscious conditioning. Every effort should be made - continuous vocational training, aptitude tests, campaigns designed to inform and advise young men and women - to encourage both groups to choose careers which match their skills and tastes, even if they are not traditional for their sex.

4. Experience has shown that women are perfectly capable of continuing their studies, or retraining, after periods spent bearing or bringing up their children. Adequate facilities for retraining or refresher courses should be ensured for all women, whether they have an occupation outside the home or not, to enable them to play a more active role in society and, if they wish, to be more acceptable on the job market, particularly by training them in the new technologies.

It would also be desirable to improve the facilities for vocational training or guidance available to young people and women at times when such facilities are most needed, and particularly on returning to work after a period devoted to family obligations or childbirth.

5. In an age where unemployment is high, and where new technology is making its appearance, continuous vocational training must be a basic element in education and retraining. At present, training is generally given in a fairly unsystematic and sometimes old-fashioned manner, simply reinforcing the stereotyped roles instead of reflecting social developments by adapting skills to the new types of jobs available.

COMMITTEE OF INQUIRY INTO THE SITUATION
OF WOMEN IN EUROPE

Topic No. 18
of the report of inquiry
on

THE POSITION OF WOMEN IN DECISION-MAKING CENTRES

Rapporteur: Mrs M.A. MACCIOCCHI

17 December 1983

At its meeting of 27 and 28 April 1982 the Committee of Inquiry decided to add an 18th topic to its list of 17 topics of inquiry, 'Place of women in universities, cultural infrastructures and the media (radio, television, newspapers)' assigned to Mrs MACCIOCCI, and considered a working document by the rapporteur.

The title of the report on this topic has been changed to 'The position of women in decision-making centres'.

The conclusions of the draft report were considered at the meeting of 21 and 22 November 1983 and adopted by 7 votes to 1.

Present: Mrs Cinciari-Rodano, chairman; Mrs Vayssade and Mrs Lenz, vice-chairmen; Mrs Macciocchi, rapporteur; Mr Nord (deputizing for Mrs Martin), Mrs Phlix (deputizing for Mrs Maij-Weggen), Mrs Squarcialupi and Mrs Wieczorek-Zeul.

The report of inquiry was considered at the meeting of 29 and 30 November

A. Paragraphs to be inserted into the final motion for a resolution

The European Parliament,

(a) Notes that

- an analysis of the figures indicating the percentage of women in top jobs in the ten Member States - in government institutions, parliaments, trade unions, universities, management positions in the mass media, the judiciary, diplomatic services and major cultural organizations - indicates overall progress compared with the past;
- this progress is however insufficient and varies widely according to the sectors analysed and the countries examined;
- women in particular continue to remain in a minority in decision-making centres, to the point where in some instances there is a total absence of women;
- discrimination between men and women increases the higher one rises in the hierarchy of government, parliamentary, cultural and university institutions, in the diplomatic services and in the information and mass media sector so that women ultimately fall back on traditionally feminine sectors;

(b) Proposes that the Commission, the Council and the Member States examine with the closest possible attention this discrimination against women, undertake detailed inquiries into this problem, take initiatives to promote awareness in political circles, in public opinion and among women themselves and adopt constructive measures to enable equality of opportunity to become a reality at the level of decision-making centres;

(c) Calls on the Commission to create scholarships for advanced studies to help women reach the highest levels of political, social, scientific, intellectual and artistic activity;

(d) Suggests that the Commission sponsor a European conference as part of the action programme on equality of opportunity, with the aim of identifying the measures and initiatives which need to be taken to achieve a fairer representation of women in leading positions in the political, cultural and social life of the ten Member States.

EXPLANATORY STATEMENT

THE POSITION OF WOMEN IN DECISION-MAKING CENTRES.

1 - Introductory remark

1.1 - The aim of report N° 18 of the Committee of enquiry on the position of the woman in Europe : "The position of women in decision-making centres", is to examine the participation of women in the exercise of responsibilities at the highest level in decision-making centres which are to be considered as political, social and cultural superstructures, i.e. where consensus is born at the root of a society existing both as a given entity, the fruit of a certain evolution, and as a world in evolution.

1.2 - It is a question of,
with regard to decision-making centres, i.e. :

the governments,
the political parties,
the trade-unions,
the mass-media,
the major cultural centres (museums, exhibition and
human interest centres, etc.),
the diplomatic service,
the magistrature,

of examining the position accorded to women, i.e. the rank they occupy and their level of responsibility.

It is a question of

- with regard to universities and higher education in general, such as for examples the 'Grandes Ecoles' in France, as well as university research institutes, examining the position accorded to women in relation to their grade and level of responsibility

- (a) in the teaching profession
- (b) in university administration (rectorship, educational authority) and in the administration of university colleges and university research institutes.

1.3 The rapporteur has restricted her inquiry to the categories mentioned above. The position occupied by women in economic decision-making centres, namely in enterprises, deserves a separate study since with the obvious exception of the nationalized sectors, private wealth or inheritance is often the principle explanation behind the positions occupied. This is rarely an important factor in the cases studied in this report.

Otherwise the rapporteur has looked at the question from a political standpoint for genuinely equal participation by women in the exercise of responsibility at the highest levels.

2 - Method of operation :

2.1 - Our enquiry intended basing itself on answers to the questions we have directed,

- a) to the Commission three general Directories which are in charge of questions regarding,
- higher education,
 - social affairs,
 - information.

But, right from the first contacts, it has been apparent that the Commission does not have any data available.

- b) to the govern ments,

- on the number of women occupying positions of high responsibility in the areas indicated under their jurisdiction, and on the percentage of women in these functions.
- on the rank given to women in the different levels, and asking for precision on the functions occupied.
- on possible intentions to establish a minimum percentage of positions reserved for women in sectors directly or indirectly depending on the State.

2.2 - Furthermore, we have consulted different organisations,

- a) ministries competent in the sectors of,
 - higher education or teaching,
 - the feminine condition or women's rights,
 - justice,
 - foreign affairs,
 - cultural affairs,
 - communication or information.
- b) political parties,
- c) trade-unions,
- d) women's associations,
- e) organs of the press, radio and television.

2.3 - Nevertheless our research ran into a lack of readiness to answer us in the majority of organisations questioned, both at an official level and at the level of our direct enquiry. Many Member-States have only supplied incomplete answers to the questions asked by the Committee of enquiry on the position of the woman in Europe.

Thus, the overall evaluation which we have arrived at cannot be taken as an absolute rule.

In this report, some countries are more present than others, either because their answers reached us more quickly, notably due to the fact that there are specific ministries for women (such as France), or because the rapporteur was able to carry out the enquiry on the spot.

2.4 - But the value of this enquiry results from its newness. The diversity of information which we have brought together may give rise to numerous reflections and new researches in the debate on the position given to women at the highest levels. In fact we could not have presented such significant figures concerning hierarchical segregations (vertical) or by sectors (horizontal) if we had not requested and obtained detailed answers concerning, for instance, the CNRS (Centre national de la recherche scientifique) in France, the RAI (radio-television) in Italy, the trade-unions in the Netherlands or also the diplomatic service in Great Britain.

This report should allow a first list of quantitative information about the visible part of the iceberg of the institutions within the societies of the European Community. It will give a more accurate and less vague picture than that offered us by articles drowned in the mass of everyday information.

The sparse data contained in everybody's usual information find their coherence, herewith, because this results from a reflection with respect to the position occupied by women in power spheres.

Undoubtedly one could object that some facts which we are presenting are known. Yet, there had never been such structured work on this question before that undertaken by the Committee of enquiry on the position of women.

3 - The stages in the access of women to decision-making centres

3.1 - We could summarise access of women to decision-making centres in three successive phases.

3.2 - The presence of women in leading positions and their determination to play a role other than as a walk on, clearly became evident just after the second world war. The right to vote was then gained in France (1944) and Italy (1945), then soon reached Greece (1952). In Paris, in 1947, a real ministry, that of Health, was for the first time entrusted to a woman, Mme Poinso-Chapuis, while in 1936, Mme Irène Juliot-Curie, Nobel prize winner in physics, had only been under-secretary of State for scientific research.

During the conflict, many women had taken part in the Resistance, notably in Italy and in France, either in combat formations, or in networks for the clandestine fight. Other women, in Northern European countries, had enlisted in the armies formed in Great-Britain, particularly amongst the exiles. Many of these women joined political parties at the same time or later, while also creating specific women's organisations. Nevertheless, these organisations remained within the spheres of influence of major formations of the different obediences.

For more than two decades tense discussions between the parties and the women's organisations remaining in their respective zones of influence, as female members requested that they be treated equally at work, in law, in institutions as well as in their participation in political life. This was a period

of decisive victories, from a legislative point of view because most rights were eventually recognised for women.

However, these women supported less and less discriminations of all kinds, both at work and within the framework of social life. Also, they sought new opportunities to assert their liberty, so as not to remain minorities in institutions, nor excluded from processes presiding over the destinies of the State which they belonged to.

During these years of gestation or incubation of feminism, women remained to a certain extent in the calm of the eye of the hurricane. They only broke away following the important movements in 1968.

During this social explosion, student and trade-union movements, as well as official institutions, ignored the aspirations of women and the women did not immediately claim their identity as women. They did not appear as specific protagonists.

And yet the ideas formed in the spring of 1968, notably because they expressed rejection of the State and traditional organisations, inspired many women to ways of action and, in 1969, feminism surged into the forefront of the scene.

3.3 - It was at this time that the second stage started, that of militant feminism which continued to claim equality for women, but also state its refusal to share power.

The movement even proclaimed its disgust of masculine power and its "phallocratic" characteristics. It not only turned its back on politics but also on all activities carried out in the highest spheres, because women there were isolated in a masculine world and could not provide intellectual work other than in this environment.

For this reason, those women who held important positions in the institutions were accused by feminist militants of collaborating in structures of male domination.

An autonomous world was seen created, where universities for women, libraries for women and a number of exclusive institutions came into being. These parallel structures were aimed at establishing a culture and education belonging solely to women and thanks to which they could assert total independence.

Thus, this period was characterised by a rejection of politics by women. They endeavoured to reduce to nothing the apartheid which they were victims of by developing a world of women cut off from the world conceived by man. But,

by imposing their own apartheid, they fell back into the trap of segregation.

Nevertheless, this phase was animated by an enormous potential of creative energy, despite what constituted its historical limit, i.e. the separatist claim, the extolling of the feminine identity expressed by the refusal of the other and this proclaimed intention not to share masculine power considered, as well as politics, as repugnant and dirty.

Despite, or because of this limited framework one saw personalities born whereas feminine timidity vanished. One saw courage show through the spoken-word and blossom in the written-word, seeking a language founding a new truth. Divorce, abortion, sexual freedom, were posted as claims.

The society of women was henceforth crossed by the feminist cyclone which swept away patriarchal archetypes. Above all, the tornado triggered off a molecular revolution in female thinking, at an individual level.

This second stage which began after 1968, continued for about ten years and ended, one could say, in 1979, at the time of the election of the first European Parliament. Indeed, this date has a symbolic value : not only did the women in the whole of the Community take part in the poll, but also the result of the vote gave more than 16 % of seats to women which, at a national level, had never been seen in the history

of the Ten except for Denmark. Moreover, is it necessary to be reminded, the presidency of this Assembly, representing 270 million inhabitants has, since its beginning, been entrusted to a woman, Mme Simone Weil.

*

3.4 - The beginning of the third phase is thus relatively recent. At the end of the previous phase, women progressively had to renounce the dogma of exiling politics. On the one hand, because feminism had structured itself as an "institution" and, was integrating itself, be it over its deadbody, into institutionalised society; and on the other hand, because leading feminist figures had come to consider that the cause of women would not advance without there being imperative relations with the university, politics, diplomatic services, the magistrature, etc.

This last period was thus one of reconciling feminism with politics, a reconciliation made possible by the change of attitude of the States themselves. Because societies in each country had been impressed by the unprecedented power of the feminist movement throughout Europe. They had finally taken the ideas that the feminist movement was conveying seriously. Also, even during the second stage, the power opened its doors wider, having become aware of the intellectual and creative role that women could play, the importance of their words, the echo they had found in society.

In France, in 1974, women again acceded to the rank of minister, for Health, as in 1947, but also later, for Work, for Universities, for the Feminine Condition then, in 1981, for Solidarity, for Agriculture, for Women's Rights, for Youth and for Sport and finally, in 1983, for Foreign Trade. In the Federal Republic of Germany, in 1972, the Bundestag elected a woman, Mrs Renger, as President. In Italy in 1979, the deputies elected Mrs Leonilde Jotti to the presidency of their Chamber, which was a world first.

The same year, the British conservatives in no way feared submitting the choice of a woman, Mrs Margaret Thatcher as Prime Minister to the electoral sanction of their compatriots. At the European level, in 1981, Mrs Rozès, a Presiding Judge in the High Court of France was appointed Assistant Prosecutor at the Court of Justice of the European Communities.

Thus, the turning point was the year 1979, marked especially by the entry of women into this new citadel of Europe which is the European Parliament. Those women elected to this assembly have a virtually unprecedented position, compared with national representatives. With this vote, Europe awoke to feminine sensitivities.

Nevertheless, the importance of this feminine presence (nearly 17 %) in the assembly of Strasbourg emphasises more emphatically, as our enquiry shows, the smallness of the position reserved for women in the national governments of the Ten. Out of a total of 187 ministers, in the Community there are only 16 women, i.e. 8.5 %; and out of 222 secretaries and under-secretaries of State, there are also only 16 women i.e. 7.1 %.

The European Commission itself is exclusively male despite an explicit vote in the European Assembly to ask that female representatives of the national governments should accede to this level of responsibility.

In a more general perspective, women, at the beginning of this third phase, showed their desire to renew their relations with politics. No longer satisfied with penetrating this field via sectors traditionally classed as feminine, they sought to widen their positions in the governments and in spheres most reserved for men, such as the diplomatic services, the magistrature or the media.

The phenomenon is recent, but even though constraints of private, family or social life remain for them, women are henceforth casting their eye to this horizon, that of the direction of affairs. They demand to reach it, to penetrate it in order to put their weight with all their responsibility on the most important decisions.

3.5 - The very action of this report by the Committee of enquiry on the position of the woman in Europe bears further witness to this new attitude by taking up the task recording the positions occupied by women at the highest levels. Such behaviour would have been totally foreign to the 'old-style' feminism.

3.6 - But other indications of this new assertion can be found elsewhere.

So, for instance, one can read in France in "La revue d'en face", published by the women's Liberation Movement (N° 14 - autumn 1983) :

... "I believe that now we have all felt the need, after a phase in which we had displayed and denounced the scorn, oblivion and ignorance in which we had been held, to turn these outlooks around, to fill what was missing, to pour light on the shadows left by our absence (or our false presence) in masculine culture; we must find our place in History again, reinscribe ourselves and make our existence felt in every field, in every discipline" ...

Catherine Sofer (p.89)

At the 5th Convention of socialist women, held on 11 - 13 November 1983 at Aquila in Italy, on the theme "A new phase for Europe" it was stated, amongst others :

"Being a woman today means being "in" and not "out", i.e. inside and not outside institutions; inside and not outside centres of power; inside and not outside productive and intellectual life. There results the necessity to think and to act differently than restricting oneself to claiming and having as outlook, having ourselves accepted as protagonist in the new phase of political and intellectual life in Europe. Historically just, the phase of simple demands is irremediably over and done with"...

"The ambition of women" is henceforth clearly claimed. The writer and philosopher, Elisabeth Badinter, in 1983, made it the subject of an historical essay dealing with the expression of this feeling in the age of enlightenment.

Elisabeth Badinter shows in this book how the idea of women's ambition was constantly rejected because it disturbed the postulate according to which the woman was "by nature" devoted to reproduction, and the man "by his specificity", destined to creation.

4 - Promoting equal opportunities

4.1 - Our century began with a statement that had never been as famous as it was betrayed, claiming that any cook could lead the State.

Indeed, if it is true that various Constitutions of the Ten accept women as being equal to men; if it is true that this principle is largely accepted and even if it is true to say that many laws have been made in order to correct discrepancies between men and women, it remains that law does not overcome the barrier of facts : many sectors are still the hunting grounds for men and access of women to the highest echelons are still an event because they are so uncommon. The opportunities offered to the two sexes are not the same.

Today, although there are positive signs of the promotion of women at the highest levels, for example when one sees present Greece constitute a special Committee for problems for women under the aegis of the Prime Minister; or when one sees in Italy the appointment of a woman as under-secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, it must also be noted that it is essentially a political determination expressed by governments or parties in power, but it hardly exceeds this framework.

It is the equality of opportunities that must be promoted and achieved as a process. Such is the sense of the resolution on the position of the woman in European Community adopted by the Parliament in Strasbourg on February 11, 1981

Extracts from the resolution of the European Parliament on February 11 1981 on

THE POSITION OF THE WOMEN IN THE COMMUNITY.

The European Parliament,

....

- whereas the historical evolution of civilisation in general and the appearance of modern industrialised societies have not yet, in any country in the world, allowed the woman to be taken out of the subordinate role she has played over the centuries, and has often led to new forms of fringe life and new imbalances,

- whereas this situation must be considered as being unacceptable ...

- whereas the elimination of all forms of discrimination and oppression to the detriment of the woman is the condition sine qua non of the establishment of a more just and advanced social order and, consequently, of the improvement of living and working conditions for the citizens, in accordance with the desire formulated in the preamble of the treaty establishing the European Economic Community,

....

(OJ N° C 50 of 11.2.81, p.35 and 36)

....

- whereas it falls on the Community to implement a wide-ranging policy able to abolish legal inequalities between men and women, to eliminate obstacles preventing full development of their personality and to guarantee everyone the freedom to fully develop themselves, according to his/her own aspirations and to combine the family task and the social role to his/her liking

consequently requests that the action of the European Economic Community with regard to woman should not be limited to the adoption of specific directives and to interventions from the European social fund ... but that a far-reaching policy be implemented in the agricultural, industrial, social and regional sector as well as in the development sector and in that of external relations, with a view to encouraging :

....

....

- equal opportunities of women in access to education and professional activities.

....

(OJ N° 50 of 11.2.81, p.39)

5 - General characteristics of the position of women in decision-making centres :

5.1 - Even if the process for equal opportunities is underway, it is far from having reached its term.

The analysis of fragmentary and sometimes dissimilar data that the rapporteur has been able to gather, corroborates an obvious fact, i.e. that there are few or no women in positions of high responsibility in the different sectors which were the subject of the enquiry.

5.2 - It appears that the higher one rises in the hierarchy the smaller is the proportion of women with respect to men. This phenomenon characterises what can be called a vertical segregation.

5.3 - To this it can be added that women excluding those who occupy overall managerial functions, are to be found essentially in the social and cultural sectors. This is particularly the case of women who are entrusted with important responsibilities, such as department heads, in the written or spoken press. It is also the case of women elected in political assemblies who are numerous in committees responsible for social and cultural sectors. In governments, female ministers do not normally leave these sectors. Likewise, in universities

women holding a professor's chair are, rather found, in disciplines such as literature, law, and in minute numbers in the exact sciences, such as mathematics or physics.

This second phenomenon characterises a horizontal segregation which is explained both by the choices made by women themselves and by the mentalities that appoint "traditionally" feminine assignments to women.

5.4 - Among the reasons put forward to explain the reduced promotion of women, one hears it stated that they have little ambition and that they lack the competitive spirit to make a career. On the other hand, if women testify to a vitality equal to that of men, they are often blamed as being aggressive and lacking in femininity.

Also put forward are their absenteeism, their lack of availability to travel or to comply with the schedules enforced although the facts often contradict this prejudiced idea.

Even if the charm factor is less important than before, it must be noted that in european countries, women continue to be employed in terms of their image, which is particularly the case in television, where, despite an evolution, they are primarily presenters and far less champions of an idea than their male associates.

Let us also remember that "female timidity" is very often the expression of solitude in the middle of an exclusively masculine environment.

5.5 - These observations made, changes are slow but positive. They seem to be most marked in the magistrature. The percentage of women in this sector is increasing, notably in the entry into this profession, and, through the effect of more equal regulations than elsewhere, women will see their opportunities of reaching the summit of the hierarchy enhanced.

5.6 - To the question of knowing if it was being considered establishing minimum quota for top level positions in order to guarantee the participation of women, the answers which reached us have all been negative, with one exception, from the Netherlands where it is foreseen reestablishing a certain balance in favour of women by this means.

6. - Observations on the position of women in each of the sectors examined.

6.1 - University

6.1.1 - The University offers the clearest example of double segregation, vertical (hierarchical) and horizontal (in terms of faculties or fields of research).

This emerges perfectly from the data which was sent to us from Germany, Great Britain, France and the Netherlands.

6.1.2 - Germany has only 1491 women out of its 28 220 professors in University and University Colleges, i.e. an overall proportion of 5.28 %.

But this percentage falls to 2.39 % for the exact sciences (mathematics, physics, chemistry, engineering) and down to 0.33 % for mathematics exclusively, where only two women are holders of a chair in mathematics.

On the other hand, nearly two thirds of women holding chairs at University teach the human sciences (languages, culture, philosophy, history) or economics and the social sciences. For each of these two categories, the percentage of women does not exceed 8.5 %.

6.1.3 - In Great Britain, out of 3,742 titular professors at University, only 102 i.e. less than 3 % are women. None of them reach the grade of University vice-chancellor.

If one leaves a strictly university framework, in the teaching body in Great Britain one meets only 1 % of women professors in engineering, 2 % in architecture, but 25 % in commercial and administrative subjects and 33 % in art disciplines. In general, in the human sciences and in those relating to health, at least one professor out of five is a woman.

6.1.4 - Similar profiles are observed in France. Women represent only 8.7 % of titular professors holding chairs at University, while there are 31 % of them among assistants and teaching-assistants. (There are 52 % among teachers qualified to a secondary level).

A break-down by discipline shows that women occupy 16.6 % of chairs in philology at University and only between 5.9 % and 7.5 % of chairs in law, sciences and medicine.

Among University Colleges one sees that the "Polytechnique" which opened their entrance examination in 1972 to women-students, and now having 7 % of them does not yet have any women among its professors.

The tables provided to us by the CNRS (1) (Centre national de la recherche scientifique) in France, on its own researchers are the most explicit. They indicate a vertical segregation which has changed little over five years - and that rather against women -. The percentage of women becomes smaller as one goes up through the hierarchy.

These statistics also show that the proportion of women, with respect to men is much higher in the social and human sciences than in the exact sciences. Finally, one sees that women remain on average two years and three months longer than men at in intermediary stage of "researcher".

However, in the CNRS, recruitment could partly correct horizontal segregation : it is noted that admission opportunities for a woman candidate are 23 % in the exact sciences, and even 40 % in physics, while they reach only 8 % in human sciences.

Still in France, out of the 754 UER (Unités d'enseignement et de la recherche) which constitutes higher education, 44, i.e. 5.8 % are run by women. Only one woman today exercises the functions of a University President (Mrs Rivoire in Angers) and only two are rectors, (including Mrs Ahrweiler in Paris who was also University President).

(1) These tables are shown in the following pages (26A, 26B, 26C 26D) and were sent to us by the "Direction de l'Enseignement supérieur du Ministère de l'éducation nationale"

BREAKDOWN OF RESEARCHERS BY LEVEL
SEX AND SECTOR
(Individuals on the pay roll on December 31, 1980)

SECTORS	RESEARCH DIRECTOR		RESEARCH PROJECT LEADERS		RESEARCHERS		ASSISTANT RESEARCHERS		TOTAL	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
NUCLEAR PHYSICS AND PARTICLE PHYSICS	20	2 10%	100	12	163	31	41	5	324	50
MATHEMATICS, FUNDAMENTAL PHYSICS	72	6 8.3%	203	38	422	113	193	40	890	197
PHYSICAL SCIENCES FOR ENGINEERS	36	2 5.5%	113	8	239	29	170	33	558	72
CHEMISTRY	72	13 18%	274	68	598	240	269	86	1 213	407
LAND, SEA AND SPACE SCIENCES	40	5 18.5%	106	33	295	118	122	39	563	195
LIFE SCIENCES	91	23 25%	288	185	587	630	346	193	1 312	1 031
SOCIAL SCIENCES	28	7 25%	103	48	308	142	195	138	634	335
HUMAN SCIENCES	25	4 16%	51	33	193	112	124	60	393	209
NOT SPECIFIED	1	- -	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	2
<hr/>										
TOTAL	385	62	1 238	425	2 805	1 415	1 460	596	5 888	2 498
	447	13.8%	1 663		4 220		2 056		8 386	

D.P.A.S. / S.P.P.

September 1981

EVOLUTION IN % OF WOMEN BY LEVEL IN THE C.N.R.S. SINCE 1975

	R.D.	R.P.L	R.	A.R.	TOTAL RESEARCH- ERS
1975	14.2%	25.5%	37.6%	27.5%	30.5%
1976	14.1%	25.6%	37.7%	24.9%	29.7%
1977	13.3%	25.3%	36.5%	24.6%	29.3%
1978	13.6%	25 %	35.5%	24.9%	29.3%
1979	13.8%	25.5%	34.9%	26.1%	29.6%
1980	13.9%	25.6%	33.5%	29 %	29.8%

R.D. = Research Director

R.P.L. = Research project leaders

R. = Researchers

A.R. = Assistant Researchers

AVERAGE SENIORITY IN THE LEVEL OF GROUP STAFF
C.N.R.S. - I.N.A.G. - I.N2.P3, BY LEVEL AND SEX

On December 31, 1980

LEVELS	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
<u>RESEARCH PERSONNEL</u>			
- RESEARCH DIRECTOR	8 years 1 month	7 years 1 month	7 years 11 months
- RESEARCH PROJECT LEADERS	7 years	7 years 9 months	7 years 2 months
- RESEARCHERS	5 years 1 month	7 years 4 months	5 years 10 months
- ASSISTANT RESEARCHERS	2 years 10 months	2 years 7 months	2 years 9 months
<u>AVERAGE</u>	5 years 1 month	6 years 3 months	5 years 5 months
<u>I.T.A.</u>			
- ENGINEERS	7 years 2 months	8 years 5 months	7 years 8 months
- TECHNICIANS	6 years 7 months	7 years 7 months	7 years 1 month
- ADMINISTRATORS	4 years 11 months	5 years 7 months	5 years 6 months
<u>AVERAGE</u>	6 years 8 months	7 years 2 months	7 years

RECRUITMENT OF ASSISTENT RESEARCHERS IN 1980

WOMEN

SECTORS	OVERALL		WOMEN				
	TOTAL CANDIDA- TES	TOTAL RECRUITS	WOMEN CANDIDA- TES	% OF WOMEN CANDIDA- TES	WOMEN RECRUI- TED	% OF WOMEN RECRUI- TED	% OF WOMEN CANDIDA- TES RECRUI- TED
<u>EXACT SCIENCES</u>							
Mathematics	63	16	11	(17%)	3	(19%)	(27%)
Nuclear Physics	23	8	5	(22%)	2	(25%)	(40%)
Fundamental Physics	79	27	12	(15%)	3	(11%)	(26%)
Phys. Sci. for Engs.	164	38	23	(14%)	6	(21%)	(35%)
Chemistry	171	47	59	(35%)	24	(51%)	(41%)
Land, Sea and Space Sciences	159	20	38	(24%)	6	(30%)	(16%)
Life Sciences	450	77	203	(44%)	33	(43%)	(16%)
TOTAL	1 119	233	357	(31%)	79	(34%)	(23%)
<u>HUMAN SCIENCES</u>							
Social Sciences	443	39	157	(35%)	13	(33%)	(8%)
Human Sciences	311	30	118	(38%)	9	(30%)	(8%)
TOTAL	754	69	275	(36%)	22	(32%)	(8%)
TOTAL	1 873	302	626	(33%)	101	(33%)	(16%)

6.1.5 - In the Netherlands, the proportion of women in higher education only increased by 0.6 % over ten years (from 1970 to 1980), rising from 9 % to 9.6 %. But during the same decade, vertical segregation worsened : in fact, while in 1970, 7 % of this female teaching staff occupied a professor's chair or teaching assistant, there were only 5 % in 1980. The same increase in horizontal segregation : in 1970, 60.9 % of women occupied functions in philology, social sciences and medicine; this rose to 67 % in 1980.

6.1.6 - For other countries, we have only obtained far more limited statistics. They confirm that there are rarely more than 10 % of women among teachers in higher education (4 % maximum in Ireland; 10.5 % in the U.L.B. and 3 % in the University of Louvain in Belgium; 9.9 % in Luxemburg).

7 March 1983

WOMEN MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT IN THE COMMUNITY PARLIAMENTS

COUNTRY		NUMBER OF WOMEN	TOTAL NUMBER OF MEMBERS.	%	
BELGIUM	Sénat	21	182	11.54	8.6
	Chambre des Représentants	13	212	6.13	
DENMARK	Folketing	42	179	23.46	
F.R.G.	Bundestag	51*	519		9.8
	Bundesrat	5	45		
GREECE	Chambre des Députés	13	300	4.33	
FRANCE	Sénat	10	305	3.28	4.7
	Assemblée Nationale	28	491	5.70	
IRELAND	Sínead Eireann	6	60	10.--	8.8
	Dail Eireann	14	166	8.43	
ITALY	Senato della Repubblica	13	315	4.13	6.6
	Camera dei Deputati	50	630	7.94	
LUXEMBURG	Chambre des Députés	6	59	10.17	
THE NETHERLANDS	Eerste Kamer	18	75	24.--	20.6
	Tweede Kamer	29	150	19.33	
UNITED KINGDOM	House of Lords	55	817	6.73	5.3
	House of Commons	23	635	3.62	
TOTAL		397	5 140		

* are not directly elected but sent by the Länder.

6.2 - The position of women in governments and national parliaments.

6.2.1 - There are only 16 women out of the 187 government ministers in the Europe of the Ten, i.e. 8.55 %. At least one (in seven cases), but never more than four. Denmark holds the record of female participation, with 19.04 % of women in its government. Then in decreasing order, the Netherlands, France, Luxemburg, Ireland, Belgium, Germany, Great Britain, Greece and Italy which has only 3.33 % of woman ministers.

6.2.2 - In the national parliaments (by adding the two houses if necessary), the highest percentage of female participation is 23.46 % for Denmark and the lowest 4.33 % for Greece. Their decreasing order is somewhat different from that of the governments. After Denmark come the Netherlands, Luxemburg, Germany, Ireland, Belgium, Italy, Great Britain, France and Greece.

Everything seems to indicate that France compensates its penultimate position in national representation by a better ranking of female participation in the government. It must also be borne in mind that the British government, although it only has one woman, it is the only one led by a woman. With these considerations in mind, the decreasing order from the periphery of Europe to the centre of the ancient Mediterranean is grosso modo respected, if overall consideration is given to female presence within executive and legislative powers.

6.2.3 - The progress of female participation in the national assemblies has not been achieved in the same way from one country to another (1).

Only Denmark has presented steady positive progress, an evolution which, with a lower amplitude, is linked to that of other scandinavian countries.

Only Great Britain has remained at a practically constant level since 1945, as it had only exceeded this level by 0.8 % in 1964, to drop to 3.1 % in 1979, i.e. 0.7 % below the level of female participation after the war. (It must however be noted that the presence of women in municipal councils : 16 % is greater than the other countries of the Ten, excluding Denmark).

As for the other countries for which comparable chronological data has reached us, i.e. the Netherlands, Germany, Italy, France and Ireland, everything indicates a more or less pronounced wave trough of female representation in national assemblies around the years 69-70. (71 in the Netherlands, 69 in Germany, 68 in Italy, between 68 and 73 in France, 69 in Ireland). This fall off which seems not to affect local assemblies is also perceptible in Great Britain only in the labour party. It confirms that the participation of women in political life slackened after the 1968 movements.

(1) see table in annex at the end of the report.

The recovery of the presence of women in the national assemblies is undeniable at the end of the 1970's, notably in Ireland, where female participation quadrupled between 1969 and 1982. Nevertheless, in France and Germany, this upward movement is insufficient to allow results as good as just after the war to be recovered. Despite much more marked evolutions than in Great Britain, Germany, in 1983, finds itself at the same rate of female presence in parliament as in 1919 (9.8 %).

6.2.4 - The number of women elected to assemblies is far from corresponding to the powerful renewal of female participation in political life. It is still claimed that women do not vote for women - a common pretext in Italy -, but the truth is that female candidates do, in general, not have the same financial means as men to campaign and can rarely get themselves as well known through equally conspicuous advertising. This is important when voters can express a preferential vote on a list. In the same list they more easily designate male candidates seen on the largest posters. Moreover, it is extremely rare in several countries for women to be placed at the head of the list by their party. Man always has the advantage of being backed by a male society.

6.2.5 - Some statistics by region, concerning the three countries where urbanisation is most dense : the Netherlands, Belgium and Germany, indicate that the proportion of women elected in local or regional assemblies falls as we go further from the North sea. The urban/rural contrast does not explain everything. Otherwise, it would not be understood why West Flanders in Belgium obtains markedly better results than Liege, nor why Rhénania-Westphalia in Germany barely overtakes Schleswig Holstein, coming far behind Hamburg and Bremen, or also why, in the Netherlands, Friesland runs nearly at the level of the province of Utrecht, outstripping the two provinces in Holland where the population is most concentrated.

6.3 - The place of women in the European Parliament

6.3.1 - Only Ireland has a distinctly lower female representation in the European Parliament than in its national assembly, because, in the latter, the presence of elected women greatly increased in the November 1982 election.

Only the Netherlands has a percentage of elected women which is nearly equal at national (both chambers together) and european level.

Every country has sent to Strasbourg a clearly higher proportion of women deputies than that found in their capitals.

Denmark and Belgium are on top (25 %), followed by France (22.2 %), the Netherlands (20 %), Luxemburg (16.7 %), Germany (14.8 %), the United Kingdom (13.6 %), Italy (12.3 %), Greece (8.3 %), and Ireland (6.7 %).

6.3.2 - In the committees of the European Parliament the percentages of women vary greatly.

The highest proportions of women is noticed in committees on the environment (44.4 %), social affairs (26.6 %), youth and education (20.8 %), and regional policy (20 %).

Next come committees on legal affairs (17.14 %), energy and research (16.6 %), regulations and petitions (11 %), political affairs (11 %) and budgetary affairs (10.5 %).

Finally the lowest proportions are for agriculture, development and cooperation (8.8 %), budgetary control (7.1 %), the economic and monetary committee (5.2 %) and last the institutional committee (2.7 %).

POSITION OF WOMEN IN THE GOVERNMENTS
OF THE MEMBER STATES

	Number of Ministers	Women Ministers	Percentage	Number of Secretaries of State	Women Secretaries of State	Percentage
BELGIUM	15	1	6.66%	10	3	30.00%
DENMARK	21	4	19.04%	-	-	-
FEDERAL GERMANY	16	1	6.25%	49 ¹⁾	1	2.04%
GREECE	22	1	4.54%	28	2	7.14%
FRANCE	23 ²⁾	3	13.04%	19	3	15.78%
IRELAND	15	1	6.66%	15	1	6.66%
ITALY	30	1	3.33%	59 ³⁾	2	3.38%
LUXEMBURG	9	1	11.11%	2	0	0
THE NETHERLANDS	15	2	13.33%	15	3	20.00%
UNITED KINGDOM	21	1 ⁴⁾	4.76%	26	1	3.84%
TOTAL	187	16	8.55%	223	16	7.17%

1) Comprising 25 Parliamentary Secretaries of State and 24 Secretaries of State

2) The French government comprises 15 full acting ministers (including 1 woman) and 8 deputy ministers (including 2 women)

3) Under-Secretaries of State

4) Mrs THATCHER, Prime Minister

6.4 - The position of women in the leadership of political parties.

6.4.1 - While the proportion of women in political formations often exceeds a quarter of all the members and sometimes a third (Christian Democrats and Radical Party in Italy, FDP in Germany, Social Democratic Party in Denmark), the percentages are much lower among those elected and becomes minimal apart from a few exceptions, when the leadership of these parties is considered.

6.4.2 - In the national assemblies, left-wing parties are more commonly represented by women than right-wing parties, but the difference which is great in Italy or France is much smaller or even non-existent in Great Britain or in Germany.

Female socialists, depending on the size of their overall national representation, occupy different positions from one country to another concerning the proportion of elected women members of Parliament. The SP comes behind the Christian Democrats and far behind the CP in Italy. On the other hand, in France, the SP is clearly ahead of the CP and the right-wing formations.

Another visible phenomenon in Italy and Germany : it is certain, parties of lesser importance but who can (or could) play the role of referee between a more or less evenly balanced left and right, who elect more women to their own assembly.

Such is the case for the FDP in Germany and the radical party in Italy. This was also the case with the Liberal Party in Great Britain in 1950.

But it must also be stated that the German FDP (liberal party) not only has a large proportion of women members but also an exceptional number of women in their controlling bodies for the FDP at a regional level (35.7 %) (1) if compared with other formations in Europe.

6.4.3 - Apart from the FDP, it is evident from the data that we have collected that the percentage of women in the central leadership of parties never exceeds 17.5 %. One of our women correspondents sent us this comment : "As soon as the number of women exceeds 20 % in any party leadership, it means that the real decisions are made elsewhere".

6.4.4 - As an example, here is the case of Italy :

	Leading Positions	Women	%
Christian Democrats	46	1	2.2
Communist Party	49	2	10
Socialist Party	35	4	11.4
National Democrats	27	0	0
Italian Socialist Movement	15	0	0
Social Democratic Party	42	0	0
Republican Party	29	1	4.5
Proletarian Unity Party	25	3	12
Liberal Party	33	0	0
Radical Party	48	11	22.8

(1) In the national secretariat, which explains the difference with the figures in the table.

Percentage of women in the major political parties in Germany, France, Italy and the United Kingdom :

Country	Parties	% women members	% women leaders		
			Wide ranging bodies	Restricted bodies	Very restricted bodies
Germany (1979)	CDU	20.8	12	9.4	
	CSU	13	8.8	8.8	
	SPD	22.4	17.5	12.9	
	FDP	23	9.7	10.8	
France (1982)	PCF	36	21	18	17
	PS	21	18	15	14
	PR	40	32	20	6
	RPR	43	8	6	8
Italy (1980) 1982	PCI	24.5	13	9.8	
	DC	37.6	2		
	PSI	18.4	16	7.6	
United Kingdom (1978)	Conservatives	51	38	20	
	Labour	39	11	8	

* by wide ranging bodies understand Central Committee, Leadership Committee or National Committee

* by restricted bodies understand Political Bureau, Executive Bureau or Political Committee

* by very restricted bodies understand Secretariat, National Secretariat or Executive Committee.

6.5 - The position of women in the unions.

6.5.1 - That part of the responsibilities entrusted to women in unions is not higher, far from it, than that which they receive in the running of other institutions.

A significant fact, only seventeen organisations replied to our questions. Among these four have no women in their controlling bodies; eight have less than 10 % and only five more than 10 %.

6.5.2 - Thus, the confederation of German civil servants which has 815 515 members, including 26 % women; has no women among the four members of its executive committee; only one in its bureau comprising 31 members and two in its extended bureau of 93 members. During the congress of this same union, the proportion of women among the delegates deprived of the right to vote is markedly higher (9.6 %) than that of female delegates allowed to vote (6.2 %).

6.5.3 - In the Netherlands, the protestant CNV union where teaching staff are many and which has 340,575 members, including 17.8 % women has only 124 of the female members in its 15,420 leading personnel, i.e. only 0.8 %.

The federation of Dutch unions, FNV. which largely speaking assembles all the old catholic and socialist unions represents 989,000 members, including 13.8 % women, but there are only 14 women out of the 202 strong national leadership i.e. 6.9 %.

6.5.4 - The General Federation of Belgian workers a quarter of whose members are women recognises that they have only 3.2 % out of the 1,560 strong leading staff.

6.5.5 - In Italy, the General Confederation of labour (CGIL) beats the record for "union feminism" in the country allowing 11.8 % women in a leadership comprising 144 members. The CSIL has no women in its 17 strong general council. The UIL, 3.1 % women only among its confederal leaders. And among the leaders of companies affiliated to AIDDA, there are only 4.24 % women at the top of the organisation.

Percentages of women in leading bodies of the CGT and the
CFDT in France :

CFDT	:	1 woman out of 10 members in the Executive Committee,							
								i.e.	10 %
		11 women out of 39 members in the National Bureau							
								i.e.	28.2 %
CGT	:	5	"	"	"	22	"	"	"
									Federal Bureau
								i.e.	22 %
		33	"	"	"	124	"	"	"
									Executive Committee
								i.e.	27 %
FO	:	1 woman	"	"	"	12	"	"	"
									Federal Bureau
								i.e.	8.33 %
		2 women	"	"	"	36	"	"	"
									Executive Committee
								i.e.	5.55 %

6.6 - The position of women in the mass-media

6.6.1 - Only Germany sent us overall statistics relating to the employment of women in the media. They indicate, first of all, a low proportion of women journalists and secondly their restriction to certain sectors.

These characteristics are corroborated by the figures we have collected concerning the French daily Le Monde, as well as through the work of the "Seminar of the Council of Europe on the contribution of the media towards the promotion of equality between women and men", dating from June 1983, and notably by the report of Professor Vallauri in this colloquium containing a detailed study of the case of the RAI (italian radio-television).

6.6.2 - In Germany, there are 17 % women journalists for all the media together, but only 13 % for the spoken press (radio-television) and 14 % in the dailies, while there are 26 % in periodicals where nearly all women's publications are to be found.

In radio, all of the political, economic, sports and news sectors employ only 9 % women journalists, but there are 26 % in other sectors : culture, education, society. That is to say that rarely is the microphone given over to

women when it comes to speaking about an event, especially a political event.

In television, the proportion of women in the political, economic, sports, news sectors remains approximately the same (8 %). But, unlike radio, there are nearly as few women (11 %) in the sectors of culture, education and society. Most female faces on the small screen are confined to entertainment and music.

6.6.3 - In France, out of two hundred journalists employed full-time by the daily Le Monde, there are only 16 women (8 %).

Among them, only one is department head (culture); only two are assistant department heads (culture, foreign affairs) : and only two are column heads (medicine, education). So, only one position with political responsibility (assistant head of the foreign service) is given to a woman. Among the other eleven women journalists in Le Monde, three are only editing secretaries.

The case of Le Monde is particularly typical of the double vertical and horizontal segregation. But it is far from being an exception, because in nearly every daily in Europe, recruitment, promotion and the allocation of positions is decided by an exclusively male management and, voluntarily or unconsciously, discrimination persists. When women journalists are hired, they often owe it, in part, to the fact that a

female colleague has called on her qualities.

For Ireland, it is noted for instance, that in the controlling bodies of the Irish newspapers (4 dailies, 2 evening newspapers and 4 Sunday newspapers) only one woman is present.

In the radio-television, on the "governing board" only one member out of nine is a woman.

One notes among the upper administrative management, a percentage of 18 %, among producers a percentage of 19 % and among presenters and journalists a percentage of 18 %.

6.6.4 - According to the report made by Professor Vallauri to the "Seminar of the Council of Europe" (1) which deals with the employment policy in the media there would be no discriminatory policy with regard to women in this field. "But in fact", he says, "their access to jobs and their professional advance are considerably limited".

The sociologist bases himself particularly on the detailed statistics concerning the employment of women and men in the RAI (italian radio-television) since 1967.

The personnel of the RAI comprises 13,542 people including 3,526, i.e. 26 % women. But men occupy 95.8 % of managerial positions, and one must descend to the 6th rank of the hierarchy, from the top, to find a proportion of women above 10 %.

In the information sector of the RAI, women only represent 1.4 % of all editors. No woman has the functions of special envoy, central chief editor or co-director.

The presence of women in the RAI is only important there where specialisation makes them necessary, for instance

among the choir members (52.4 %) or first cellos (33.3 %) or also script-girls (100 %) or category B film-cutters (50 %). But, inevitably, this specialisation excludes the exercise of extended responsibilities.

The percentages of men and women in the RAI (Italian radio-TV)
among the management staff and among the journalists :

(31.12.1982)

1 - Management staff :

CATEGORIES	COMPOSITION %	
	men	women
Manager I	100	-
Manager II	96.8	3.2
Manager III	100	-
Manager IV	93.7	6.3
Officers - A special -	92.0	8.0
Officers - Al -	87.8	12.2
General Directors lyrics symphonic - UAD -	100	-
News Directors	100	-
Assistent News Directors	100	-
Editors	98.6	1.4
Special Envoys	100	-
Central Chief Editors	100	-
News co-directors	100	-
TOTAL MANAGERS, OFFICERS AND SIMILAR CATEGORIES	95.8	4.2

2 - Journalists :

CATEGORIES	COMPOSITION %	
	men	women
Sub-Editors	94.7	5.3
Sub-Editors	100	-
News Department Heads	95.3	4.7
Ordinary Editors	84.8	15.2
Publicists	-	-
Trainee Journalists	81.5	18.5
Correspondents	94.3	5.7
Publicists	100	-
Various contracts-journalists	82.7	17.3
TOTAL JOURNALISTS	88.3	11.7

In the RAI whether concerning journalists of administrative personnel, promotion for women is much slower. The study of a sample of the men and women taken on in the administration in 1967 indicates that the men have advanced between seven and ten levels while women have only advanced a maximum of three levels. The same discrimination concerning promotion as for journalists : for 100 men taken on in 1967, a proportion of 52.9 % is found with editor-in-chief responsibilities at the end of 1982; whereas for one hundred women not one exceeded the level of editor. It is true that women are taken on at a lower level, but this is only a part explanation.

Professor Vallauri also notes that 80 % of women journalists in the RAI are unmarried or separated, while nearly all their male colleagues are married. For the men a professional life is compatible with a family life.

Although sometimes in the RAI, some men accede to the highest levels without the credentials required, this is never the case for women.

6.6.5 - The study made by the Italian sociologist notices similar discrepancies in his country's papers (for instance, only 8 women out of the journalist department in La Repubblica), as well as in radio and television organisations in Europe. He especially notes that in Great Britain male voices are totally preponderant in radio information; the absence of women allows it to be stated, without proof, that they would be less persuasive.

6.6.6 - The success in France of the news programme on Antenne 2 presented by Christine Ockrent and of which she is the editor-in-chief shows that the competence of a woman journalist can extend to all fields of information. But her case, as that of Mrs Michèle Cotta at the presidency of the high authority for radio and television, remains unique.

Indeed, the distancing of women from the microphones and the media has a double significance : on the one hand, it superimposes itself on the segregation observed in other decision-making centres and, on the other hand, it authorises the persistence of a traditional image of the woman "rarely rational, active or able to make decisions" as Mrs Margaret Gallagher writes in her report to UNESCO entitled "women in the media" (1979).

6.7 - The position of women in management personnel in the
major cultural centres.

6.7.1 - In the field of major cultural centres, the data that we have received are much too patchy for one to be able to draw conclusions affecting this sector. Nevertheless, none of the answers obtained contradict observations made elsewhere on male domination at the highest levels of responsibility.

6.7.2 - In France, while 56 % women are found occupying positions as museum directors, there are only 16 % at the level of Chief-museum director and 13 % at the level of Chief of a national museum.

6.7.3 - In Italy, the five positions of general director for culture are all given to men. In the lower level of director-in-chief and principal director, men are also in a large majority, except, in the former case, for librarians, where there are twelve women for three men; and in the latter case, for archeologists; ten women for six men and for architects : seven principal directors of each sex.

ITALY
Cultural Centres

Management Positions : Total 244
including 100 women, i.e. 41 %

	Directors General	Directors Chief	Principal Directors
Central Administration	M.4 F.0	M.14 F. 3 i.e. 21.4 %	M.22 F. 3 i.e. 16 %
Archeologists		M. 8 F. 4 i.e. 50 %	M. 6 F.10
Art Historians		M.12 F. 4 i.e. 33 %	M. 7 F. 3 i.e. 42.8 %
Architects		M.15 F. 5 i.e. 30 %	M. 7 F. 7 i.e. 50 %
Librarians		M. 3 F.12	
State Archivists	M. 1 F. 0	M.15 F. 5 i.e. 30 %	M.32 F.20 i.e. 62.5 %

Observation :

In State Libraries the number of women in positions of high responsibility is above that of men.
The Directors of the National Library in Rome and in Florence are women.
No quota anticipated.

6.8 - The position of women in the diplomatic services.

6.8.1 - The diplomatic career is the one most closed to women. Neither Greece nor Italy have an ambassadress. Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands only have one each; Denmark and Germany, two; Great Britain, three and France four. But with relation to the population it is Denmark which is the least badly represented abroad by women.

These women do not have access to the major embassies. For Great Britain, the highest positions are Oslo and Geneva; for France, Oslo and UNESCO.

6.8.2 - All the diplomatic corps together is itself very strongly male. If one refers, from the highest level down, to a figure of between 250 and 900 diplomats (depending on the size of the population in the country considered), one never exceeds 6 % women, except for Denmark : 10.81 % out of 381 diplomats and for Ireland : 16 % women out of 250 diplomats.

As one goes up in the hierarchy, the chances of finding women drop considerably. As an example, here is the case for the United Kingdom :

Position of women in the diplomatic services in Great Britain
(June 1983)

	Number of women	Number of men	%
Higher grades	3	148	2
Grade 4	12	280	4.1
Grade 5	25	405	5.8
Grade 6	13	267	4.6
Sub-total	53	1100	4.6
Grade 7D	6	53	10.2
Grade 7E	67	406	14.2
Grade 8	6	32	15.8
Grade 9	222	551	28.7
Grade 10	249	296	45.7
Total	603	2438	19.8

6.9 - The position of women in the magistrature.

6.9.1 - The administration of justice is increasingly entrusted to women. Nevertheless the situation remains very unequal depending on the level of jurisdictions.

6.9.2 - In Great Britain, for example, there are more than ten thousand women out of the twenty six thousand non-lawyer justices of the peace. But, beyond this level, one does not find more than 3.75 % women out of all the magistrates and none of them sits higher than in the county courts.

6.9.3 - The picture is very similar in Greece, where however two women reach the Court of Appeal. In Italy, women are a little more widely represented in the higher instances, but none has yet been admitted to preside over a court. The pretext is often heard invoked that a woman would not be able to control her feelings and her emotions when forming her judgement. But, in France, Mrs Simone Cochard, presiding judge at the Court of Versailles is, in the opinion of her peers, often considered as the best presiding judge of an assizes court.

6.9.4 - With reservation, it is in the magistrature that the evolution towards equal opportunities between men and women could be the most positive. On the one hand, because the respect for the law and the similarity of treatment can be better defended here than elsewhere; on the other hand, because access to the profession, while being recent, extends widely in favour of women in some countries.

In France, where public appeals have been launched to invite women to present themselves in examinations held by the Ministry of Justice, the latest promotions of magistrates include more than 50 % women. This fact underlines the importance of the role to be played by the institutions in encouraging women to defend their chance. (Let us also remember that the profession of magistrate guarantees more free time than that of a lawyer, which has nevertheless become nearly "traditionally female").

6.9.5 - As an example, here are the figures indicating the position of women in the french magistrature :

	Magistrates	Women	%
Total :	5605	1750	31.2
Functions of high responsibility	442	24	5.42
1 - Supreme Court of Appeal :	10	0	0
2 - Chief Judge of Court of Appeal (president or prosecutor)	70	3	4.3
3 - Chief Judge of Court (president or prosecutor)	16	1	6.2
4 - Chief Judge of Court comprising more than 2 Chambers)	98	5	5.1
5 - Chief Judge of District Court	248	15	6

Percentage of women in the decision-making centres according to each country of the
Group of the Ten :

Countries :	DK	NL	F	L	B	IRL	D	UK	GR	I
Ministers :										
Ministers	19.04	13.33	13.04	11.11	6.66	6.66	6.25	4.76	4.54	3.33
Members of Parliament	23.46	20.88	4.77	10.17	8.62	8.84	9.92	5.37	4.33	6.66
European parl.	25.0	20.0	22.2	16.7	25.0	6.7	14.8	13.6	8.3	12.3
Committees	10.2	5.4	14.0	5.2	4.6	16.0	11.2	19.8	5.9	5.0
Ambassadors	1.4		2.2				5.9	2.0		
Deputies		20.0	31.2	27.7	15.2	6.4	14.4		4.1	10.8
Pres. resp. deputies			5.4		6.4	4.8		3.7	1.2	0.0
Union leaders			28.2			11.0	8.2			14.0
Pres. resp. union leaders		0.0	10.0		3.3	4.0	2.4			11.8
Alt. prof.		2.5	8.7			1.4	4.5	3.3	2.6	
radio-TV						16.0	13.0			4.2
Pres. resp. dir. radio-TV							0.0			3.2

The empty squares indicate an absence of data communicated.

Only the first three lines of the table allow us to establish exact comparisons among the Group of the Ten. The others rely on data which are not perfectly comparable, either because the institutions are different from one country to another, or because the figures do not always represent the total of persons exercising their responsibilities in each and such sector. These nine lines only have an indicational value.

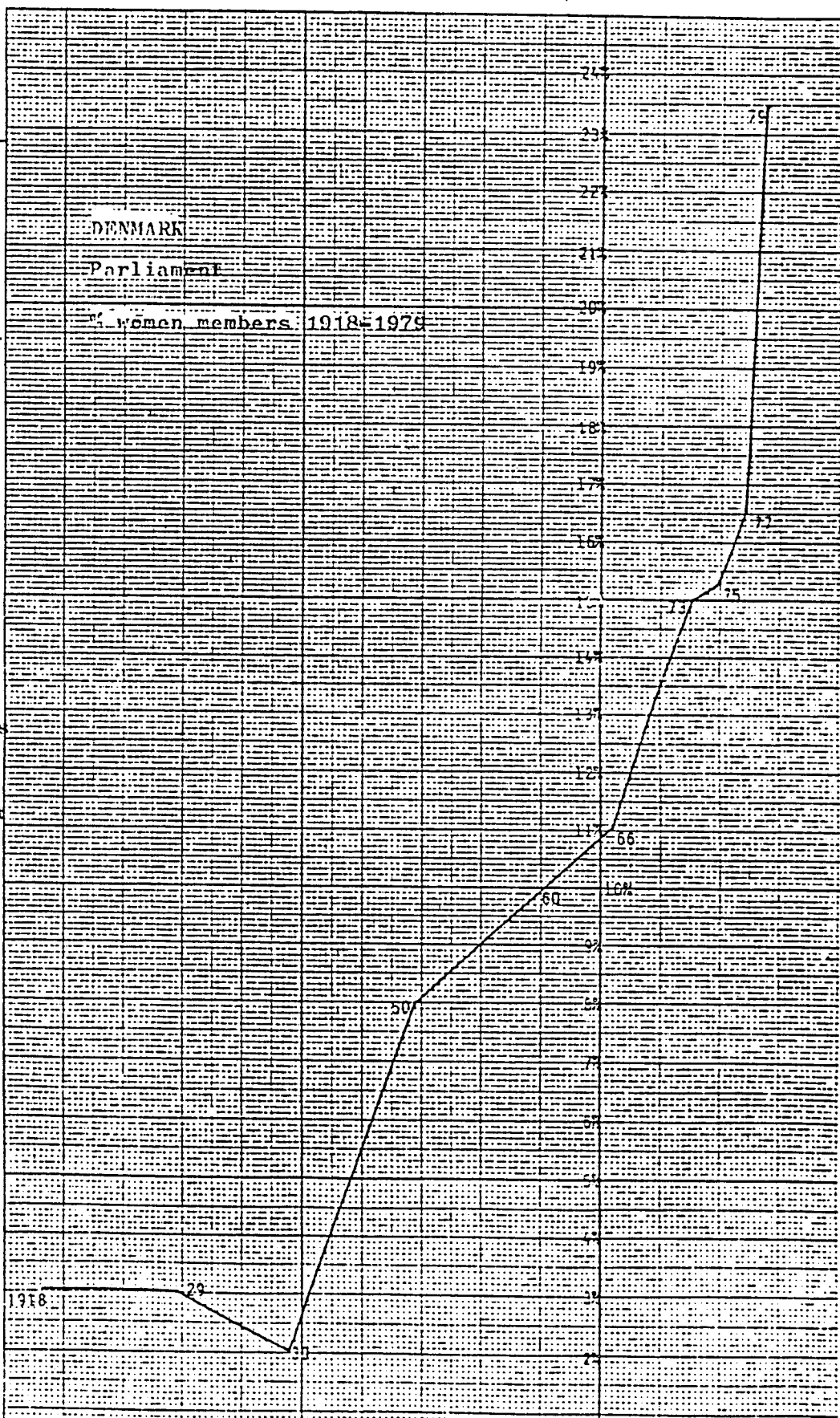
The order chosen for this table is the decreasing order in relation to the proportion of women among the national government ministries : Denmark (DK); the Netherlands (NL); France (F); Luxemburg (L); Belgium (B); Ireland (IRL); Germany (D); United Kingdom (UK); Greece (GR); Italy (I).

Chronological evolution of the percentage of women
sitting in the elected assemblies

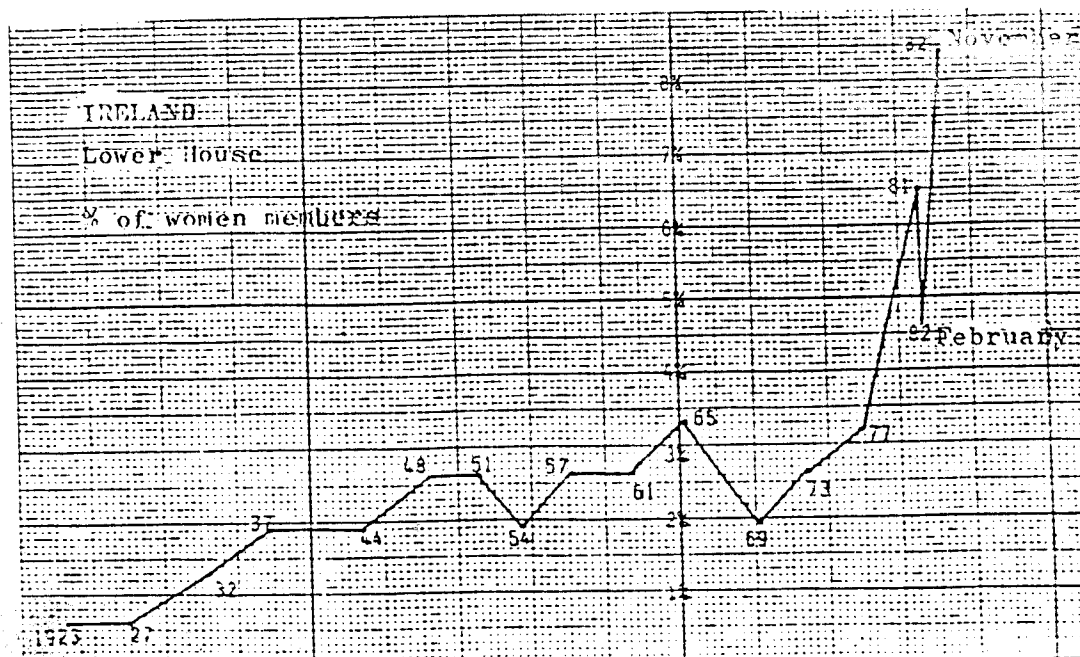
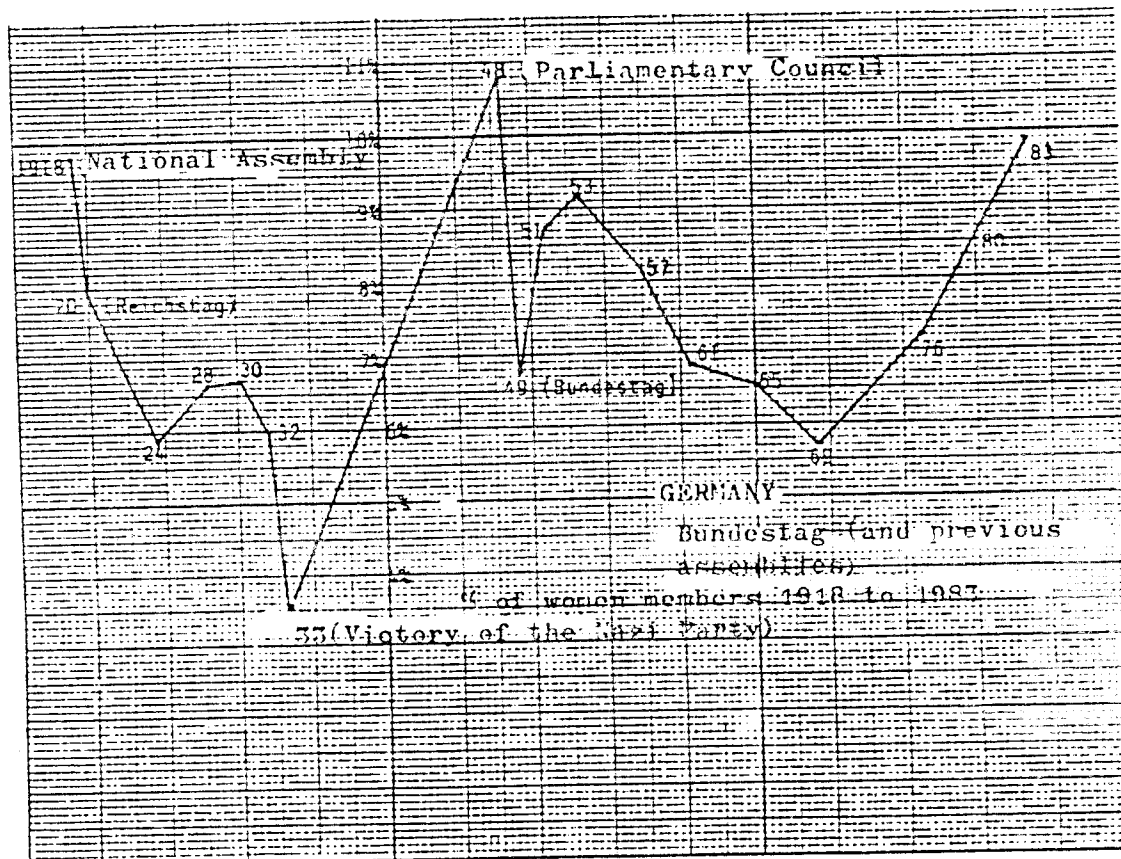
Only Denmark (curve opposite) presents a marked and virtually constant increase in the participation of women in the national assemblies.

The following curves all show a "trough" around the year 1969, except that illustrating the evolution in the United Kingdom.

This trough corresponds to the time when the participation of women in political life in Europe was the weakest, at the beginning of the rejection of institutions by the feminist movement.



Chronological evolution of the percentage of women
sitting in the elected assemblies



Chronological evolution of the percentage of women
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