

SOCIAL EUROPE

SPECIAL ISSUE 1983



COMMISSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES

DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR EMPLOYMENT,
SOCIAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION

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Ivor Richard

Editorial

Information technology, it is commonplace to assert, represents the major industrial and competitive challenge confronting the European Community in the coming years. Less frequently emphasized is that success in the IT¹ industry – where Europe's position in what will be the largest single sector world-wide by 1990 is deteriorating – is at root a human challenge. It is as much about people's skills, education and attitudes as about company finance and industrial reorganization. No amount of money can buy skills which aren't there to purchase, nor can change be imposed successfully on a society which society is unwilling to accept.

Ensuring such social consensus, and providing Europe's citizens – its children, men and women – with the skills and training needed for the Community to live with the computer-powered competition of Japan and the USA, are among the vital aims of European social policy. By the same token, the Community's social policy has a central, not peripheral, role to play in taking up the IT gauntlet.

The scope of the training and education challenge, together with its employment ramifications, is daunting. A few examples serve to put the Community's predicament into sharp relief. In the Community, shortage of skills has been identified by companies themselves as the major factor inhibiting the increased use of information technology in heavily IT-dependent industries – which together take up an estimated 35% share of Community GDP. In technology-conscious Japan, by contrast, where six secondary schoolchildren out of ten are sufficiently IT-trained as to directly apply their skills at work, the per capita number of graduate electronic engineers is twice the Community's. Nor has all been quiet on the Western front. The American tradition of close interaction between universities and industry in key technology areas has not been matched by Europe. At stake in these failures are jobs. It has been estimated that as many as 4 million jobs could be created or saved if Europe matched American consumption of IT products and European industry was to apply IT as effectively as it is applied in the USA.

No less daunting than the training gap are the social tensions created by technological change. A major cause of such tension has been the deterioration of European industrial relations in an era of painful economic adjustment. For there is little doubt that the generalized introduction of information technology in an international recession, whatever its eventual job-creating potential, can in the short run threaten major job upheavals. The case for strengthening information, consultation and even negotiating procedures between the social partners – a term which in recent years has become unfortunate in its irony – is beyond dispute.

An overall strategy which fully integrates the social dimension into the European response to the IT challenge, from research through to final applications, is likewise beyond dispute. It is a strategy in which government, and the Commission in particular, has a vital role to play. On this at least there can be no room for sterile disputes over the role of government vs. the role of the market. The market is crying out for skills, and it is a prime responsibility of European governments, through training and education policies coordinated by the Commission at Community level, to provide them. Nor does the role of Community authorities stop there. The flexibility needed by industry to respond to the international IT challenge – as exemplified by the ESPRIT programme – is preconditioned by the need for social consensus, and the Commission must play a leading role in fostering its development.

There is no time to be lost. The Commission, I am glad to say, has made good progress recently in developing the main elements of such a social strategy. Since October 1981, when we called for a strengthening of Europe's industrial consensus, our work has led to the adoption by the Council in June 1983 of two resolutions, dealing respectively with vocational training and educational projects, which become operational in 1984. This is the basis of a Community response to the social implications of the IT challenge on which it is vital to build. A successful industrial response to that challenge is not possible if the Community possesses neither the manpower skills nor the collective will on which to buttress it.

Ivor Richard

¹ Information technology.

Part One

Measures and guidelines

Fight against unemployment

Local dynamics of small-scale job creation

Following research on the performance of small and medium-sized enterprises¹ and workers' cooperatives,² the Commission conducted from June 1982 to July 1983, some 20 consultations on local employment initiatives throughout the Community. These consultations were coordinated with the organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) which started also in 1982, a cooperative action programme on local initiatives for employment creation in which the Commission actively takes part.

As an immediate follow-up to those activities, the Commission is currently presenting to the Council proposals for policy guidelines and a Community action programme on local, small-scale, employment creation. The present article gives the background to the Commission's policy initiative.

The scenario: unemployment has become a common problem of all European localities

Throughout the European Community, overall levels of unemployment are high, affecting all local communities in one degree or another. Thus, while in periods of economic growth, people's classic solution to finding a job, when it was not available in the locality, was to commute to the next town or industrial conurbation, move to a more prosperous region in the country, or emigrate to another country. Such options have now become much more restricted if not impossible.

It is not only the Community's less developed regions, or those areas which have experienced a decline in their main activities over a longer period, which suffer from high un-

employment. With profound structural changes in the economy still under way, formerly prosperous areas and localities now have to search for solutions to counteract large-scale job losses.

Particular groups of the workforce take a disproportionate share of the burden of unemployment

Particular groups among the working population take a greater

share of the burden of unemployment than others: the young, women, the unskilled, older workers, migrant workers, the disabled.

In the Member States and at Community level a lot of ink has been used to describe the 'no future' outlook of these hard-hit groups of people, especially the young people under 25 years of age whose unemployment rate of over 25% now accounts for double that of adults in the Community.

Photo: Guyaux; Bruxelles



¹ Social Europe No 00 - July 1983.

² See Part Two: Analyses, debates, studies.

The Commission's work and findings

Tracing new responses to unemployment through consultations

Companies, trade unions, local authorities, youth, voluntary, church and community groups, trusts and foundations, and some public agencies are responding to unemployment, the individual and social problems related to it, and the economic issues underlying it. While the avail-

ability of resources through the member governments' special programmes for the unemployed has focused much activity on the development and operation of schemes of initial training and retraining, work experience and temporary work, there is a wider range of responses in existence. These include new support organizations for small enterprise and cooperative training and development, small business cooperative and community business initiatives; measures to ease the effects of redundancies;

programmes of linking up training and job creation; unemployment counselling and support services; youth enterprise and self-employment assistance; alternative self-help networks, community service and voluntary work; earning/learning systems; local labour subsidies and funding programmes for economic development; municipal enterprise companies and boards; local enterprise trusts, centres for the unemployed; and multipurpose schemes.

The locations

The pilot consultations¹ were in the Kreuzberg district of West Berlin, Federal Republic of Germany, known for its small-scale 'alternative' workshops; and in Cork, Republic of Ireland, with participants from both rural and urban areas of Ireland.

Other consultations were held between November 1982 and July 1983 in:

Belgium

Wallonia, in the southern part of the country
Heuvelland, a rural area of 14 villages in north-west Flanders

Denmark

a mixed urban and rural area of west Jutland

France

the highly industrialized area of Pas-de-Calais
the 'fragile' mountain area of the Pyrenees

FR of Germany

the mixed urban and rural areas of Hesse (Rhein/Main)
the *Land* of Lower Saxony

Greece

a rural area in central Boetia
the small town of Koropi and adjoining parts of Attica

Italy

an alpine village area of northern Udine
a group of small towns in Toscana
the rural and urban areas of Brescia Province
the mixed rural and small town area of Campania

The Netherlands

the mixed rural and urban area of North Brabant with participants from other parts of the country

United Kingdom

the mixed industrial and residential London Borough of Brent

the highly industrialized area of north-east England

the mixed urban and rural area of Belfast and adjoining districts in Northern Ireland

the highly industrialized area in and around Glasgow, Scotland

the rural area of North Wales

the industrialized county of Gwent, South Wales

No consultation was held in Luxembourg: participants from there took part in the meeting in Wallonia, Belgium.

How the meetings were organized

Meetings were of one or two days' duration and were planned and administered by a local associate organization in cooperation with and under sub-contract to the Centre for Employment Initiatives (CEI)², London, chosen by the Commission as project managers.

Local associate organizations had the responsibility for organizing their local consultations in accordance with the framework and priorities agreed with the CEI. This involved *inter alia*:

- ☐ identification of groups and individuals to be invited;

¹ See also list of local organizations.

² CEI: 140A Gloucester Mansions, Cambridge Circus, London WC2 H8PA, United Kingdom.

- ☐ assembling case-study material, venue, timetable, etc.;
- ☐ planning and organizing the consultation;
- ☐ submitting a report on the consultation;
- ☐ contributing to the synthesis of policy implications.

The organizations acting as local 'associates' were responsible for the selection of participants who could be classified as follows:

Primarily concerned with employment creation	7
Regional and community development	4
Local government authority	4
Cooperatives	3
Welfare and youth	2
'Alternatives'	2
Church training and conference centre	1
Organization of unemployed	1
Cultural activities	1
University research centre	1
Trade union training centre	1

In some meetings more than one organization was involved; local government authorities were associated in many consultations: in the four listed above under local government authority, they took the primary organization role.

Being aware of these new developments, the Commission decided on a fact-finding approach which for the Commission itself was innovative, i.e. the organization of local consultations to reach the grassroots level.

The main objective of the consultations was to give 'practitioners' of new initiatives and other key informants at the local level the chance to describe their work and reflect on their performance and the sort of national or Community level support that would unlock its full potential.

Practical aims were to provide information, ideas, expertise and technical support mechanisms in launching projects, but also data relevant to policy-makers on the potential contribution to employment of different approaches and the factors constraining their use.

Some 20 local consultations were held throughout the Community and ranged in number from 25 to 125 participants (most were attended by 40–60 persons). The majority of participants were those actually engaged in or planning new local initiatives, while the balance consisted of officials, elected representatives and persons from the social partners whose interest and support is essential to the promotion and success of local employment initiatives.

In a broad categorization, eight consultations were held in urban areas, often inner cities hard-hit by long-term unemployment, eight were held in areas covering both rural and urban counties, and six were held in rural areas, predominantly composed of small villages.

In total, some 1 200 persons had the opportunity of presenting and discussing their experiences and plans. In several instances the consultation itself had been preceded by informal discussion meetings and in some cases, e.g. in Heuvelland, Belgium and Campania, Italia – members of local enterprises elected one of their number to attend the consultation on their behalf and express their views. It may be conservatively estimated that over 7 000 people have taken part or have directly contributed to the conclusions reached.

The intrinsic value of local consultations

When the consultations were initiated, information about short-term job-creation programmes, training and work experience schemes was, of course, readily available, since these are largely official schemes run either directly by national governmental bodies or with a large measure of national governmental financing. From the start of the local consultations, however, the focus has been on longer-term sustainable employment and locally planned and managed initiatives. With the exception of France, official policy and consequently the availability of information about local employment initiatives proved to be at best fragmentary. On the less official side, the United Kingdom was the only country in which a comprehensive survey had been carried out on community enterprises under the title 'Whose business is business?', co-sponsored by the Manpower Services Commission.¹

The utilization of local consultations as a form of fact-finding proved to have an number of advantages of which only the most important are mentioned here:

- ☐ it was possible to elicit a substantial amount of first-hand information about local employment initiatives with a minimum expenditure of financial and manpower resources;
- ☐ the process of pre-consultation surveys and inquiries produced a snowball effect so that many hitherto unknown initiatives came to light;

¹ 1981 Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation, 98 Portland Place, London W1 N4 ET, United Kingdom.

☐ the fact that the programme was sponsored by the European Commission and in most instances involved a 'foreign' organization (Centre for Employment Initiatives, London) gave a certain cachet and prestige to initiatives which otherwise might easily have gone unrecognized;

☐ the process of bringing together local entrepreneurs and representatives of both public and private institutions proved to be in itself a form of 'animation' or promotion, and the first stage of an on-going process;

☐ the participation in the consultations of representatives of central and other 'distant' official bodies proved to be mutually beneficial and educative to both these representatives and the local entrepreneurs;

☐ the process of compiling case studies and other forms of preparation for the consultation (local discussions, negotiations, etc.) proved invaluable in clarifying local people's understanding of what was involved and indeed of what they were seeking to do through their initiatives.

This field study and empirical approach was of course only a beginning. It could not by itself provide any complete or convincing conceptual framework. Indeed, this was no part of its immediate aim. Considerably more work is required in that direction, especially since this random sample of some 20 consultations could not include the total variety of local communities and regions within Europe. It can safely be assumed that overall there are even more variations in the scope of local employment initiatives than come to light in this programme of limited duration and extent.

First findings on the variety of local employment initiatives

Geographical distribution and size of enterprises

The consultations showed a growing number and a rich variety of initiatives being undertaken locally to create employment. They occur in many different types of areas: inner cities, suburbs, small towns, villages and rural areas. The most common characteristic is their smallness, that is that they comprise less than 10–15 persons, often providing employment for five or less. This is not to suggest that exceptions do not exist, but not more than two examples employing more than 100 people came to light and only very few employing over 50.

Legal forms, benefits from grassroots origin

Local employment initiatives also take a variety of different institutional and legal forms according to the legislation obtaining in different countries. These include private firms, partnerships, limited liability companies, workers' and community cooperatives, community enterprises, municipal enterprises together with a number of intermediate and new adaptations of these formats. They may arise through the efforts of individuals and of groups frequently made up of persons who are unemployed or are threatened with imminent unemployment. While they often require and seek the aid of other bodies, there is some evidence to show that initiatives are likely to be less successful if they have been started as a result of external intervention, as distinct from the strong determination of local individuals or a local community group.

Heterogeneous groups of prime movers at the local level

While part of the new employment creation is the result of direct action by individuals or groups of people, commonly unemployed or threatened by unemployment, local prime movers play an all-important role in other cases. Those prime movers are a very heterogeneous group, including local or regional government bodies concerned with employment and local economic and social development, existing employers willing to help redundant workers to find newly created jobs, trade unions, cooperative societies, charitable welfare and church organizations, action groups such as women's groups, ecologists, alternative economy groups, educational and cultural bodies.

Manifold organizational patterns and objectives of enterprises

Many local initiatives are similar to the traditional or orthodox modes of employment, management and production, but there are others which are innovative in these respects and deliberately set out to create 'alternative' patterns of employment, adopting forms of participation in policy-making and management as well as conditions of work and of pay which conform to a particular ideology or philosophy. In such enterprises decisions are often determined by consensus and the constitutional form of the enterprise aims to ensure that control is held by the workers themselves or by the local community group of which they are part and from which the initiative was born.

Interesting case studies

Here are a number of examples from those Member States where local employment creation is at its most dynamic:

France

□ Alma Gare, a traditional factory/workers' housing area in Roubaix hit by factory closures and threatened over several years with redevelopment into high-rise apartment blocks. Projects of social and economic regeneration of the area: Atelier Populaire d'Urbanisme et Alma-Info, Almag' Art (printing office), Atelier Cuisine (restaurant with social and cultural activities), Alma-Scop (workers' cooperative created by seven unemployed: building repair activities).

□ Électronique de Haut-Salat in Seix (Midi-Pyrénées). Its story started in early 1982 when an engineer turned up with an idea for a new kind of electronic circuit card to be used in computers. He put in a request for financing from a national technology agency and found in the mayor of Seix someone ready to help him. A disused schoolroom was found and converted into a workshop. This workshop is now employing six women who receive on-the-job training, including training sessions on forms of enterprises, including cooperatives, organization of work and planning of a workshop, sub-contracting, product development, how to start a business.

Italy

□ Coop-CATUR, a cooperative in Comeglians (mountain area near Udine) involved in a project of rural regeneration: development of social tourism after reconversion of abandoned housing, revival of traditional crafts, alternative fruit cultivation.

□ Nuova Reguitti in Brescia (northern Italy), rescue operation of a bankrupt business by a workers' cooperative, employing at present 219 people. Manufacturer of high-quality garden furniture and furniture designed for young people. A national market leader in its field.

□ As in many other parts of Italy, there is in the same area a dynamic development of social services (crèches, canteens, care for old people, cooperative schools), e.g. Nuova Dimensione (home care for old people, baby-sitting, domestic services, etc.) and Cooperative Educazione Alternativa (school for handicapped children) – both service cooperatives are in Brescia.

□ Coop Fabula Etrusca in Volterra (Tuscany), a cooperative created by former art students with the help of their professors: high-quality reproductions of Etruscan jewellery.

United Kingdom

As in France and Italy, a vast number of projects are underway in the United Kingdom. However, in the case of the United Kingdom, small-scale projects are often part of larger-scale initiatives or movements to create jobs in small enterprises, workers' cooperatives, neighbourhood, community business/cooperatives.

□ British Steel Industry small enterprise workshop: BSC Industry, established in 1975 as a wholly owned subsidiary of the British Steel Corporation to help create jobs in steel closure areas throughout the UK, is operating in 12 locations in Scotland, England and Wales. Between April 1978 and December 1981 BSC Industry had helped some 900 businesses expand, relocate or start up in these areas. In developing the workshop concept, the provision of premises by economic conversion of buildings was one of the key elements. Instead of long-term rent and rate commitments, there are 'easy in, easy out' renting conditions. In addition, comprehensive advisory services are available in the workshops, and these are seen as important in helping small-scale entrepreneurs.

□ After Italy and France, the UK has seen the greatest growth in workers' cooperatives in recent years. Starting from a very low base – a total of only 30 workers' cooperatives in 1975 – there were some 700 at the end of March 1983 and the rate of growth is accelerating. The Cooperative Development Agency (the State-sponsored national promotional agency) estimates that the total of workers' cooperatives in the UK will reach 1 000 during 1983.

□ Community businesses in Scotland: The idea of setting up community businesses originated with community workers concerned at the high level of unemployment in their areas. Starting with three in 1979, the number of community businesses in Scotland rose to 20 by the end of 1982 with a further 20–30 in the planning stage.

In October of that year, they formed themselves into a national federation (Community Business Scotland – CBS) aiming to undertake promotion of new ventures; support services; training; representation; publicity and finance. CBS has adopted the definition of a community business as 'a trading organization which is owned and controlled by the local community and which aims to create ultimately self-supporting and viable jobs for local people in its area of benefit, and to use profits from its business activities either to create more employment or to provide local services, or to support local charitable work. A community business is likely to be a multipurpose enterprise and it may be based on a geographical community or on a community of interest'. CBS membership is largely located in the industrial part of Central Scotland but includes representatives from community businesses in the Highlands and Islands.

Thus while some local initiatives follow the pattern of normal private enterprise and aim to make a profit from the provision of goods and

services which then belongs to the owners of the enterprise in their capacity of private persons, other initiatives have both social and

economic goals as a result of which the maximization of profit for personal gain is of less importance than enabling the participants to earn an

acceptable livelihood while producing goods and services which they feel will meet social needs and enhance the quality of life.

A range of labour-intensive activities

Local employment initiatives engage in many different activities. A majority provide employment through the provision of services rather than the manufacture of products. This appears to be related to the fact that many employ only very small numbers and are not heavily capitalized. However, examples of local initiatives were identified in most trading sectors, particularly in the recycling of materials and of furniture and

equipment, in agricultural processing, in light engineering and mechanical repairs, in energy conservation and environmental improvement, in social, educational and cultural services. Despite their overall smallness a number of enterprises are diversified, that is they pursue activities and provide employment of more than one type.

A wealth of case studies

The consultations have furnished a large number of interesting case studies, a selection of which will be annexed to the final report now in preparation at the Centre for Employment Initiatives, London. In addition, the Commission has col-

lected information on already well documented initiatives.

Findings on the key role of development agents and development agencies

One of the principal messages from the consultation is the need for systematic stimulation, advice and support. As a result, one of the main issues in the Commission's communication to the Council on local small-scale employment creation is likely to concern the promotion of development agents and agencies. The consultation has revealed the key role played by new specialist agencies (government-sponsored or based on self-help).

France/Belgium

'Boutiques de gestion' (BGs) – management shops would be the nearest translation in English – of which some 40 exist in France (they have all developed between 1980–83) and one in Belgium. Most of these agencies cover the 'non-traditional' types of entrepreneurs, such as the unemployed, social workers, and in general all those motivated to create jobs and regenerate the local socio-economic environment. The BGs have been set up in liaison with traditional advisory services (Chambres Consulaires), and offer entrepreneurs a comprehensive service of pre-start-up and on-going support. They also offer 'tailor-made' training courses for their clients. The first five BGs in France were co-financed by the European Social Fund. On average, they employ 2–3 persons.

Italy

In Italy, the support structures of the three cooperative organizations (*lega, confederazione, associazione*) have been strengthened in recent years. The cooperatives are also organized in unions – known as *consorzi* – which play a fundamental part in the Italian cooperative movement and its development. These *consorzi* provide the cooperatives with services of a very varied nature.

In addition, there are joint organizations between the cooperative movement and trade unions:

☐ Cooperazione e Lavoro (Cooperlavoro), set up by the *confederazione* and CISL (both Christian-democrat orientated); among their promotional activities are: re-training of workers in enterprises in crisis, anticipation of reconversion to a cooperative; the training of cooperative promoters; the development of social health services, to be managed by the elderly, in a cooperative structure.

☐ Coopsind, a joint structure between the LEGA and CGIL (both Socialist/Communist orientated), with the following main areas of intervention: cooperatives for young people; creation of new employment in the Mezzogiorno of a

cooperative or self-management nature; international cooperation with developing countries.

United Kingdom

☐ The British Steel Corporation and Community Business Scotland examples are already organizations fulfilling a development function.

☐ Local Enterprise Trusts and Agencies, some 140 of which have developed recently in the UK. These are organizations established in a local area to foster and encourage new and existing small businesses. Some have been inspired by one or more large companies, others from local authority and voluntary sector initiative. These organizations, both directly and through their networks of contacts among established local companies provide a range of services, including business analysis, financial appraisal and advice, marketing assistance, technical, legal and professional guidance. Some operate their own nursery premises and venture capital funds; many run training courses for potential small businessmen and women. Their aim is to be friendly, non-bureaucratic and accessible. They have enthusiastic advocates and supporters in big business and government; they are spreading rapidly and are increasingly being seen as a major weapon in fighting unemployment through fostering of small businesses. The Commission is currently co-sponsoring a first detailed evaluation of their performance with results expected in the first half of 1984.

☐ Local and regional Cooperative Development Agencies (CDAs) of which some 80 now exist in the UK. Of the 78 local/regional CSAs known at end-March 1983, some 33 were funded (in the main by local authorities, often in conjunction with central funds from the urban programme and Manpower Services Commission special programmes) employing some 90 full-time workers. The remaining 45 local groups operate on a voluntary basis for the moment.

Other Commission findings on needs and key factors for success of local initiatives

Besides identifying the key role of development agents and agencies, the Commission also came to other conclusions:

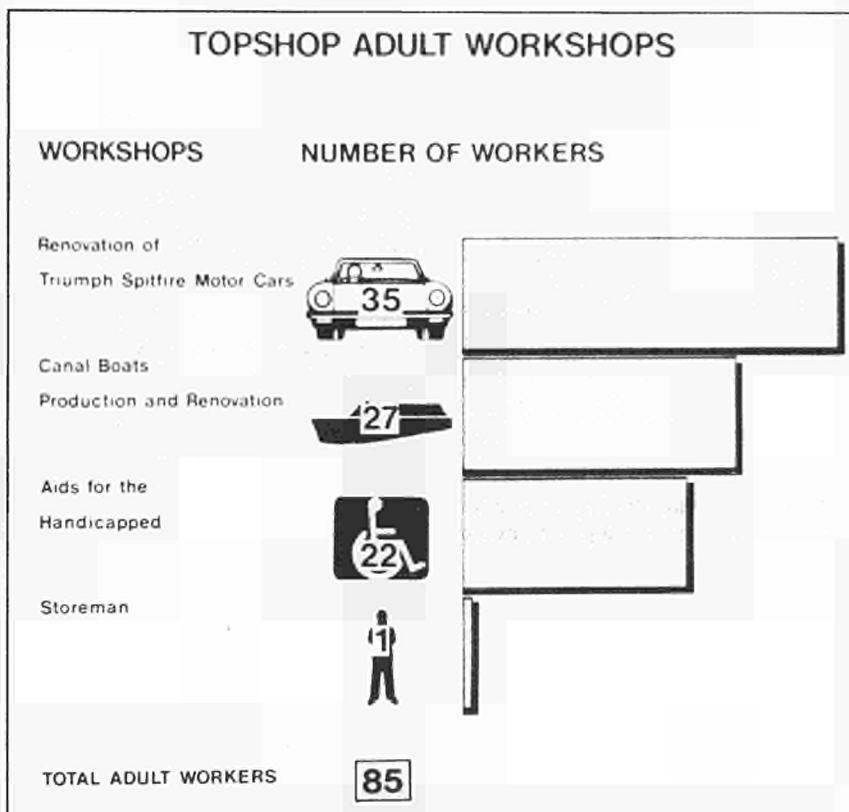
□ Local employment initiatives need to be publicly recognized and accepted as valid contributions to the goal of employment creation if they are to develop and if others are to be encouraged to follow the same route.

□ New concepts of training and learning, systems of financial support, and provision of premises have to be developed for these entrepreneurs/cooperators.

□ Systems of information exchange on local initiatives have to be developed at local, regional, national, and European level.

While at present the number of jobs created by the new local initiatives is small compared to the number of jobs being lost through the closure of traditional industries, local employment initiatives are making a significant response in individual and community terms to the fight against unemployment. The exchange of creative ideas in the consultations demonstrated that there is much untapped energy and initiative in people and in local communities and that this can be exploited to create new jobs. Overall, local small-scale employment creation will certainly not be a panacea to the problem of unemployment, but it can play a significant role, not only in creating jobs but in preparing the ground for the future development of the areas in which they occur by rebuilding confidence, maintaining people's skills and by strengthening the capacity for self-development.

Gerda Löwen



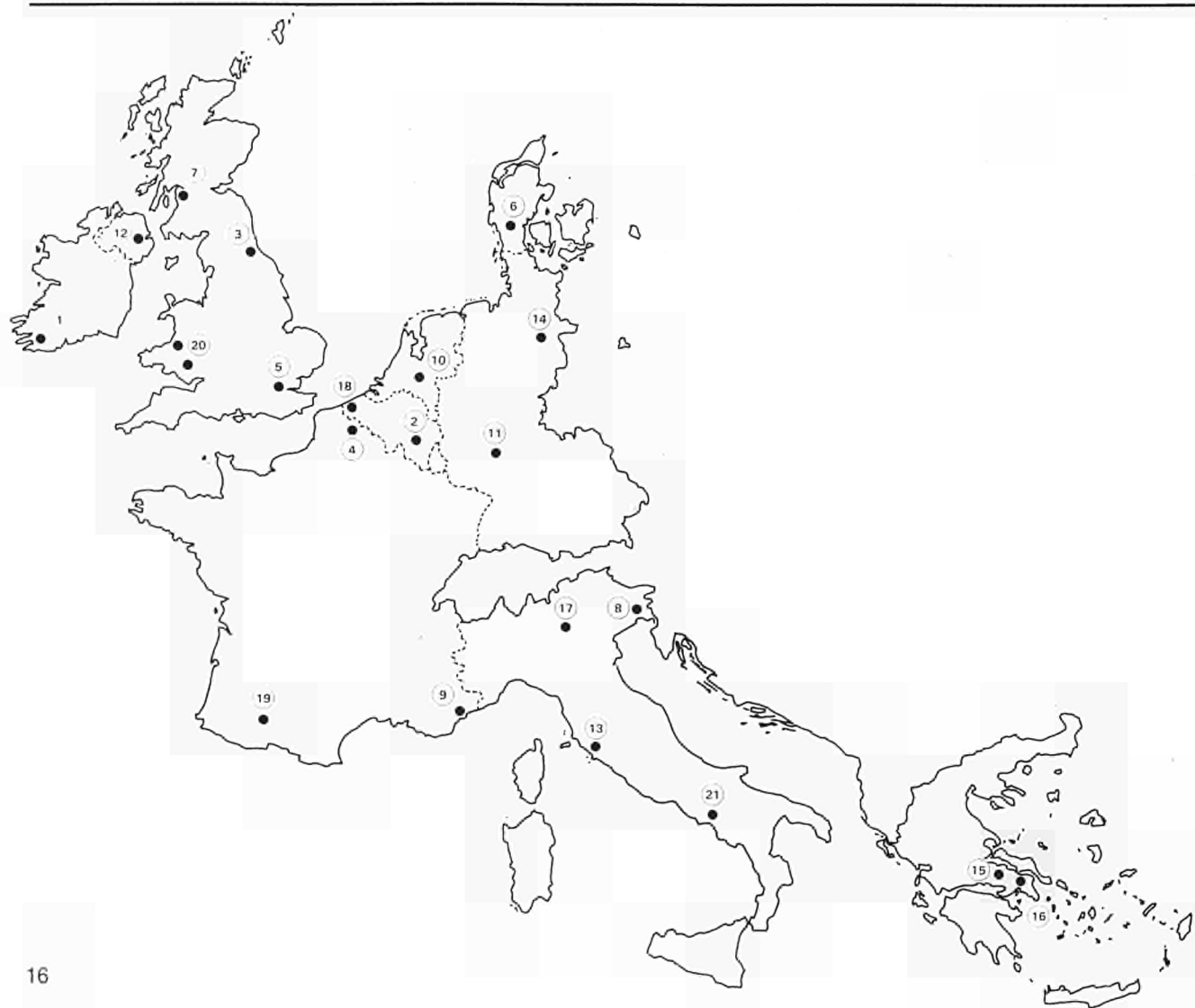
TOPSHOP workshops in Coventry (UK), specializing in production and renovation, for example ...



... Holiday barges based on traditional designs.



... Triumph Spitfire (loving restoration of a car which is no longer manufactured).



List of associations organizing meetings under the programme (1982-83) of consultations on local initiatives in the field of employment

Date	Place	Organization
(1) 11-12 June 1982	Cork, Ireland	Bank of Ireland – Centre for CO-OP Studies University of Cork Tel.: 021/268 71 ext. 21 13/25 70
(2) 4-5 November	Faulx-les-Tombes, Belgium	Fondation rurale de Wallonie Rue des Déportés 140 B-6700 Arlon Tel.: 063/22.03.78
(3) 20 November	Newcastle upon Tyne, United Kingdom	Project North-East 5 Saville Place Newcastle U.T. United Kingdom Tel.: 0632/61 78 56
(4) 26-27 November	Lille, France	ESPACE – Boutique de gestion 559, avenue de la République F-59700 Marcq en Baroeul Tel.: 20/55 04 97
(5) 16 December	London, United Kingdom	London Borough of Brent – Employment & Industrial Policy Sub-Committee Forty Lane Wembley/Middlesex HA9 9HK United Kingdom Tel.: 01-903-9900
(6) 28-29 January 1983	Silkeborg, Denmark	LAB (Landsforeningen Til Arbejdsløshedens Bekæmpelse) Hostrupsgade 11 Silkeborg 8600 Denmark Tel.: 6-816599
(7) 4 February	Glasgow, Scotland	Community Business Scotland 266 Clyde Street Glasgow G1 4JH United Kingdom Tel.: 041-221-8021
(8) 8 February	Comeglians, Italy	LEGA Nazionale delle Cooperative & Mutue – Associazione Nazionale Co-operative produzione & lavoro Via Bartolini 18 Udine, Italy Tel.: 0432/29 26 43
(9) 9-11 February	Nice, France <i>* International Seminar</i>	European Centre for Work & Society NL-6202 NB Maastricht Tel.: 043/167 24
(10) 24-25 February	's Hertogenbosch The Netherlands	Nederlands Centrum voor Werkloosheidsvraagstukken PO Box 85 NL-3981 CB Bunnik-Utrecht Tel.: 034 05-42 24

Date	Place	Organization
(11) 11–12 March	Oberursel, FR of Germany	ASH – Arbeiterselbsthilfe D-6370 Oberursel, Krebsmühle/Hessen Tel.: 0 61 71/7 34 96 DGB – Bundesjugendschule – Haus der Gewerkschaftsjugend Königsteiner Straße 28 D-6370 Oberursel Tel.: 061 71/5 60 53*
(12) 16 March	Belfast, Northern Ireland	Belfast Voluntary Welfare Society Bryson House 28 Bedford Street Belfast Northern Ireland Tel.: 22 58 35
(13) 11–12 April	Volterra, Italy	Intercultura Via dell'Electronica 18 I-00144 Rome Tel.: 06/5 81 67 32
(14) 28–30 April	Loccum, FR of Germany	Evangelische Akademie Loccum D-3056 Rehburg-Loccum Tel.: 0 57 66/81-0
(15) 30 April (16) 14 May	Thebes, Greece Attica, Greece	XAN/YWCA 11 Amerikis Athens 135 Greece Tel.: 0030 1/3 62 61 80
(17) 23–24 May	Brescia, Italy	ISPES (Istituto per la promozione dello sviluppo economico sociale) Palazzo Taverna Via di Monte Giordano 36 I-00186 Rome Tel.: 06/6 54 26 48
(18) 19–20 May	Nieuwerkerke, Belgium	Opbouwwerk Gelegenheid Streekhuis 'Malegys' B-8948 Kemmel Tel.: 057/44.47.10
(19) 26–27 May	Seix, France	CREER (Collectif de recherche et d'étude pour l'environnement et la région) 7, rue du Salé F-31000 Toulouse Tel.: 61/23 30 28
(20) 3–4 June	Bangor – Cwmbran, Wales/UK	Mutual Aid Support Network, Wales 78 Bridge Street Newport – Gwent NET 4AQ United Kingdom Tel.: 0633/5 18 68
(21) 1–2 July	Cava dei Tirreni (SA), Italy	ISPES (Istituto per la promozione dello sviluppo economico sociale) Palazzo Taverna Via Di Monte Giordano 36 I-00186 Rome Tel.: 06/6 54 26 48

Reduction of working time in Europe

The Community institutions have for a number of years been considering how to reduce individual working time in such a way as to reduce the high levels of unemployment prevailing in almost all Member States. The Council of Ministers for Employment and Social Affairs took the first step in this direction at the end of 1979 with a resolution on the adaptation of working time, from which have ensued two Commission proposals for directives (i.e. binding legal instruments), one on voluntary part-time work and the other on temporary work (these are currently before the Council), and a recommendation on flexible retirement, which was adopted by the Council at the end of 1982.

Obviously, the organization of part-time work in particular is closely bound up with questions of work sharing. Apart from the financial considerations, a major factor influencing any decision by workers to press for alternatives to full-time work will be the question of whether they retain the same rights and obligations as full-time workers. The Commission thus attaches great importance to this draft directive and to its adoption, considering it essential to remove the stigma of inferiority attaching to these alternative forms of work in order to encourage greater flexibility of individual working time.

However, the Commission is not merely concerned to provide legal safeguards for forms of work deviating from the norm; it also wishes to encourage and support the redistribution of work, both now and in the future. It is quite clear that the present situation, in which approximately 10.5% of the labour force is without work, is completely untenable in the long term. Nor, if the forecasts are correct, will economic growth in the years ahead be sufficient to make any appreciable impact on the employment situation. On the contrary, the advances in labour-saving technology will mean that even greater efforts will have to

be made in order to protect the basic social right to employment. In addition, there is the prospect of a further increase in the labour force, which will place considerable pressure on the labour market in the future. From what we know at present, therefore, there is no alternative to a radical reduction in working time. A lot will depend on the conditions under which the desired results, and in particular a reduction in unemployment, can be achieved, and on finding the fairest and most efficient way of sharing the burden among the different groups in our society. For there is no doubt that there will be a price to pay.

At the end of last year the EC Commission issued a memorandum on the subject, and distributed it to all interested organizations. This document sets out what the Commission regards as the most important conditions for making working time a valuable instrument of a comprehensive employment policy. It has been discussed by employers' and workers' organizations in Europe and, as could only be expected, each side has focused on those aspects which most closely tie in with its own policies.

In brief, the unions positively welcome a Community approach in this field, regarding it as providing a coherent framework for negotiations at lower level. At the same time, however, they stress that the adaptation of working time must not involve wage cutbacks, and that, far from creating new jobs, a more flexible deployment of labour would probably result in job losses.

As for the employers, it is precisely this prospect of greater flexibility which attracts them, although they believe that the organization of such schemes should be as decentralized as possible, thus making agreements at Community level unnecessary. Indeed, they believe that agreements at Community level would be damaging and impose unnecessary restrictions on work plan-

ning. In addition, the employers stress that wages must correspond to the number of hours worked; in other words they believe there can be no question of wage compensation. In fact, wages would have to be reduced still further in order to offset cost increases.

Apart from the two sides of industry, governments naturally also have an important role to play in the matter. The document has received a more or less positive response, depending on the philosophies of the governments concerned and the extent to which they have been actively concerned with this subject at national level.

Surprisingly, it transpires that a number of centre-right governments have been very active in promoting a redistribution of work, partly by means of new legislation and partly by placing considerable moral pressure on the two sides of industry to reach agreements to this effect.

Amidst these conflicting views, the Commission was now faced with the difficult task of producing proposals likely to create a new impetus, at least at European level. It was clear that in most countries, apart from France, Belgium, the Netherlands and Italy, the two sides of industry alone were not capable of reaching a suitable agreement. It was now, therefore, up to the Commission to act. Should it propose a directive, or would a non-binding legal instrument be better? And why should the Community become involved at all in a field in which most matters were resolved through agreements between the two sides of industry? The answer is that the Commission believes that a common approach would minimize the risk of potential distortions of competition between different countries as a result of diverging policies. Such an approach would help to ensure the unity of the common market and to foster economic convergence in the Community. Moreover, the issue has more than

one dimension: apart from the employment aspect there is also the question of humanization, i.e. the improvement of living and working conditions for workers, an objective expressly stated in Article 117 of the EEC Treaty. However, the most important consideration, as far as the Commission is concerned, is that the political weight of the Community can give more impetus and coherence to endeavours to reduce working time, which might otherwise remain fragmented and ineffective. The Commission also takes encouragement from the fact that most governments, as well as the European Parliament and the Economic and Social Committee, fully accept that the question has a Community dimension.

In these circumstances, it was decided that the most suitable form of Community instrument would be a Council recommendation to the Member States. Rather than laying down strict obligations, the Commission wanted to set out policy objectives and guidelines which would demonstrate the need for solidarity among the labour force and persuade governments of the need to support the reduction of working time as an instrument of employment policy. Two main aims are formulated in the draft recommendation, which was adopted on 15 September 1983:

The first aim is to bring about a reduction in individual working time, combined with its reorganization, sufficiently substantial to support the positive development of employment, under conditions which safeguard competitiveness as well as basic social rights. Quantitative measures in this field, aimed at accelerating the trend towards a reduction in traditional working hours, are to be worked out at national level by governments and the two sides of industry, although care is to be taken to avoid increases in unit production costs. Any (partial) wage adjustments in the context of working-time reductions should take into account

the need to protect the interests of the low-paid. Reductions in working time should as far as possible be combined with the reorganization of working time, and hence also of production time, so that operating costs can be kept to a minimum and productivity increased through the flexible use of capital equipment. As for the form which reduced working time could take, it could involve reductions in the hours worked daily, weekly or annually, or reductions in the amount of time spent working over an entire lifetime. This would depend on the circumstances in each country, sector and type of enterprise, and should be worked out by the two sides of industry. Particular attention should be paid to small enterprises, for they are the ones most likely to experience organizational and financial difficulties as a result of reductions in working time. Governments are asked to contribute financially on a temporary basis to efforts to achieve reduced working time, in particular to help both employers and workers where necessary to overcome the initial problems encountered on the introduction of new schemes. They are also urged, where necessary, to adapt labour law and social legislation and to remove any actual or potential bottlenecks in the labour market which might obstruct the job-creating effects of reductions in individual working time.

Finally, as the biggest employer, the public sector is urged to set an example.

The second objective is to limit more strictly systematic paid overtime and increasingly to compensate necessary overtime by time off in lieu rather than by additional payments. This is to ensure that reductions in normal working time are not offset by increased overtime, thus cancelling out any potential effect on unemployment. Paid overtime ceilings should therefore be reduced in the same proportion as individual working hours, although measures should be introduced to

protect the interests of the low-paid, for whom systematic paid overtime has become part of normal income.

The Commission's draft recommendation has now been submitted to the Council and was transmitted to the European Parliament and the Economic and Social Committee. The two bodies gave their favourable opinions so that the Council can make its decision.

It might be asked, and with some justification, whether this instrument can actually make any contribution towards improving the employment situation. Critics might complain that, while a recommendation imposes a political and moral duty on Member States, it has no binding legal force. The point is, however, that the Commission's main interest is in laying down a clear policy statement rather than getting involved in the actual implementation, which in most Member States is mainly a matter for the two sides of industry. But governments, too, play an important role in this matter in certain countries (one need only think of the legislation concerning the reduction of weekly working time adopted by the French Government at the beginning of 1982, or the strong pressure exerted by the Belgian Government on the 1983 collective wage agreements). However, even in the other Member States the governments are involved, albeit in a less spectacular way, in measures to reduce working time (in particular through the introduction of early retirement). A recommendation to the national governments is therefore a perfectly legitimate approach.

A closer examination of the contents of the draft recommendation reveals that the Commission has tried to produce a balanced package of measures and conditions, so as to make the reduction of working time an attractive proposition for both workers and employers. In the Commission's opinion, the degree to which the reduction and reorganiza-

tion of working time can help to reduce unemployment depends on the fulfilment of the following conditions:

- ☐ the competitiveness of enterprises should not be affected, which means in particular that unit production costs must not rise;
- ☐ the reorganization of working time should result in a more flexible utilization of capital equipment, in particular by lengthening production time, so that equipment is used more efficiently and more productively;
- ☐ special labour market measures should be taken, where necessary, to overcome or avoid actual or potential shortages of particular types of worker – whether general shortages or shortages restricted to specific geographical areas;
- ☐ the special characteristics and constraints prevailing in specific economic sectors and specific types and sizes of enterprise, in particular small enterprises, must be taken into account.

Critics might object that the draft does not lay sufficient stress on the importance of reducing working time considerably within a relatively short period, a policy which would oblige employers to take on new workers to make up for the lost working hours. Organizing working time more intelligently may avoid the need for dismissals, but it will not necessarily have a positive effect on the employment situation. Consequently, critics might say that the accent should have been more on reducing working time rather than reorganizing it. It might also be wondered whether, in the interests of employment, it would not have been better to encourage a general reduction in the hours worked daily or weekly; this would cover nearly all workers and would increase their awareness of the need for solidarity, while at the same time maximizing the potential indirect savings to

governments. The advantages of guidelines with a general application are that employers are less likely to try to get round them and that the same quantitative effects can be achieved without placing a disproportionately heavy burden on any particular group in the labour market (an obvious example is the moral pressure on older workers to retire and make way for the younger generation). General reductions could also lead to a more equal distribution of unpaid work, in particular between men and women, an aim which receives relatively little attention in the draft. Within this general reduction in working time it would then be possible to develop subsidiary and individually flexible arrangements for working time. It would need to be ensured that workers on shorter hours retained the same rights and obligations as full-time employees, as stipulated in the Commission's draft directive on voluntary part-time work.

The draft recommendation deals only indirectly with the question of wage compensation, although in many countries this has been at the very centre of the discussions. As already mentioned, the Commission considers it essential that reductions in working time should not lead to increases in unit production costs. At the same time, however, it emphasizes that particular attention should be paid to the development of demand and of aggregate purchasing power. It also stresses the need to protect the interests of the low-paid. The Commission considers that for the most part these questions can be resolved within the context of collective wage agreements, in the course of which all the factors relevant to the determination of wage levels should be taken into account. Nevertheless, in the present situation, in which the real purchasing power of most workers is in fact declining, the question of wage compensation remains crucially important. The other policies laid down in the draft recommendation –

policies on the promotion of growth and the restructuring of industrial activity – take on added importance in so far as they will avoid any negative effects on basic incomes and thus help to ease the dilemma.

Moreover, model calculations have shown that the creation of new jobs will not depend on the level of wage compensation alone (i.e. full, partial or zero compensation). The results also depend to a large extent on the underlying assumptions concerning management's investment policies, the relative use of capital, labour, etc., and the policies adopted by the public authorities. Full wage compensation leading to higher production costs tends, however, to be inflationary, with the result that firms become less competitive and the balance of payments suffers.

Despite considerable variations, most of the model calculations indicate that a general reduction in working time would have a positive effect on employment.

In conclusion, a policy of reducing and reorganizing working time must form part of an overall strategy for the revival of the economy and must fully accord with the various measures within this strategy, in particular with measures to promote the competitiveness of the Community's industries. It should also be seen in the light of other aspects of this strategy, in particular the desire to encourage more investment, which, if successful, could increase the strategy's effectiveness. The Commission hopes that, as a result of its draft recommendation, working time will come to be recognized as an essential element of an employment strategy. This would pave the way for action at Community level, which would reduce fears of a beggar-my-neighbour policy and thus encourage countries to work together to eliminate the unemployment which is prevalent in practically all EC Member States.

Klaus Kaeding

Community action on behalf of women

The action programme conducted by the Commission of the European Communities on behalf of women aims to improve the position of women in all fields relating to employment in the broadest sense of the word. Action is currently being extended to social, political and family life.

The Treaty of Rome signed in 1957 includes, amongst its provisions concerning social policy, a few sentences in Article 119 on equal pay for male and female workers. Although this article does not cover all the problems experienced by women, or even the whole question of equal treatment for men and women, its aim was to prevent considerable salary discrepancies from distorting free competition between businesses in the various Member States. The Member States had difficulty in applying this article, and it took numerous reports and negotiations, as well as a directive (which was not adopted until 1975) to clarify the situation.

Women have had increasing access to the labour market since the 1960s, but they are still discrimi-

nated against in employment as regards salary, promotion, vocational training, working conditions, social security, etc.

In recognition of this situation, the Council adopted a resolution in 1974 which expressed its political willingness to support a social action programme in which one of the Commission's aims was to create a situation which would assure equal treatment for men and women on the Community labour market, by improving both economic and psychological conditions and the social and educational infrastructure.

Subsequently, three directives were adopted by the Council. The first is concerned with the approximation of the Member States' laws on equal pay for men and women¹ and completes the implementing provisions for Article 119. The second is intended to safeguard the principle of equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training and promotion, and working conditions.² Finally, the third directive is con-

cerned with equal treatment for men and women in matters of social security.³

Social unrest and the economic crisis have added to the traditional impediments to equal treatment for women. Women, especially young women, are still more affected by unemployment than men. When they do find a job, it frequently entails little security, is temporary or part-time, requires few qualifications, if any, and is often in a precarious sector.

Nevertheless women continue to ask for work, and this trend must be considered irreversible. They now represent nearly 40% of the total labour force.

It is against this background that a new Community action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women has been submitted for the period 1982-85. The programme proposes action on two fronts: (i) at a legal level, by supplementing existing Community regulations, and (ii) at a more practical level, with direct action to remedy *de facto* inequality.

Dominique De Vos

¹ Directive 75/117/EEC (OJ L 45, 19.2.1975, p. 19).

² Directive 76/207/EEC (OJ L 39, 14.1.1976, p. 40).

³ Directive 79/7/EEC (OJ L 6, 10.1.1979, p. 24).

Towards equality of opportunity for women¹

The Community's new action programme on equal opportunities for women (1982–85) is the outcome of a whole series of discussions and statements by the national committees on the employment of women at the Manchester Conference in May 1980, by the European Parliament's *Ad Hoc* Committee on Women's Rights and by the European Parliament itself, which adopted a resolution on 11 February 1981 on 'the position of women in the European Community'.¹

Attention has been drawn to the same shortcomings and the same possible solutions by the European Trade Union Confederation, the European Youth Forum, the OECD and the United Nations.

It was time for the European Community to give new impetus to equal opportunities. This was the background to the new action programme approved in a Council Resolution on 12 July 1982,² which 'approves the general objectives of this communication, namely 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 positive measures, and expresses the will to implement appropriate measures to achieve them'.

The new programme has been designed to achieve two main objectives: expanding equal treatment by strengthening individual rights, and counteracting or offsetting the effects of social realities on the behaviour of individuals.

A. Achieving equal treatment by strengthening individual rights

The Commission intends to ensure that legislation already in force is complied with, using all the legal means at its disposal.

There is an urgent need for better understanding of the way the directives are implemented in practice, and for providing a clear, precise definition of certain concepts (such

as indirect discrimination) which have led to confusion, without neglecting the implications of directives in other areas of law (civil, criminal, commercial and tax law, etc.).

As a result, a group of experts has been set up at European level to study the concrete problems of implementing the directives by way of laws, administrative provisions, collective agreements, case-law and practice.

By the same token, before we can improve means of legal redress for infringement of equal treatment – which are very rarely utilized by female employees, for a number of reasons – we will have to see the results of the comparative study now in hand on the national experience gained in this field and the national systems, which will help to identify examples worth following.

The Commission discovered that much protective legislation on the employment of women was no longer based on the desire to protect women which had originally inspired it, and that it had the secondary effect of excluding women from large areas of employment and promotion prospects. The Commission decided to help the Member States to revise such legislation and adapt it to changes in technology and social values. A comparative study has been carried out and may lead to a proposal for Community standards for protection applicable equally to men and women.

Finally, the Community's action must be extended to other areas.

In the area of social security, Council Directive 79/7/EEC of 19 December 1978 on the progressive implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women in this area, applies only to statutory social security schemes. But the workings of the very many occupational schemes needed to be studied in detail, and after this study a proposal for a directive was prepared on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and

women in occupational social security schemes.³ It has now been submitted to the Council.

Directive 79/7/EEC did not apply to the provisions for certain areas (survivors' benefits and family benefits) and it allowed exceptions in the case of persons who had brought up children (increases in long-term benefits, waiving of the obligation to belong to a statutory scheme). An assessment has been made of the discrimination at present arising from these distinctions and exceptions, and possible solutions and reviews of certain areas are to be outlined with a view to eliminating this discrimination.

The way in which the concept of 'head of family' is applied in social security schemes still leads to such discrimination that the Community is recommending a system of individual entitlements.

Although the directive on equal treatment for men and women in access to employment, occupational training and working conditions also applied to the self-employed, it is apparent that the professional status of self-employed women is so complex and unfavourable that extensive thought has had to be given to the special problems arising, in order to improve their status and ensure equal treatment. Accordingly, a legal standard is being drawn up on the application of the principle of equal treatment for men and women with self-employed status, including those in the agricultural sector, and on the protection of women on grounds of maternity.

The tax systems of several Member States have damaging effects on the employment of women. The pressure of taxation may be so great that women are discouraged from seeking employment; this is

¹ OJ C 50, 9. 3. 1981, p. 35.

² Council Resolution of 12 July 1982 concerning the promotion of equal opportunities for women, OJ C 186, 21. 7. 1982, pp. 3–4.

³ COM 83 (217) final.

often the case for married women whose earnings are lumped together with their husband's. These undesirable effects were brought to light in a study on the subject, showing the ratio between the tax payable by a single-salary household and one with two salaries coming in, and also comparing the taxation of unmarried women and married women with or without children. This is a difficult area because it involves complex legislation and is linked with budgetary constraints arising from the economic situation. The Commission must take account of these dual needs in its future work in this area.

Among the possible ways of improving living conditions and adjusting working time, the development of parental leave and leave for family

reasons may encourage a better sharing of family responsibilities and job responsibilities between men and women.

At the same time, care must be taken that the extension of these types of leave does not lead to a reduction in the network of public child-care facilities and services. The Commission first studied the Member States' experience in the field of leave for bringing up children and public child-care facilities, and then prepared a legal standard to encourage the granting of leave of this type.

In Europe all the Member States have legal provision to protect pregnant women and maternity-leave entitlement, although the legislation is incomplete in some countries regarding the length of leave and payment granted, medical supervision,

the area of application of these provisions, and protection against non-recruitment and dismissal of pregnant women. The Commission therefore decided to carry out a comparative analysis and assessment of the financial implications of existing legal provisions in order to establish the most complete and appropriate protection of pregnant women. There are also plans to draft a Community-wide legal instrument on this topic.

B. Equality of opportunity in practice

The second objective of the action programme is concerned with translating equal opportunities into social reality, by way of 'programmes of positive action'. This is an approach based on voluntary ac-

Photo: Guyaux; Bruxelles



tion, the intention being to improve the situation of women on the labour market by creating a more direct awareness of existing inequalities.

The laws passed by the Member States on equal treatment will not be enough, on their own, to eliminate discrimination as this is usually based on conditioning, stereotypes and the roles traditionally allotted to men and women.

Directive 76/207/EEC states, in Article 2 (4), that it 'shall be without prejudice to measures to promote equal opportunity for men and women, in particular by removing existing inequalities which affect women's opportunities' in the areas covered by the directive.

Having studied the experience gained with positive action in the Scandinavian countries and the United States, the Commission is therefore examining the possibility of preparing Community legislation on the type of action to be encouraged and the means to implement it, together with the essential measures to check that it is effective. It will support

national initiatives in this area, such as the organization of conferences, specific training programmes, appointment of equality counsellors, encouragement to apply for promotion, installation of child-care facilities, etc.

The new action programme recommends that positive action be encouraged in many sectors and at different stages of the individual's working life, including preparation for working life, initial training, further training, active employment, improvement of the quality of life, etc.

As can be seen, the scope of positive action is very wide and the Commission has already launched several positive-action schemes, on desegregation of the labour market, a study of the trends on this market, the sharing of family, social and job responsibilities, revision of attitudes, specific problems of immigrant women, etc. This strategy to redress the inequalities suffered by women in their working and social life is of central importance if there is to be any real improvement in the

situation of women. The next issue of *Social Europe* will contain a more complete article on the whole range of actions to be carried out by the Member States and the Commission to this end.

Although the new action programme is now in full swing, a great deal still remains to be done both in the huge area of positive action and in that of improving individual rights, especially relating to social security, taxation, parental leave, the protection of self-employed women, and maternity protection.

Every effort must be made to encourage these types of action in the light of the Council Resolution of 12 July 1982 on the promotion of equal opportunities for women. It was the Council's opinion that the action programme should help to guide the Community and the Member States in their policies to ensure equal opportunities, and that there must be no discrimination against women regardless of the economic situation.

Dominique De Vos

Women and their career choices

'What are you going to be when you grow up?'

The answer to this question rarely surprises anyone. Although it is true to say that the majority of women dream of having a dynamic career, when it really comes down to it – in most cases – they opt for typical 'women' jobs, following the traditional 'roles' that they have been conditioned to accept since birth and throughout their school life.

Because this is a major obstacle to women entering the job market, Directive 76/207/EEC¹ has specifically prescribed the principle of equal treatment for both men and women, particularly where vocational training is concerned.

Even though all the countries have taken measures to have this principle written into their national law, differences in the directions followed by men and women in education and careers are still very pronounced.

If a change in direction does not take place subsequently, these initial choices will put women at a disadvantage in the job market all through their lives.

What are the actual facts?

As a result of the type of training they are given, women find themselves concentrated in some sectors (textiles, service industry, distributive trades, etc.) and some particular functions (office work, retail sales, medical care, etc.), all so-called women's jobs, and more often than not on the lowest rung of the ladder. These jobs are threatened by the introduction of new technology, when they are not being phased out completely.

The range of occupations that women follow is much more restricted than in the case of men. Their training is less varied and even if they complete it at least as well as the men, their subsequent careers may not fulfil their expectations.



Photo: Guyaux; Bruxelles

Women are only considered for new and promising occupations after men: and this is presently the case in all sectors using new technology.

Moreover, in the majority of cases, society looks to them to assume responsibility for the family, and they interrupt their careers to do so. But when they again look for a job, they find that their qualifications are inadequate, they are looked down on and are unable to fulfil the demands made upon them by employers.

With the encouragement of the Member States, working in conjunction with the European Social Fund or the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training,² a few modest attempts have been made to train women for employment in traditionally male jobs with good career prospects. An initial

¹ OJ L 39, 14. 1. 1976, p. 40.

² European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, Bundesallee 22, D-1000 Berlin 15, Tel. (030) 88 10 61.

assessment of the results has been made but the initiative needs to be pursued further. The new Community action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities aims to widen the choice of jobs open to women by various means:

☐ by pursuing, stimulating and reinforcing the actions undertaken by several Member States in the area of training and guidance;

☐ by implementing and exchanging teaching methods, and methods of

careers and education counselling and by providing ancillary aids, documentation and other material to stimulate public awareness;

☐ by creating a group to disseminate information on the subject of equal opportunities whose task it will be to stimulate integrated national programmes in the field of education and training, with particular reference to the new technologies. These experts should first of all analyse the systems of education, counselling and training, and

identify any shortcomings or any obstacles placed in the way of women in any sphere of training; then, when have made their diagnosis, they should propose measures which are most likely to bring about substantial improvements. Since this concerns both school education, as well as basic and specialized training, this venture will require teamwork involving people drawn from public bodies, the various welfare agencies, the academic world, and from private associations or bodies.

Information services for women

Action by the Commission for the benefit of women calls for a constant dialogue with women and their representatives.

Certain structures are available for this purpose.

Bureau for questions concerning employment and equal treatment for women

This comes under the Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Education.¹

This Bureau has the task of keeping under review Community legislation relating to employment for women, infringement procedures and the implementation of the new action programme. It encourages projects undertaken by women's associations with a view to promoting equal treatment. It also deals with information for the sectors of the public involved, and cooperates with the European Social Fund and the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (Cedefop).² As a Commission de-

partment, it takes part in coordinating the positions of the Member States when legal instruments are adopted on subjects involving women. Lastly, it acts as Secretariat for the Advisory Committee on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men.

Directorate-General for Information – Information for women's organizations and press³

This is attached to the Directorate-General for Information and contributes to the dissemination of ideas and information.

It publishes a two-monthly bulletin in seven languages called *Women of Europe*, containing information on Community policies relating to women, changes in the status of women in institutions and legislation in the 10 Member States, and the activities of women's and international associations.

It also publishes dossiers on Community policies specifically relating to women.

Concurrently, it encourages, takes part in and supports, sometimes financially, symposia, seminars and training courses organized by women's associations.

Advisory Committee on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men

This was set up by a Commission Decision of 9 December 1983 in order to advise the Commission in the preparation and implementation of its policy to promote the employment of women and equal opportunities, and to ensure a constant exchange of national experience. It may deliver opinions, submit reports to the Commission on these subjects and exchange information with the Commission on action taken at Community level.

It comprises two representatives of the national equal opportunities or women's employment committees⁴ per Member State and it accepts representatives from both sides of industry (trade unions and employers).

National Equal Opportunities or Women's Employment Committees

Belgium

Commission du Travail des Femmes
Ministère de l'Emploi et du Travail
Rue Belliard 51-53
B-1040 Brussels

Denmark

Ligestillingsradets sekretariat
Frederiksgade 21, 1
DK-1265 Copenhagen K

Greece

Council on Equality
Political Bureau of the Prime Minister
Greek Parliament
Athens

Federal Republic of Germany

Frauenpolitik im Bundesministerium für
Jugend, Familie und Gesundheit
Kennedyallee 105-107
D-5300 Bonn 2

France

Comité du Travail Féminin
14, Rue Montrosier
F-92200 Neuilly s/Seine

Ireland

Employment Equality Agency
36 Upper Mount Street
Dublin 2

Italy

Direzione Generale dei Rapporti di Lavoro
Ministero del Lavoro
Via Flavia 6
Rome

Luxembourg

Comité du Travail Féminin
10 Rue C. M. Spoo
L-2910 Luxembourg

The Netherlands

Emancipatieraad
Lutherse Burgwal 10
NL-2512 CB The Hague

United Kingdom

Equal Opportunities Commission
Overseas House
Quay Street
Manchester M3 3HN

¹ Rue de la Loi 200, B-1049 Brussels.

² Bundesallee 22, D-1000 Berlin 15.

³ Rue de la Loi 200, B-1049 Brussels. A list of the addresses of the Information Offices is appended.

⁴ See list of national committees.

Information offices in Member States

Belgium

Rue Archimède 73
B-1040 Brussels
Tel.: 235 11 11
Telex: 26 657 COMINF B

Denmark

Højbrohus
Østergade 61
Postbox 144
DK-1004 Copenhagen K
Tel.: 14 41 40
Telex: 16 402 COMEUR DK

Federal Republic of Germany

Zitelmannstraße 22
D-5300 Bonn
Tel.: 23 80 41
Telex: 886 648 EUROP D
Suboffice attached to Bonn Office:
Kurfürstendamm 102
D-1000 Berlin 31
Tel.: 8 92 40 28
Telex: 184 015 EUROP D

Greece

2 Vassilissis Sofias
T.K. 1602
Athens 134
Tel.: 7 24 39 82/83/84
Telex: 219 324 ECAT GR

France

61, Rue des Belles-Feuilles
F-75782 Paris Cédex 16
Tel.: 5 01 58 85
Telex: Paris 611 019 COMEUR

Ireland

39 Molesworth Street
Dublin 2
Tel.: 71 22 44
Telex: 25 551 EUCO EI

Italy

Via Poli 29
I-00187 Rome
Tel.: 6 78 97 22
Telex: 610 184 EUROMA I
Suboffice attached to Rome Office:
Corso Magenta 61
I-20123 Milan
Tel.: 80 15 05/6/7/8
Telex: 316 002 EURMIL I

Luxembourg

Bâtiment Jean Monnet
Rue Alcide de Gasperi
L-2920 Luxembourg
Tel.: 430 11
Telex: 3423/3446/3476 COMEUR LU

The Netherlands

Lange Voorhout 29
The Hague
Tel.: 46 93 26
Telex: 31 094 EURCO NL

United Kingdom

8 Storey's Gate
London SW1P 3AT
Tel.: 2 22 81 22
Telex: 23 208 EURUK G

Suboffice attached to London Office:
Windsor House
9/15 Bedford Street
Belfast BT2 7EG
Tel.: 4 07 08
Telex: 74 117 CECBEL G

Suboffice attached to London Office:
4 Cathedral Road
Cardiff CF1 9SG
Tel.: 37 16 31
Telex: 497 727 EUROPA G

Suboffice attached to London Office:
7 Alva Street
Edinburgh EH2 4PH
Tel.: 2 25 20 58
Telex: 727 420 EUEDING

Progressive implementation of equal treatment in statutory social security schemes

On 19 December 1978¹ the Council of the European Communities adopted a directive on the progressive implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women in matters of social security.

Proposals covering both statutory and occupational schemes had been made by the Commission with a view to ending the existing discrimination in the field of social security. These were not followed by the Council, and the Directive of 19 December 1978 covers discrimination in statutory schemes only.

It should be remembered that in Community law, a directive is a binding legal instrument; it lays down one or more precise objectives which Member States must achieve within a given time-limit. Unlike regulations, which are directly applicable in Member States and form part of the latter's internal legislation, directives leave to Member States the choice, in accordance with their own systems, of the legal means to be used to adapt national legislation to Community law within the time-limit allowed.

The need to comply with the six-year time-limit (22 December 1984) laid down by Directive 79/7/EEC means that Member States must take all steps necessary to ensure that the laws, regulations and administrative provisions contravening the principle of equal treatment should be abolished. The aim of the directive is to end any direct or indirect dis-

crimination on grounds of sex in statutory social security schemes affording protection against the risks of sickness, invalidity, old age, accidents at work, occupational diseases and unemployment.

The Commission has responsibility for ensuring that during the transitional period covering the progressive implementation of the directive any measures likely to jeopardize the principle of equal treatment are avoided.

In order to fulfil the obligations devolving on it by virtue of the Treaty and, if necessary, to facilitate the implementation of this directive, the Commission has prepared a report for the Member States to illustrate the problems which adaptation of national legislation to the directive might cause.²

The progressive implementation of the directive does in fact raise certain fairly complex problems, which must be overcome if it is to be applied effectively within the time-limit.

The questions raised are very varied.

I – What exactly are the fields covered by the directive?

II – What is the principle of equal treatment in matters of social security?

¹ Directive 79/7/EEC, (OJ L 6, 10. 1. 1979, pp. 24–25).

² This report will be published in full 'Document' by the Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

The scope of the directive and existing inequalities

A – Fields covered by the directive

(a) Who is covered by the directive and (b) for what risks?

(a) Scope in relation to persons

From the point of view of its scope in relation to persons, the directive covers a fairly wide field. It applies to the whole working population including self-employed persons, whose activity is interrupted by illness, accident or involuntary unemployment, persons seeking employment, and to retired or invalid employees and self-employed persons.

(b) Scope in relation to subject-matter

With regard to its scope in relation to subject-matter, the directive is admittedly fairly restricted. It applies to statutory schemes which provide protection against risks of sickness, invalidity, old age, accidents at work, occupational diseases and unemployment. Social assistance benefits are also taken into account in so far as they are intended to supplement or replace social security benefits in respect of the above risks.

Nevertheless, the directive does not apply to the provisions concerning survivors' benefits nor those concerning family benefits, except in the case of family benefits granted

by way of increases of benefits due in respect of risks of sickness, invalidity, old age, accidents at work, occupational diseases and unemployment.

The scope of the directive does not extend to the determination of pensionable age, social benefits granted in respect of the bringing-up of children, the granting of increases of long-term invalidity, old age, accidents at work and occupational disease benefits for a dependent wife.

B – Existing inequalities in social security in Member States

In some Member States, the directive does not appear to create serious problems. In others, however, much remains to be done.

For instance, the application of the head-of-household concept in the legislation of some countries often leads to direct or indirect discrimination. Some benefits are either not paid (e.g. widower's pensions) or are paid out to only one of the spouses (e.g. family allowances) although both partners pay contributions. Despite developments in civil law, legislation in the social security sector still reflects the traditional concept whereby it is the man's responsibility to provide for his family and does not correspond to the present situation in which women and couples work.

Furthermore, the persistence of discrimination in sectors which either are not covered by Directive 79/7/EEC or may be exempted, helps to perpetuate inequality of treatment in employment policies as a whole; this is particularly true in respect of retirement ages. Apart from differences in actual age, discrimination exists in calculation methods and in the minimum pension amount.

With regard to part-time working, social security coverage has been improved; nevertheless, part-time work involves a high proportion of women.

Social security is based on traditional concepts; this brings about a need to establish individual rights.

Furthermore, it is urgently necessary to clarify certain legal concepts – such as indirect discrimination – which are still unfamiliar and to identify the implications of the directives for other areas of law (e.g. civil, commercial, fiscal law, etc.).

The principle of equal treatment in matters of social security

The principle of equal treatment¹ means that there shall be no discrimination whatsoever on ground of sex either directly, or indirectly by reference in particular to marital or family status, in particular as concerns:

- ☐ the scope of the schemes and the conditions of access thereto,
- ☐ the obligation to contribute and the calculation of contributions,
- ☐ the calculation of benefits including increases due in respect of a spouse and for dependants and the conditions governing the duration and retention of entitlement to benefits.

Obviously, the principle of equal treatment shall be without prejudice to the provisions relating to maternity benefits for women.

This text calls for certain explanations.²

A – What is meant by discrimination?

B – To what extent is any reference to marital or family status discriminatory?

A – The concept of discrimination

While the concept of direct discrimination does not cause any serious problems, that of indirect discrimination does.

In several replies to parliamentary questions, the Commission has attempted to elucidate the concept of indirect discrimination without giving a definition. Indirect discrimination has the same practical results as direct discrimination, the difference being that it is not based directly on sex. Thus discriminatory situations arise for employees of a given sex as a result of the fact that marital or family status is taken into account when determining entitlement to benefits within the scope of the directive.

In Case 96/80³ *Jenkins v Kingsgate Ltd*, the Court of Justice of the European Communities ruled that a difference in (hourly) earnings between full-time workers and part-time workers does not amount to discrimination as prohibited by Article 119 of the Treaty.

Nevertheless, the fact that part-time workers are paid a lower rate may constitute an indirect means of

discrimination in view of the fact that this group of workers is composed predominantly of women. In the same case and in Joined Cases 117/76 and 16/77,⁴ the Court stated that 'the prohibition of discrimination ... is merely a specific enunciation of a general principle of equality which is one of the fundamental principles of Community law. This principle requires that similar situations shall not be treated differently unless differentiation is objectively justified'. It is therefore always the responsibility of the person taking the measure resulting in discrimination to prove that his action was motivated by objectively justified reasons and had no discriminatory intention.

B – Discrimination by reference to marital or family status

While references to marital or family status are not prohibited *per se* by the directives on equal treatment (cf., for example, Article 4 of Directive 79/7/EEC concerning 'increases ... due for dependants'), discriminatory effects arising from such references are prohibited. This also applies to the concept of head of household where this is maintained in the legislation of certain Member States and to increases for dependent spouses.

In this respect, the concept of 'head of household' is observed to be incompatible with equal treatment and the elimination of discrimination. Both spouses must be placed on an equal footing. This concept does not reflect present social realities.

With regard to increases for dependent spouses, in actual fact the holder of the right to increases is

¹ Article 4 of Council Directive 79/7/EEC (OJ L 6, 10. 1. 1979, p. 25).

² The report of the Commission to Member States deals with these problems in detail.

³ *Reports of Cases before the Court of Justice of the European Communities*, 1981, p. 91.

⁴ *Reports of Cases before the Court of Justice of the European Communities*, 1977, p. 1753.

mostly the husband, and this situation gives rise to indirect discrimination, unless 'objectively justified' factors¹ are established.

Equal treatment implies that it must be possible for workers of both sexes, irrespective of their marital status, to meet the conditions governing entitlement to the social benefits covered by the directive.

Conclusions

The Community's long-standing and active commitment to the improvement of the situation of women has established it as a pioneer and innovator in this field. The task of achieving equal treatment and equal opportunity for men and women in society, and particularly in employment and social security, is inevitably long and complex.

The new Community action programme on the promotion of equal

opportunities for women (1982-85)² provides for the progressive extension of Community legislation on equal treatment in the area of social security.

Occupational social security schemes have already been covered by a draft directive (cf. *Social Europe* No 00, p. 25). Preliminary work has begun to extend equal treatment to remaining aspects of social security which are currently exempted or otherwise not covered by Community legislation.

With regard to existing Community legislation, the Commission will continue to fulfil its role in ensuring the respect and the implementation of the directives, with recourse, when necessary, to the infringement procedures. The interim report of the Commission on the application of Directive 79/7/EEC (statutory schemes) is part of this framework of action by the Commission to en-

sure that there is consistency in the interpretation of the directives in Member States and that newly acquired rights are effectively used, especially by women workers. National bodies for the promotion of women's employment and equal opportunities have an important role to play in this respect. The network of contacts and exchanges between them should be further developed.³

The establishment of individual rights to social security is the ultimate aim. Subsequently, the task will be 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 particular the constraints and conditioning of attitudes based on the traditional segregation of roles in society.

Dimitrios Kontizas

¹ cf. the above mentioned *Reports of Cases before the Court of Justice of the European Communities*.

² *Communication from the Commission to the Council (COM (81)758 final, 9. 12. 1981)*.

³ *Network of experts working in the Advisory Committee on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men, set up to advise the Communities by the Commission Decision of 9 December 1982*.

Social security for migrant workers

To a significant number of people the EEC is still a mysterious and remote entity, the existence of which is perceived to have little or no connection with their daily lives. If it is perceived to have any effect, this is generally where the effect is considered to be at best irrelevant, at worst positively harmful to their interests. Although this kind of comment now sounds like a tired old cliché to the ears of those who know better, it is still true and particularly regrettable in an area of Community action which has made a considerable impact on a subject which touches the lives of nearly every person in the Community: social security. The Community, and its institutions do not, evidently, have a monopoly on the state of victim of ignorance, for many people are in an equally ignorant state of the provisions of their national social security systems; however, this article is intended to provide a general and non-legalistic description of the background and history of Community action in this area, its effect and impact in the EEC, and the principal provisions of the two relevant Community regulations which currently govern 'the application of social security schemes to employed persons, to self-employed persons and to members of their families moving within the Community'.¹

Historical background

For almost a century before the inception of the Community's own contribution to social security in Europe, Member States had been entering into agreements with each other, the aim of which was to protect the acquired social security rights of those of their nationals who, perhaps whilst residing in one State, were working in the other, or who, at different periods in their lives, had completed periods of employment in both. These agreements were particularly common in relation to persons who lived near the borders of other countries, and who, therefore, sometimes because of the

location of their places of residence, found it easier to obtain employment in the bordering country. In order to understand the necessity for such agreements, it must be explained that, generally, most national social security schemes, being limited territorially, could not, without making special arrangements, operate so as to bestow benefits or rights beyond their borders; and even within its borders, a State's social security legislation would probably discriminate on grounds of nationality, or place of residence. As a result, a person who had worked for many years in a country of which he or she was not a national, at the end of his or her working life, after contributing to the social insurance scheme of that State, might find himself or herself denied the benefits arising from that contribution, because of his/her nationality, or place of residence.

The EEC

The number of such bilateral agreements were many, and their contents varied, even between only the six original Member States of the Community. In 1958 when the Community effectively came into being, it became clear at a very early stage that one of the Community's priorities should be to put into practical effect the provisions of Article 51 of the EEC Treaty, by producing a legislative instrument on social security for migrant workers which would be a major force in achieving freedom of movement of workers, as set out in that article. This legislation would not only supercede the existing bilateral agreements, but would provide a comprehensive and consistent form of protection to all Community nationals, wherever they might work and wherever they might live in the Community in accordance with the aims of Article 51.

Community action—Background

To give some idea of the importance attached to this subject, it suf-

fices to say that the first two EEC social security regulations were the third and fourth of the earliest legislative acts² of the Community. These regulations did not impose a unified system of social security throughout the Community. However, for a number of years after the inception of the Community, efforts were made to try to bring to reality the dream of a single uniform scheme throughout the six Member States. The dream finally turned into the reality of acceptance that such a goal was utterly unattainable given the quite fundamental differences between the schemes established in each of the Member States which had arisen for different historical, political and social reasons.

The Community settled consequently for a lowering of its sights, and has continually and consistently sought, through both legislative and cooperative means, the coordination at Community level of the social security schemes of the now 10 Member States in their application to migrant workers.

Coordination

It is essential, in order to give a proper explanation of the current regulation, to have a clear understanding of the meaning of coordination within the context of social security for migrant workers. Having referred to the enormous differences between the schemes prevailing in each of the Member States, what does coordination mean, and how does it operate in practice?

The Community regulations under discussion did not create and impose a uniform social security scheme throughout the EEC. National schemes remain more or less territorially intact; Member States retain responsibility and power over their own systems (e.g. as regards

¹ Council Regulations (EEC) Nos 1408/71 and 574/72.

² Council Regulations (EEC) Nos 3 and 4 of 16 December 1958.

the level of contributions; the fixing of levels of benefits; and the range of benefits provided). However the application of those systems is subject to the provisions enacted at Community level under Article 51 of the Treaty which defines the Community's competence in this area, requiring the Council to adopt such measures in the field of social security as are necessary to provide freedom of movement of workers and their dependants; to this end arrangements are to be made to secure aggregation for the purpose of acquiring and retaining the right to benefit and of calculating the amount of benefit, of all periods taken into account under the laws of several countries; and payments of benefits to persons resident in the territories of Member States. This is to be read with the provisions in the Treaty prohibiting all discrimination on the grounds of nationality.

Aggregation and place of residence

Most social security schemes operating within the Community required as a basic condition of entitlement to a benefit, that a person complete, in one form or another a certain period of either (depending on the Member State concerned) employment, insurance or residence. If a person builds up a social security record in one Member State, and then leaves to work in another Member State, there to build up another social security record, he or she would be discouraged to find that neither record alone is sufficient in either Member State to give entitlement to a particular benefit under either of those Member States' social security schemes.

However, if the two periods were added together, the conditions of entitlement would be met in either or both Member States.

Aggregation permits this addition to take place, and is provided for by the Community legislation concerned along with other provi-

sions which deal with the apportionment of the cost of a benefit, where appropriate, between the Member States concerned depending on the length of the periods completed in each Member State.

This is an explanation of aggregation put at its simplest but it gives an idea of the basic principle at work.

The Community legislation concerned also deals with the situation in which payments of benefit may be denied to persons entitled to them because they do not reside in the Member State liable to make them.

That legislation therefore has the effect of nullifying those provisions in national social security legislation which seek to restrict consideration of periods of employment, insurance or residence to such periods completed within its own territory; or restrict the grant of benefits to its own nationals; or deny payment of benefits to persons living beyond its own borders.

Coordination, simply put, consists, at Community level, in implementing the fundamental policies referred to above by the use of Community legislation.

EEC regulations on social security

All the Community legislation concerning the application of social security schemes to persons who work or have worked in more than one Member State is currently contained in the two EEC Regulations Nos 1408/71 and 574/72 referred to.

The earlier EEC Regulations Nos 3 and 4 of 16 December 1958 were the subject of many changes, sometimes reflecting the experience gained from their implementation in the Community, or in a particular Member State, and often as a result of judgments given by the European Court of Justice which has proved itself to be a tenacious defender of the rights of migrant workers. It has

established a jurisprudence in this field of an extensive size and scope.

As a result of the steadily accumulating amendments to Regulations Nos 3 and 4, new regulations, incorporating the changes made, were adopted in 1971 and 1972. These new regulations, Nos 1408/71 and 574/72, retained the same form and division of functions as their predecessors; Regulation No 1408/71 contains all the substantial provisions regarding the coordination of social security schemes, and Regulation No 574/72 contains provisions intended to facilitate the administrative application of the substantial provisions.

These two Regulations were themselves recently updated and issued in a consolidated and authoritative version in August 1983. However, these took effect from 1 July 1982 so as to coincide with the date upon which the Community Regulations had been previously extended to apply to self-employed persons, having originally only applied to employed persons.¹

Regulation (EEC) No 1408/71

The principal regulation, containing the substantive provisions, deals with, and is consequently divided into, seven main areas, of which the first three are the most important, providing as they do for matters of the most immediate interest to employed and self-employed persons in the Community.

Title I

The first part contains the general provisions which can be summarized as follows:

□ Only persons who are, or have been employed or self-employed in the Community, are covered by the regulation; in addition, such persons must be nationals of one of the Member States of the Community, or

¹ OJ L 230, 22. 8. 1983.

refugees or stateless persons living within it.

☐ In addition, the regulation covers the members of the families of the persons mentioned, in their capacity as such, whether the members of the family are nationals of one of the Member States or not.

☐ The regulation applies to all the national legislations on social security which deal with sickness and maternity benefits; invalidity benefits; old-age benefits (this includes retirement pensions); survivor's benefits (e.g. widow's pensions); benefits in respect of accidents at work and occupational diseases; death grants; unemployment benefits and family benefits.

☐ It only applies to what might generally be called national or State social security schemes.

☐ Member States are, in principle, forbidden to deny the payment of an invalidity, old-age, or survivor's benefit, or a pension for an accident at work or occupational disease, or a death grant, in whole or in part, simply because the person to whom it is to be paid lives in another Member State.

☐ Finally it also deals with the possibility that, because of the application of the Community rules, a person may find he or she is entitled to two benefits of the same kind at the same time; provision is made to prevent this from happening where it is not justified by the social security contributions made.

Title II

The second part deals with the problems which arise from the fact that a person may find that he or she is, because of the provisions of the social security legislations of more than one Member State with which he or she has links, obliged to become subject to more than one social security system. This might have serious financial consequences once the possibility of double social security contributions is considered.

The Community regulation provides, as a general principle, that a person can only be obliged to belong to the social security system of the Member State in which he or she works, regardless of whether he or she lives in the same State.

There are special rules for those persons who work in more than one Member State at the same time, or who are seamen.

Title III

The third part of the regulation goes on to deal with particular benefits and the manner in which the principles of aggregation, and the prohibition of restriction based on the country of residence, are to be applied to them. The sub-divisions distinguish between what are generally considered to be the short-term benefits:

- ☐ sickness and maternity benefits;
- ☐ unemployment benefit;
- and the long-term benefits:
 - ☐ invalidity benefits;
 - ☐ old-age benefits;
 - ☐ survivors benefits;
 - ☐ benefits for accidents at work and occupational diseases;
- with special provisions dealing with:
 - ☐ family allowances;
 - ☐ death grants.

Sickness and unemployment benefit

The most important provision linking entitlement to both sickness and unemployment benefit is that which requires a Member State in which a person has worked and become sick or unemployed, if necessary, to take into account social security contributions made in another Member State (whether in the form of completed periods of insurance or employment and, possibly, as in the case of sickness benefit, residence) when applying its own conditions of entitlement relating to required minimum periods of contribution.

An important provision relating to sickness benefit

Further provisions relating to sickness benefit permit an employed or self-employed person who is staying in a Member State other than the one in which he works (for example, on holiday) to obtain urgent medical treatment there as if he or she were a person who normally worked or lived in that country. In such a case, where the person concerned would have been entitled to payment of sickness benefit in the Member State in which he or she is employed, arrangements can be made to make a claim for that benefit and have it paid in the Member State in which the person has fallen ill. The provision of medical treatment is also available to the members of such a person's family, in similar circumstances.

A useful provision relating to unemployment benefit

One of the most interesting provisions relating to unemployment benefit permits a person, who is entitled to and receiving unemployment benefit in the Member State in which he or she last worked, to go to another Community country to look for work there, and to continue to be paid unemployment benefit whilst in that other country, for a maximum period of just under three months. It should be emphasised that there are certain conditions which must be strictly complied with prior to leaving the first Member State, and upon arrival in the second Member State. In addition the failure to return to the original country within three months can, in some Member States, lose a person all further entitlement to unemployment benefit in that country.

Pensions and other long-term benefits

In the case of long-term benefits, generally speaking, consideration of the periods of either insurance, employment or residence, depending on the benefit or pension claimed,

entails consideration of the whole of a person's previous social security record. The resulting pension or pensions will be based on the periods completed in the various Member States in which a person has worked. Each Member State involved will be required to calculate in accordance with Community rules on aggregation, what a person's entitlement would be if that person had spent the whole of his or her working life in that Member State (as reflected in the length of his or her social security record). Once that calculation is done, each Member State then grants a pension which is based upon the relation that the period for which a person actually worked in that Member State has to the whole of the person's working life, on a pro-rata basis. Each Member State concerned thus bears the cost of a proportion of the ultimate pension. A person may, of course, be entitled to a pension in a particular Member State without having recourse to the aggregation provisions of the regulations. Nevertheless, when it comes to calculating the amount of a pension, Member States are required to compare, in certain cases, the amount of the pension which results from the two possible methods of calculation (that is, broadly speaking, with and without aggregation) and to award a pension on the basis most favourable to the claimant.

Payment of pension anywhere in the Community

All social security pensions, however calculated, must be paid to their beneficiaries wherever they might be residing in the Community.

Further particular provisions govern, for example, in the case of benefits for accidents at work or occupational diseases, how consecutive accidents or diseases are to be dealt with between several Member States; the manner in which the cost of medical treatment is to be met, and who is to provide it;

there is also provision for pension increases for dependants, regardless of their place of residence.

Family allowances

As a consequence of the principle that it is the social security system of the country of employment which applies to a particular person, and which thus receives that person's contributions, it is the country of employment which is responsible for providing family allowances. The Member State concerned is obliged to aggregate earlier periods of insurance, employment or self-employment where it is necessary in order to meet conditions of entitlement. A most important provision in this section imposes the obligation on the Member State to pay these allowances, even where the person's family is not itself residing in the country in which that person is employed. It should be noted that this latter provision does not generally assist the self-employed person, and that special provisions regarding family allowances apply to persons who work in France.

Provisions relating to other benefits

There are, of course, many more provisions in the Community regulations on social security which have not been mentioned here. It cannot be said often enough that the social security institutions in each of the Member States have information concerning the regulations in their possession and it can be sought from them whenever the slightest possibility arises that these regulations may have some application in a particular case.

More information

The Commission has itself published a set of booklets, written for the lay person, on the Community social security regulations and their application. These 'Guides'¹ of which there is a series of five cover-

ing various topics, also include, in Guide No 1, a short description of each of the social security schemes applicable in each Member State; this first Guide is printed in each of the official languages of the Community, and there are separate booklets for each Member State.

The Commission has also produced a 'Compendium of Community provisions on social security'.² It is being continually updated and contains not only the regulations themselves, but a large number of summaries of the decisions of the European Court of Justice in this area, and a very useful commentary on the provisions of the regulations themselves.

Final remarks

The regulations themselves and their administration at national level are constantly under review, in particular by the two bodies specially charged by the regulations with the task of supervising their operation. These bodies are the Administration Commission, which is made up solely of government representatives of each of the Member States, who are responsible for social security matters at national level, and the Advisory Committee, which is a larger body having, in addition to the government representatives referred to, representatives of employees' and employers' organization from each of the Member States.

The importance of the regulations and the work of the Commis-

¹ Guides Nos 1-5:

1. General Guide - 2. Temporary stay in another Member State - 3. Workers posted abroad or employed in more than one Member State - 4. Pensioners - 5. Members of the family.

Available free of charge from the social security institutions in each Member State.

² 'Compendium of Community provisions on social security'. Supplement updating main volume to 31 December 1981, available in French only at present. Commission of the European Communities - 1980. Available from the Office for Official Publications of the EC.

sion and the bodies mentioned cannot be over-estimated. Some idea of the practical impact of this particular Community activity can be assessed by the scale of the number of persons working in the Community estimated to be migrant workers whose social security rights are already influenced by the regulations, i.e. 1.6 million persons. This figure does not include the members of the families of such persons who are as equally affected as the migrant

worker him – or herself. All these persons (migrant workers either employed or self-employed and their families) are permanently covered by the regulations. Moreover, it must be stressed that almost any other person living in the Community is entitled to and may have recourse to the regulations at some time (for instance during holidays in another Member State).

The comment is often made, not solely within the Commission, that

social security is often perceived to be a Community activity of rather a lacklustre nature; its major developments very rarely receive the amount of publicity or attention sometimes reserved for other areas of Community action. Nevertheless, this activity, which can directly affect millions of individuals working in the Community, has a human element not easily matched in any other field, and which should never be overlooked.

Kathleen F. Lee

Community action on behalf of the handicapped

In December 1981 the Council adopted a resolution on the social integration of disabled people, based on a communication from the Commission on this theme. Earlier in the same year, the Parliament adopted a resolution and the Social and Economic Committee an opinion on the same subject. Together these initiatives constituted the Community's principal contribution to the International Year of Disabled People.

In its resolution the Council invites the Commission to undertake a programme of work aimed at enlarging and extending the activity already undertaken by the Community in favour of disabled people within the social action programme and in the light of the 1974 Resolution on the vocational rehabilitation of the handicapped.

The work was to be extended by developing further the two most concrete activities already in operation (apart from the interventions of the Social Fund). These were the Community network of rehabilitation centres and the programme of pilot projects for the housing of the handicapped. The scope of the work was moreover enlarged to include everything that contributes to social as well as economic integration. With this in view three new actions were to be undertaken: the setting-up of a network of district projects described in the following pages, a series of Commission policy initiatives on major topics, starting in 1984 with employment; and the setting-up of a computerized information system on disability questions throughout the Community (the Handynet project). In addition, the Commission would establish a regular dialogue with the principal non-governmental organizations and support those of their activities involving European cooperation.

To ensure the coordination of the Community's various activities in the disability field, the Commission set up in May 1982 a Bureau for Action on behalf of Disabled People, which

was also charged with managing the network of centres and implementing the new actions.

Social Europe will include, on occasion offers, information about the various elements in this whole programme. We shall start in this issue with an account of the district projects and the pilot projects for improving the *housing of handicapped workers*.

Patrick Daunt

Housing for the handicapped

Since 1976, the Community has made annual budgetary allocations available for pilot projects for better housing for handicapped workers, with a view to their social integration. Projects can include new con-

struction of accommodation specially designed for the handicapped, or for a particular type of handicap, the adaptation of existing accommodation, including the provision of technical aids, the launching of information or advisory services, and measures contributing to the evaluation of the results of projects and their dissemination among a wider public. Funds are limited, an amount of 1 000 000 EUA, for example, being available in 1983. It has nevertheless been possible to assist about 90 projects since the start of the scheme.

The Community's practical interest in these matters dates from the first years of the social action programme, launched in 1974, and has its origins in circumstances very different from those of today. Then, it was still possible to conceive of full



and better employment as an objective to be achieved within the short term. A major contribution to this objective was expected to come from the removal of barriers which still affected certain disadvantaged groups, such as the handicapped. Once suitably housed and mobile, many handicapped people could look forward to taking their rightful place in society, self-sufficient through income from work, feeling genuinely needed.

It was also possible to think in terms of European social objectives, in this case a common commitment to minimum standards which would make all new housing either permanently habitable or at least accessible to wheelchairs. It is a sad reflection, in these darker times, that even though the idea was not in the event pursued, the Community was open to the possibility of an instrument which would affect such details of life as lifts and doors, sockets and plugs, taps and floor coverings. The matter seemed urgent and of common concern at the time, certainly because of a desire for social progress, but also for quite practical reasons. There was a danger that the increasing use of heavy concrete panels in housing, built by industrial methods, would create a whole new generation of dwellings, which could only be adapted to the needs of the handicapped at very great cost.

Thus it was that the first pilot projects were designed to test European standards for accessibility. It was shown, fairly conclusively, that their inclusion would perhaps add 5% to the cost of new construction, while it would cost up to nine times as much to adapt existing buildings to conform. The adoption of these standards in a recommendation of the Council of Europe may be seen as a success, even if, in practice, there was no way of monitoring or enforcing them. Even if such standards could be applied, however, they would be of rather limited benefit in present times. Not only has

there been a steady decline in the numbers of new dwellings constructed. Handicapped people, whose chances of gainful employment are now so severely limited, are less and less likely to be able to afford to occupy them.

Under these conditions, the Commission has moved away from an exclusive focus on architectural barriers to the mobility of the physically handicapped. In the first place, growing experience had made it clear that the physically handicapped were a highly diversified group, ranging from the classic wheelchair case to the blind, the epileptic, those incapacitated by respiratory problems, with different housing needs. In the second place, it was recognized that the mentally handicapped and former psychiatric patients also had a problem of accommodation, but of another kind. For these people, the question of being physically accommodated could not be divorced from the larger question of the social environment, the degree of independence it should offer and the learning of those skills essential to normal domestic life. Economic and financial circumstances have forced governments and voluntary organizations to rethink established policies and patterns of institutionalized accommodation and care, to consider new and not necessarily professional forms of caring, to look more closely at the economics of modernization and adaptation of the individual dwellings, where most handicapped people live and will probably have to go on living, and where they might well choose to live in any case.

Limited resources have placed a premium on relatively inexpensive projects, which, because of their inexpensiveness, can have a demonstrative value for areas of greatest need. Thus, there have been many variations on the common theme of independent living. The emphasis has been put on specific individual solutions to problems, which might appear banal enough to outsiders,

such as simply enabling handicapped people to see out of their windows, but which seemed to defy solution, for example, because of problems of administrative coordination. Many schemes have illustrated new ways of coordinating support services, new ways of using voluntary helpers or the young unemployed to help the handicapped individual maintain his independence under tolerable conditions. Such schemes have benefited enormously from the striking growth in the voluntary housing movement in several European countries. This movement owes much to national policies of austerity and perhaps a sort of contemporary diversion of idealism; often combined with the entrepreneurial spirit into non-political channels.

The Commission, while supporting the common effort to encourage independent living has, however, tried to maintain a balance. There are probably limits to the independence that one can reasonably expect of handicapped people, however heroic they may be as individuals. One shudders at the prospect of an environment so adapted to the requirements of the handicapped person that he can live his life in silent, covered walkways, so independently that he can summon mechanical help on all occasions and dispense entirely with the need to seek the aid of his fellow human beings. Such an apparently utopian environment carries sinister implications for the handicapped and non-handicapped alike.

Fortunately, more humane applications of new technology are currently available to help the disabled to live and work with a certain degree of independence. One recalls a project for grouped housing in Sussex, with handicapped trained computer programmers working on home terminals. In the department of Yvelines, there is a project for a group of people with severe respiratory problems, which have rendered them largely immobile and normally

dependent on a breathing apparatus. Their solution has been to form a sort of commune, using modern electronics to control the details of domestic management, including the employment and payment of staff, dealing with individual crises by a combination of mutual help and recourse to emergency services. Leisure is employed in playing chess and writing computer programmes! One thinks of the very active chairman of an Essex housing association, totally paralysed physically except for the ability to move one finger, owning and running his own house as a hostel for other handicapped, battered wives, ex drug-addicts and various other long- or short-stay visitors. We have handicapped architects, and even a handicapped judge in Denmark!

Unfortunately, the challenge is not just that of finding optimal solutions – for optimal people! Mass emigration of young handicapped to better housing and jobs in the electronic engineering industries – with or without home terminals – in the more prosperous regions of the Community is not really feasible. Somehow, the lessons of Sussex have to be translated to fit the less promising background of, say Merseyside or Inner London. Solutions, once found, must eventually be marketable at acceptable cost, whether capital or operational, so that they can serve as models for areas of need as well as areas of relative economic success. This is a task for the practitioners themselves, who include architects, electronic engineers, medical consultants, administrators, and also for the governments of Member States and for the European Community, uniquely placed to facilitate the exchange of ideas and information.

National approaches vary. There are different traditions, which determine attitudes to the question of protected versus independent living, different attitudes towards the family, different patterns of provision and coordination of medical, welfare

and other support services, different levels of social prejudice against, say, mentally handicapped people, different levels of sophistication. One recalls a training instructor in Ireland, who reckoned that the young mentally handicapped just took a little more time to learn than the army recruits to whom he had previously taught the rudiments of joinery. The same methods and a little more patience were all that was required! The organization with which he works is notably successful in launching handicapped adolescents into the world, providing a cycle of residential courses, which emphasize living as much as working skills, sheltered employment in horticulture, or craft workshops and at the other end of the spectrum, skilled engineering work. This particular enterprise is aiming at financial self-sufficiency and already supplies about 25% of the baby cots required by the Irish market – and this in an area of relative poverty and deprivation.

There is no 'one best way'. Every Member State acknowledges the need to experiment and to be open to the experiments of others. In Greece, where they are only beginning, all projects are experimental. In Denmark, with the most complete provision of any Member State there are still new frontiers to be crossed, as they try to integrate young handicapped people into the social life of their generation, to give them the freedom of the city, so to speak. Other countries, less advanced in their social evolution, are taking only the first steps towards the reintegration of former psychiatric patients; other have to cope with acute problems of homelessness, where handicapped adolescents are rejected by their parents. The Community is privileged to take part in this learning process, sometimes actively encouraging the transfer of ideas from one Member State to another. In the Netherlands, for example, the Commission funded the introduction of a scheme for indi-

vidualized accommodation linked with welfare services along the lines of the successful British 'Crossroads' schemes. A project for the setting-up of a network of information on innovative schemes in the various Member States has now been launched by ABT Forschung, of Bonn, with Commission support and should be completed by the end of 1984.

Community action is necessarily small in scale in relation to the extent of need of an estimated 13 to 20 million handicapped Europeans. In the last analysis, the Commission's efforts may be judged by their success in helping to make more suitable housing available to those in greatest need. Much more could be done for mentally handicapped adolescents and their families at the critical stage which follows the end of compulsory education, critical for the learning of living skills, for job training, for avoiding admission to long-term care, usually quite inappropriate as a substitute home. Much more could be done for the thousands of persons at present detained in mental hospitals, who are not necessarily mentally handicapped, or even mentally ill, and who are capable of a degree of genuine independence, given a temporary stay in accommodation offering a transition from institutionalization to normal living.

Perhaps the most intractable challenge is that of the disproportionate numbers of handicapped people, of all ages, to be found in older housing, frequently living in poverty. Here the problem is not only that of adapting doors and staircases, introducing ramps and technical aid. It is very often the sheer cost of heating for the many handicapped who do not have the capacity to generate a normal level of body heat. It is encouraging to see in certain Member States a growing acceptance that so long as any prospect of purpose-built, fully adapted accommodation is ruled out on financial grounds, there must be a

more serious attempt to come to grips with the problem of older accommodation.

Following up its 1984 policy initiative on the employment of disabled people, the Commission intends in 1985 to undertake a similar initiative on the environmental problems of the disabled, comprising mobility and access as well as housing. On the housing side, the information-gathering work of ABT Forschung has already been mentioned. Studies on day-to-day mobility, travel and the various aspects of access are either completed, in progress or planned for 1984. This will enable the Commission to accumulate and disseminate a full picture of these closely related topics. It will also establish a base for the setting-out of guidelines for policy development at Community and national levels. In this process the need to develop the size of the Community's positive intervention in the housing sector, as well as initiating similar action on mobility and access, will not be forgotten.

George William O'Brien

The 'district projects': A Community network to promote the integration of disabled people

The Community's action programme to promote the social and economic integration of disabled people was established by the Council, on the basis of a Commission communication,¹ in 1981 as the Community's principal contribution to the International Year of Disabled People. It has three chief objectives:

- ☐ to encourage and where appropriate initiate policy development in this field at national and Community levels;
- ☐ to establish a system for the exchange of information on disability questions throughout the Community;

☐ to encourage and promote innovation and dissemination of good practice.

In pursuit of this third objective the Commission has devised a number of means which include the activity of the Community network of Rehabilitation Centres and an annual programme of subventions to European projects undertaken by non-governmental bodies. But the most important action in this domain is the setting-up of a network of district projects to promote social and economic integration.

This network which consists of 16 districts widely scattered throughout the Community has

been carefully prepared by means of collaboration between the Commission and national and local authorities and was fully launched before the end of 1983. It will operate in the first instance for four years, i.e. until the end of 1987.

Which are the districts and how were they chosen?

The Liaison Group on Disability, which is a regular meeting of rep-

¹ OJ C 347, 31. 12. 1981, comprising the Commission's communication of 4 November and the Council Resolution of 21 December both concerning the social integration of disabled people.



representatives from relevant national ministries (employment, social affairs, health, etc.) presided over by the Commission, has discussed and agreed a common approach to the setting-up of the District Network. This comprises common procedures, a common timetable, a common set of criteria of choice and a common list of principal tasks for the districts once chosen.

As to criteria of choice, the number of districts to participate in each country was first fixed and it was agreed that national authorities should recommend to the Commission districts which showed an evident enthusiasm for participating in the network. They should comprise a population of between 150 000 and 300 000 people; if there were more than one district in a given country, they should be geographically or economically distinct.

By 31 March 1983, the final date for applications for financial support from the Social Fund, these districts had been chosen:

Belgium

Genk-Hasselt, Liège

Denmark

Arhus

Federal Republic of Germany

Berlin-Spandau, Gelsenkirchen

Greece

the province of Achaia (including Patras)

France

Dijon, Montpellier

Ireland

the Midland counties (Laois, Offaly, Westmeath, Longford)

Italy

the province of Piacenza, the north of the Basilicata Region (Melfi, Vulture)

Luxembourg

the Grand Duchy

The Netherlands

Dordrecht, North Limburg

United Kingdom

Lambeth (Inner London Borough), West Berkshire (including Reading)

What is a district project?

The idea of the district projects is based on the fact that the most important services for disabled people are locally delivered, and that in all Member States there exists a problem about the satisfactory coordination of all these services. It follows that a concerted effort to improve this coordination, while it cannot solve all the problems of disabled people, will make a significant contribution to that solution – one moreover that cannot be made any other way.

In order to optimize the direct exchange of experience between the districts, and to make a comparative evaluation of the results of the network activity possible, it has been decided that all the districts should have the same fundamental aim – to improve the social integration of all the disabled people in the local community by means of a new concerted effort involving all the relevant services and agencies as well as disabled people themselves and the general public.

In addition and in parallel to this 'global' activity of coordination and stimulation, each district will set up a specific programme of vocational training for disabled people. This will make it possible to monitor in every case what impact the wider improvements (achieved in the services and environment available to the disabled) have on a particular group of disabled people being prepared for employment. At the same time it will be possible to verify the Commission's contention that the success of training measures for disabled people depends on improvements in the supporting environment.

How will the districts work?

To oversee the project each district is setting up a local advisory committee consisting of official and elected representatives of local authorities as well as representatives

of establishments (teaching, training, medical care, research), of voluntary bodies and of the social partners and disabled people themselves. It is the task of this local committee to appoint a project leader and project team responsible for organizing all aspects of the projects.

Moreover, to ensure that there will be external as well as internal assessment of the projects, national-level evaluators will be appointed to help project leaders identify and monitor objectives and to help national authorities interpret and disseminate results.

This is where the Community's financial contribution comes in. As well as paying 50 % of the costs of the specific training activity according to normal Social Fund procedures (55 % in Ireland, Greece and the Mezzogiorno of Italy), the Community will pay 50 % of the eligible salary and operational costs of the key coordinating team in each district, and of the national-level evaluation activity. This in itself is an innovation on the Commission's side.

What about the European dimension?

By the end of 1983 the Commission had set up its own coordination and evaluation mechanism at European level. This will consist of a small team of experts drawn from different disciplines and different national backgrounds. They will visit the districts regularly to encourage, give news about interesting developments elsewhere in the network, advise on valuable contracts to be made, etc.

And they will, of course, take back to the Commission their impressions of projects in the network and assist the Commission's Bureau for Action on Behalf of Disabled People in preparing periodical reports of the whole activity.

Moreover, the central coordinating team will have two other important specific tasks. From 1984 the Commission is planning to support financially a programme of study visits between groups of local project team or advisory committee members among the different districts. The central coordinating experts will help in the organization and monitoring of this scheme, as well as by advising districts about their visit programmes.

Equally important will be the possibility of bringing together, from time to time, representatives of all the districts and evaluators for discussion of problems and exchange of experience group will be able to help with organization and reporting.

Thanks to the friendly cooperation of the Institute of Sociological Research of Leuven University, and the outstanding enthusiasm of the participants, the seminar was a resounding success and the effectiveness of Community-level exchange within the activity was assured for the future.

It was planned to bring project leaders and evaluators together with the Liaison Group at an enlarged meeting of the latter in Brussels in

December 1983, and to organize regular Community-level get-togethers throughout the four years of the activity.

A look at the future

All 16 districts agreed the formal starting date of November 1983. The initial financial commitment of the Social Fund covers the first three years of the activity (until the end of 1986); at a later stage an additional commitment for the fourth year will have to be made.

Reporting of the four-year activity at Community level (an interim report in 1985 and a final one in 1987) will be greatly facilitated by the existence from the beginning of the communication mechanisms described above. But more important than final reporting will be the setting-up of effective means for dissemination, above all at national level.

Seen either as an initiative in the field of disability or as an intervention of the Social Fund, the district projects to promote the social and economic integration of disabled people are an entirely new departure. While retaining a special focus on the key process of training, their wider coordination activity will en-

able the Community for the first time both to influence and to study the full range of supporting services – aids to employment including counselling, placement and follow-up; health and social services; supports for mobility, including transport adaptations; provision in the housing sector; access to public agencies and facilities and to the workplace, etc. Over these and all other areas relevant to the daily lives of disabled people, the district projects will enable us to understand clearly two essential things. Firstly we shall learn, by bringing them about, all the things which a local community can achieve by a quite new level of concerted effort, backed up not by some massive input of financial resources (which would make any multiplication of the achievement elsewhere impossible), but by a modest well-placed support to ensure that new initiatives can be got off the ground. And secondly, also for the first time, we shall learn very precisely what a local community cannot do by this means, identifying with a clarity never before possible those areas where new legislation must be undertaken or new sources of funds sought if essential needs are to be met.

Patrick Daunt

Special financial aid to Greece

In its memorandum of 19 March 1982,¹ the Greek Government raises the question of the economic integration of a Member State as whole. The Greek authorities take the view that in recognizing the highly individual nature of Greece's problems, the Community must also appreciate that the integration of a country which is still relatively undeveloped into an extensive common market comprising some of the most highly developed countries in the world could be detrimental to the interests of the new Member State, if the requisite adjustments are not made. For instance, the decline in Greece's terms of trade (agricultural and trade deficit) with its partners since accession – although this has to some extent been offset by budget transfers – reflects this structural disparity which the Community cannot, in the view of the Greek Government, ignore. The Greek Government is demanding a two-pronged approach to these problems: Community policies followed by specific actions.

Structural backwardness

The accession of Greece has restated the problem of European integration. The Republic of Greece is a relatively young country representing one of the most ancient peoples of Europe and has never experienced the economic development process which resulted in the industrial revolution in the other Western European countries. Greece has always been primarily an agricultural country with a services sector which has recently grown to excessive proportions. Traditionally outward-looking, it has never acquired an economic and social infrastructure that is in keeping with its people's standard of development. Furthermore, not only is Greece as a whole the poorest region of the Community, but there are also sharp disparities between the individual regions of the country. Thus, the Athens area now accounts for more than a third of the total population of

Greece, compared with a sixth in 1951. Approximately 60 % of jobs in industry are to be found in Athens, but social services and infrastructure have not kept pace with the unrestrained growth of the population which has abandoned the rural areas to settle there. One relatively little known fact is worthy of mention: although Athens produced approximately 50% of the country's gross national product in 1971, it only received 26.9 % of public investment (1977) and 2.8 % of the State budget for various infrastructure projects (1976). Athens accordingly owes its disorderly expansion both to private enterprise and to relative neglect by the State, compelled as it was to invest in the rest of the country which was being deserted. None the less, the rural areas, which account for about half the country's population, are still in a low stage of development (between 25 % and 50 % of the Community average). In short, the Greek economy differs significantly from the economies of the Community, owing to lack of development and inadequate structures.

In its reply of 29 March 1983² to the problems raised by the Greek memorandum, the Commission acknowledged that Greece's problems were a case apart and proposed special Community action to help to foster conditions in which Greece could participate fully in Community policies.

Aid with vocational training

On 29 July 1983, the Commission submitted welfare proposals comprising special financial aid to foster:

- ☐ the building, improvement and equipment of vocational training centres;
- ☐ the building, improvement and equipment of special centres with a view to the reform of facilities for the treatment and medical, vocational and social rehabilitation of the mentally ill and the handicapped.

There are major inadequacies in both these areas. It is generally acknowledged that vocational training has traditionally been the poor relation of the Greek educational system. With a total population of just under 10 million, the country provides vocational training facilities for only 27 000 persons, i.e. one vacancy for every 340 inhabitants. The situation is particularly acute in Athens where there is only one place for every 3 500 inhabitants between the ages of 20 and 44. Furthermore, the majority of the vocational training centres which do exist are obsolete, incapable of providing modern training requirements and inadequately staffed and equipped.

This is why the five-year development plan for the period 1983 to 1987 includes provision for the construction of 71 new centres with a total capacity of 17 000 places. Fifty-three of these centres are to be set up in the Athens area in order to expand its capacity to 12 000 places. The government has obviously decided to concentrate its efforts on the area which has the highest concentration of productive activity coupled with the least adequate infrastructure. However, any vocational training schemes designed to cater for the available labour supply and the needs of the production sector must necessarily be located in an area where jobs are available. These considerations will serve to answer allegations which have sometimes been made in this connection, having regard to the need for regional development. Far from impeding the transfer of resources from the centre to the periphery – which is of necessity a gradual and phased process – the expansion of vocational training facilities in Athens is designed to cater for the most pressing need, namely the modernization of a production sys-

¹ Position of the Greek Government on Greece's relations with the European Communities, SI (82)203 of 23 March 1982.

² COM (83)134 final of 19 March 1983.

tem which is ill-equipped for modern requirements and the reversal of a rapidly deteriorating employment situation. Unemployment rose from 4.1% to 8% of the working population between 1981 and 1983. Moreover, these figures have to be viewed in the light of the particular structure of employment in Greece. On the one hand, people in dependent employment comprise only 42 % of the total working population (in the developed economies the average rate is 82 %). On the other hand, under-employment is rife, particularly in the rural areas. Available statistics accordingly tend to underestimate the actual number of unemployed.

The European Regional Development Fund is already helping to finance the creation of eight new training centres in Greece, some of which are already under construction. However, it cannot provide assistance for the Athens area which does not qualify for public regional aid.

It is for this reason that the Commission is proposing to allocate 60 million ECU of Community financial aid to Greece to help fund a five-year programme for the building and equipment of new training centres and the improvement and expansion of existing centres in Athens and the surrounding area. Under the terms of the Commission proposals, 55 % of the total outlay on projects qualifying for aid would be financed by the Community.

Aid for the reform of psychiatric treatment and care

The Commission has also proposed the granting of special Community financial aid for the reform of facilities for the treatment and rehabilitation of mentally ill and handicapped persons. The Greek authorities do in fact acknowledge that the existing facilities are far from adequate. One of the salient features to emerge from talks between the

Commission and the Greek Government was that the Greek psychiatric system was urgently in need of reform with regard to the living conditions of in-patients, and the methods used for their medical and vocational rehabilitation and social integration.

At the moment there are 9 000 in-patients in public psychiatric institutions and approximately 4 000 in private institutions. The buildings and equipment are inadequate and old-fashioned, treatment and rehabilitation methods are out of date, the institutions are understaffed, and their personnel are not conversant with the latest psychiatric techniques. This results in a centralized, institutionalized and enclosed system, with a very low rate of reintegration into normal life.

In the other Member States psychiatric treatment likewise used to hinge on institutions which were completely cut off from the outside world, thus precluding the patients' reintegration into normal life. However, these forms of treatment were radically reformed long ago in the rest of the Community, whereas they are still in use in Greece.

The Greek Government is currently preparing for the wholesale reform of the whole health system, with a new approach and new methods of treatment and rehabilitation, administered by decentralized regional units, and the emphasis on out-patient care and prevention rather than medical treatment in hospital.

The European Social Fund can provide aid for the functional rehabilitation and vocational training of the disabled in the other Member States. However, the costs of medical treatment and the requisite infrastructure do not qualify for aid from the Fund, and it is for this reason that the Commission is proposing to provide Community financial aid to help the Greek Government reform psychiatric facilities by the building, improvement and

equipment of centres for mentally ill and handicapped persons.

The overall cost of these reforms is estimated by the Greek authorities at 200 million ECU over a five-year period. The reforms would entail the modernization of existing psychiatric institutions, the reduction of the number of patients and the development of psychiatric departments in general hospitals. New decentralized centres would subsequently be set up and integrated into the local community, to assist with the social integration of mentally ill and handicapped persons. This approach also accords with the aims of the Council Resolution of 21 December 1981 which was designed to foster the social integration of handicapped people.¹

The funding of the two schemes described above constitutes a constructive solution, in the social sphere, to the problems raised by the Greek memorandum. Although it falls outside the financing conditions applying to Community funds, it will nevertheless help to provide Greece with the basic equipment needed to qualify for aid from the European Social Fund, and an opportunity to draw level with the other Member States. It is worth noting that Greek aid from the Fund was 4%, of its total budget in 1982 and that the actual rate of use of these appropriations is even lower.

The special financial aid proposed by the Commission is in essence designed to help the Greek people to have access to service of a standard comparable with that reached in the other Community Member States. It will, at the same time, provide evidence of the Community's ability to take up the challenge of integrating the least developed country in the context of a particularly adverse economic climate.

Giorgos Katzourakis

¹ OJ C 347, 31. 12. 1981.

Poverty and insecurity

In a previous article,¹ some general information was given on the first programme to combat poverty which ran from 1975 to 1980, and the findings and conclusions arising from it.

This article now attempts to pinpoint more accurately the new manifestations of poverty produced or brought to light by the economic crisis. It also provides some indication of the approach likely to be adopted in a second programme to combat poverty.²

Findings

The new poor

The first and the most important finding is that poverty still exists, and is indeed an increasing problem, in that people now, quite rightly, talk about the 'new poor'. Poverty persists on a large scale despite the deployment of an increasing share of national resources for social welfare (social benefits and services), which in turn is a serious threat to the maintenance of economic growth and a drain on public funds. It persists despite the major education, vocational training and housing programmes which have been implemented.

Welfare aid

The results achieved by these programmes and in particular their sometimes disastrous failures, coupled with the gaps which nevertheless persist, are abundant evidence that economic growth *per se* does not eliminate poverty, any more than social policy in all its various forms – education, health, housing, welfare, etc. – has resulted in any significant redistribution to the advantage of the very poorest in society or any equalization of living standards and opportunities. To give just one illustration of the situation facing us, in 1978 five million households in the Community – i.e. some 10 million individuals – relied on public assistance to survive for all or part of the year.

Furthermore, since 1972 the slowing-down – and subsequent virtual stagnation – in economic growth has seen the emergence – in addition to the 'traditional' poor, particularly those of the 'Fourth World' – of an increasing number of 'new poor' who have no chance of earning their own living. We will endeavour to explain the phenomenon of the 'new poor' later on. At this juncture we will merely point out that the economic crisis has had disproportionate repercussions on young people, women, unskilled workers, immigrants and the handicapped.

A cumulative process

The second finding is that persistent traditional poverty is generally multidimensional. Social, economic and cultural handicaps tend to be cumulative. The poorest in society tend to have the worst health and the worst housing. If they do have a job – which is unlikely to be a 'normal' or 'regular' job – they usually have the worst working conditions and only work sporadically. One handicap generates another. Poverty is a cause of ill health and ill health is a cause of poverty. A child from a poor family tends to do less well at school. And if young people with scant education and skills do manage to find a job, it is usually an ill-paid job with no prospects.

Many of the very poorest people live a life of isolation. Their lack of resources excludes them from the activities of the majority of people. Their isolation, their segregated position and their lack of organization put them in a very weak position to assert their right to an equitable share in society's resources. This state of inequality persists because those who are at the

¹ *Social Europe* No 00 – July 1983.

² First programme to combat poverty 1975–80.

bottom of the pile do not have the power to pose a visible threat to society's main institutions, although they could ultimately gain this power if they joined forces with the 'new poor'.

Thirdly, while poverty no longer plumbs the depths of the pre-war years, there is still extreme poverty in Europe, sometimes in geographically localized pockets – which is thus more readily identifiable – and sometimes in scattered cases.

It is primarily in the under-developed regions and in the declining areas that the most acute poverty is found.

It is rooted in the economic and social structure of areas such as the Mezzogiorno, rural districts of Ireland, Northern Ireland and certain parts of the French countryside where unemployment, under-employment, low earnings, heavy dependence on social security and other forms of government assistance, demographic imbalance and economic and social stagnation are rife.

The same applies in some urban areas, where there are still people who are living in extreme poverty or are deprived in many respects.

However, extreme poverty is not only to be found in poor and deprived areas but also in some areas which are otherwise reasonably prosperous. It is a result of the general pattern of social and economic strata in European society and the inadequacy of many policies to combat poverty.

Immigrant workers

In this context particular attention has to be paid to immigrant workers, or at least some of them. The continuing recession highlights the particularly adverse situation of the poorest and least educated immigrants (especially those who come from countries outside the Community). For the most part they have the least attractive jobs on the market, and although life in the European Community is for many of them preferable to life in their country of origin their situation is none the less pitiful when measured by European standards: low earnings, poor working conditions, unsatisfactory housing and cultural isolation. At a time of high unemployment these workers are very hard hit and are the least well-equipped to compete in a difficult labour market, owing to their lack of qualifications and their limited knowledge of the local language. Furthermore, the social security system does not work to their advantage.

Immigrant children growing up in conditions of poverty contain the seeds of a potentially serious poverty problem for the future.

In addition to immigrants, there are other groups who appear very vulnerable. These are one-parent families, large families, the very elderly, the infirm and the handicapped. There is also greater risk of poverty in the lowest socio-economic groups, particularly among unskilled workers and those who live on the fringes of society, such as the homeless, drifters, alcoholics and drug addicts.

It should be added at this juncture that the degree of poverty suffered by these groups varies considerably from one Member State to another, although the gap has tended to narrow over the past few years.

A possible explanation of the phenomenon of poverty

Insecure jobs and unemployment

Employment plays a key role in combating poverty. The Community's programme to combat poverty (the lessons of which have to a large extent been confirmed by all the Commission's studies on employment and the

labour market) has highlighted several labour problems which either cause poverty or have a bearing upon it, for instance:

- ☐ Insecure employment and poor working conditions go hand in hand with low earnings to become a major cause of persistent poverty.
- ☐ The expansion of insecure forms of employment throughout the labour market in recent years is another common factor. The proliferation of short-term contracts, temporary work and part-time work, as well as the increase in intermittent unemployment, in conjunction with the general insecurity of employment among the low-paid, make for an increase in the number of poor. Low earnings and insecure jobs impoverish those workers who in the past were well above the poverty threshold.
- ☐ Unemployment, which has now reached dangerously high levels, affects workers of all ages, but the hardest hit in most countries are young people and those who have any sort of handicap on the labour market. Reports on research into unemployment and persistent poverty as well as the views of all the national experts converge in considering that the rise in unemployment is seriously aggravating the problem of poverty.

Photo: Guyaux; Bruxelles



☐ The increase in long-term unemployment in various countries – coupled with shortcomings in the social security systems, particularly for those who have been without a job for more than 12 months – is driving further groups of people into poverty. Those who have been without work for a long time when the economies of the Member States recover will probably remain outside the ranks of the employed and will suffer long-term poverty, unless positive action is taken now to help them.

☐ Unemployment can be said to have been 'exported' to other sectors of the social security system. The gradual exclusion from the labour market of large numbers of people who used to have jobs but who are now covered by early retirement schemes or are living on invalidity pensions or other forms of social security has considerably increased the number of people receiving welfare benefits. Although these people probably receive adequate levels of benefit and are not poor, the inordinate increase in the size and cost of the social security system considerably restricts the scope for improving the situation of those who receive inadequate benefits and makes it impossible for it to help the really needy.

A divided society?

We are thus seeing the development of a permanently divided society, and the emergence of the 'new poor' is likely to consolidate this situation.

The new poor

The expression 'the new poor' is now entering common usage. It was first used by welfare specialists about three years ago and has now reached the public at large. A mass of piecemeal information from local welfare offices and major charitable organizations combines to suggest that new forms of poverty are emerging. The new poor are 'average' Europeans who seem to have become caught up in the vicious circle of poverty; it is no longer simply the people of the 'Fourth World' who are in this situation.

It is difficult to quantify this expansion of poverty. All the experts agree that it exists, but no one can give even an approximate indication of the scale. It is for this reason that we need to investigate the phenomenon of the new poor.

Questions are being asked, as yet in a confused way, about relations between the State and society or between the economy and welfare, and there are calls for a radical reappraisal of these ideas.

An attempt can be made, however, to explain the phenomenon, although the explanation will be less conclusive than that put forward with regard to traditional forms of poverty, including extreme poverty.

Extreme poverty has always been seen as the result of a combination of several handicaps (low income or unemployment, illiteracy or lack of education, poor health and housing, etc.). Whatever the figures put forward, it was always more or less possible to define a section of the population as 'poor'.

The impact of the recession

The new forms of poverty are different. They do not affect the 'sub-proletariat' – described above and do not appear to follow any pattern of cumulative handicaps, still less of reproduction in the handicaps involved. They seem largely to be induced by abrupt changes in living conditions. The 'new poor' are average members of society who, for one reason or another – unemployment, ill health, administrative delays and bottlenecks – are thrown into a precarious situation which deteriorates fairly rapidly. There is no shortage of such situations. To take just two examples: firstly, women on

their own with dependant children who have to leave accommodation which has become too costly and who are unemployed; there has been a significant increase in the number of one-parent families in all countries since the start of the economic crisis. Secondly, there are workers who are made redundant by firms in areas which are dominated by a single industry or declining industries.

The common denominator in all these cases is the combination of an element of risk with a lifestyle which is dependent upon inadequate or dwindling financial resources. Rising unemployment – notwithstanding unemployment benefits – is of course the main factor in the emergence of such situations.

The problem is that conventional welfare policies are not geared to dealing with such situations. The existing social security system was designed to remedy specific problems and cater for clearly identifiable groups. It is generally built around seven major axes: old age, sickness, the family, industrial accident and disablement, unemployment, the handicapped and welfare assistance. However, each of these areas is administered as a separate entity and has a logic and rules of its own. Not only are there inadequacies within the individual services, there is also frequently a lack of coordination among them. The problems of the 'new poor', however, can only be solved on a broad basis and require cooperation between these various services as well as the smooth operation of each one of them. Thus it is not necessarily paradoxical for the expansion of welfare services to go hand in hand with an increase in poverty.

Inadequacy of social policies

Social policies are, moreover, aimed at specific sectors of the community, specific target groups: the handicapped, delinquents, families at risk, etc. Thus, each aspect of social policy is built around four elements which eventually become inseparable: a problem, a social group, a specific institution and a body of welfare experts. The 'permanently poor' or the sub-proletariat may thus form a specific group because one of their characteristics is that they are a lasting phenomenon (hence the classic danger of a given social condition being perpetuated by the very policies which are designed to relieve it). However, the 'new poor' are not a social group in the classic sense. Their problems arise from the evolution of their situation over a period of time. However, traditional welfare services do not usually take account of this time factor, this need for emergency action to deal with sudden changes in circumstances. Hence it is that the 'new poor' receive little or inadequate assistance, even though the authorities are gradually beginning to wake up to the existence of these problems.

If social policy is to include some provision for these new forms of poverty, the existing pattern of social policy (with regard to ideology, administration and methodology) will require some adaptation, not to say transformation. This could well be the subject of another article.

Preparations for a second programme to combat poverty

All the ideas outlined in the foregoing paragraphs should somehow be incorporated in the second programme to combat poverty which the Council instructed the Commission to prepare in December 1982.

In this connection, it is relevant to point out that on 10 December 1982 the Council, after examining the final report from the Commission on the first programme to combat poverty, adopted a series of conclusions. It considered that adequate economic, social and employment policies at national level, together with Community action in the employment sector and in particular measures to combat unemployment, promote the quality of

Specific Community action

employment and ensure better use of Community funds and resources, could, by attacking the structural causes, make an effective contribution to the fight against poverty. The Council went on to emphasize that when Community policies were formulated account must be taken of their effect on poverty. Similar views were expressed in connection with the reform of the Social Fund and the Regional Fund.

The Council's major recommendation was for the adoption of specific Community measures to combat poverty. Such measures should cover a period of several years and be built around a number of guidelines to ensure that the maximum benefit results from the various schemes.

Thus, in contrast to the first programme, the various types of action should be built around themes common to all the Member States. In addition to action in the field (action – research projects) and some fundamental studies, there could be seminars, public awareness campaigns using films, television, radio and the press, and even the creation of a centre for exchanging information, comparing experience, holding meetings, etc.

This multi-pronged approach should provide greater scope for studying the problems or the new ideas emerging at national and Community level, for instance (without wishing to give undue prominence to particular themes) independence for old people, the introduction of a minimum income, the reorganization of welfare services, etc.

To prepare for this specific action and draft proposals for submission to the Council, in 1983 the Commission used budget appropriations voted by the European Parliament to hold a series of consultations with all the individuals and organizations involved in any way with poverty. A second series of consultations is to be held before the programme itself is launched.

Richard Draperle

The Marolles in Brussels

The Marolles is one of Brussels's most typical working-class districts. Approximately 12000 people live there. The community is very cosmopolitan with immigrants of 14 different nationalities living side by side, from Africa, from Asia, although 50% of the population is Belgian. All types of minority groups are also to be found there, i.e. the handicapped, the elderly, one-parent families, etc.

Half of those living in this district live below the poverty threshold,¹ and experience all the attendant problems such as unemployment, illiteracy and bad housing.

The Marolles has always been a district populated by those excluded by society, and although the nature of their exclusion has changed with time, poverty has remained.

For more than 20 years local inhabitants have been trying to improve the situation. They have set up an association, the Comité Général d'Action des Marolles (CGAM).

Since before 1975 the CGAM has been carrying out a project devoted to a series of target areas such as housing, employment, health, illiteracy and leisure, in association with a Commission programme to combat poverty.

The Committee's main objective is to function as a social activator, i.e. to encourage the community to conduct its own battle against adverse conditions.

In this way the Committee makes it possible for people to improve their accommodation and hence their environment. It also practises an income maintenance policy by acting on two fronts: by making public authorities aware of problems specifically affecting those living in the Marolles, and by providing individual assistance in completing forms, establishing entitlement to social welfare benefits.

It is mainly in the field of health, however, that preventive action is taken. For example, the Committee organized a 'dental care day' aimed at making the various strata of the community aware of the basic rules of dental hygiene.

The Committee also encourages contact between the various ethnic groups, in order both to inculcate respect for national identity and to establish a dialogue with the Belgian

¹ Incomes are less than half the average per capita income in Belgium.



Photo: Guyaux; Bruxelles

section of the community. These groups also have an opportunity to meet at an annual fête which at the same time makes it possible for the people to make better use of local cultural facilities.

The elderly have a club where the rooms are heated, which is not always the case in their own homes. There they can meet and organize activities.

In the Marolles there are also three youth clubs and a reception centre for the handicapped to which even people from outside the district come.

All these activities are publicized by a newspaper and local radio run by the 'active' inhabitants of the district.

Aid granted by the Commission for this project during the period 1975-81 was not only of financial benefit, but also made it possible to present the problem of poverty as a social problem. Meetings with poor people from other countries were also made possible.

Maité Salanne

The Family Centre in downtown Rotherhithe (London)

Pilot scheme to combat poverty

The Family Centre in downtown Rotherhithe was founded in 1975 as part of the first European programme to combat poverty. It is one of seven day centres which were set up to help families 'beset by or threatened with poverty'.

Rotherhithe is a district of London lying like an island in the heart of the former dockland area. The closure of the docks led to the disintegration of a community which until then had been very close-knit.

The area then had not only to suffer the loss of its economic base, but also to watch its buildings and open spaces go to wrack and ruin as cuts were made in public services. Old-established inhabitants left the area as they lost their jobs and gradually their places were taken over by young and impoverished families.

This scheme was intended above all to help such families to take advantage of opportunities for self-help.

Those who worked on the project therefore limited their activities mainly to support and advice. A flat was made available where people could come and go as they pleased and meet other people. A kindergarten gave mothers temporary release from their children and gradually became a meeting place for women, offering them the opportunity to escape from the isolation of their flats.

Social functions were organized, along with courses on hygiene, child care or adult literacy; but, most importantly, there was an advisory centre, including a permanent office for information on social rights which helped people to fill in application forms for social security or grants for occupational training.

All these activities were organized and maintained by the inhabitants of the area themselves; the assessment carried out at the end of the European Community's programme showed that they were running the Family Centre independently of outside help. Those in charge of the project believed

that the efforts that had been made to persuade those whom the programme was intended to help to join in the organization of the activities and, what is more, to act on their own initiative, were largely responsible for the success of the project; 68% of all families with children under the age of three took part in the Centre's activities.

When the programme to combat poverty came to an end in 1981, the families themselves, together with the social workers involved, formed an Action Committee to ensure that the project could continue even without support from the European Community. It is now financed from local authority and national sources.

Ursula Daalman

The protection of workers exposed to toxic chemicals

In recent decades the overall development of science has led to considerable progress in chemistry and has resulted in the synthesis of tens of thousands of new chemicals.

At present more than 100 000 chemicals are known, and many of them are currently produced, handled and used by workers. Probably close to half of the labour force (of more than 100 million) in the European Community are 'professionally' in contact with some of these chemicals.

At the same time, due to progress in medicine, the nature of the health problems has changed with the disappearance of a number of epidemic episodes and the eradication of certain diseases; as a result more attention has been drawn to xenobiotic-related diseases, with the workers and the public asking for better knowledge of the toxic effects of chemicals, better preventive measures, and appropriate health protection.

In the European Community, the years 1982 and 1983 have seen the coming of age of occupational health from the point of view of protection against risks due to chemicals.

Introduction – Historical overview

The need to protect workers from the harmful effects of toxic chemicals has resulted both in Member States and at Community level in the recognition of continuously expanding lists of occupational diseases induced by chemicals, and the development of the concept of maximum allowable concentrations in air of toxic agents at the workplace. It is just over 25 years since the first such list was published in Europe by the Deutsche Forschungsgesellschaft.¹ At present this list includes more than 600 chemicals, and several other Member States of the European Community are producing their own list.

There has been, however, a growing recognition, resulting in part from the remarkable work done in the radiation protection field, that for the protection of workers to be adequate many elements must be included such as: technical prevention, health surveillance, general and personal hygiene, respect of exposure limits, biological monitoring, etc.

At the time of the signing of the three Treaties creating the European Communities (Coal and Steel, Euratom and the Economic Community) in the 1950s, the concern for occupational health and safety was perceived very differently in the three areas.

While all three Treaties proclaim the need to achieve better health and wellbeing for the citizens of the Member States of the European Community, only the Coal and Steel, and the Euratom Treaties go a long way towards implementing this objective.

For example in the European Atomic Energy Community Treaty (Euratom) a whole chapter is devoted to health protection, both of the workers and of the population.

Within the framework of the European Economic Community

Treaty, while clear-cut objectives and tasks related to safety and health were not defined it should not be concluded that the Community remained completely inactive in this field since a number of Committees dealing with specific sectors of activities were set up with a mandate on questions of safety and health.

The adoption by the Council on 29 June 1978 of a resolution on an action programme of the European Community on safety and health at work² represented a major step forward in increasing the protection of the safety and health of workers. For the first time it set out the basis of a common policy aimed at increasing the protection from the health and safety points of view, of all the workers in the Community.

Main approaches considered for Community action

The above action programme contains 14 actions, of which six are dedicated to protection against the harmful effects of chemicals.

These six actions may be summarized as follows:

- ☐ standardization of concepts and terminologies relating to exposure limits for toxic substances and harmonization of some of these limits.
- ☐ development of a preventive and protective action with respect to carcinogens;
- ☐ establishment of a common methodology for the assessment of the health risks of harmful agents;
- ☐ establishment of information notices for workers concerning the more harmful substances;
- ☐ development of new monitoring and measuring methods for the assessment of individual exposure, in particular through the application of sensitive biological indicators;
- ☐ establishment for a number of specific toxic substances of ambient and biological exposure limits, sampling requirements, measuring

methods and satisfactory hygiene conditions at the workplace.

Activities in all these areas have been undertaken since 1978. Recently these activities were reviewed by the Commission and a second programme of action proposed to the Council.³

This programme to cover the period 1983–88 should be adopted shortly. Regarding toxic chemicals it envisages in particular to:

- ☐ extend the principles adopted for dealing with carcinogens in the assessment of other dangerous agents and processes which may produce serious health effects (dangerous pathogens, teratogens, mutagens and new biological techniques);
- ☐ make recommendations on the organization of safety and health arrangements in medium and small undertakings, on the functions and responsibilities of the specialists in the fields of health, hygiene and safety at work;
- ☐ establish principles and criteria on the surveillance of workers exposed to high accident risk, in particular maintenance and repair teams, workers undertaking subcontract work, laboratory workers and those involved in new technologies;
- ☐ ensure the availability and validity of information to employers and to workers exposed to chemicals or other contaminants at work, including adequate information on substances placed on the market, and also to make proposals on adequate labelling or marking to identify dangerous agents at the workplace.

'Framework' legislation for the protection of workers exposed to toxic agents

The essential step in the implementation of the action programme was the adoption by Council on 27 November 1980 of a directive on the protection of workers against the risks connected with ex-

posure to chemical, biological and physical agents at work.⁴

This is a broad 'framework' directive which should result in all Member States following a similar path in the future. This directive sets out two objectives:

- ☐ eliminate or limit exposure to chemical, physical and biological agents and prevent risks to workers' health and safety;
- ☐ protect workers who are likely to be exposed to these agents.

The directive requires the Member States to take short- and long-term measures. The short-term measures require that within three years appropriate information be provided to workers and/or their representatives concerning the health risks due to asbestos, arsenic, cadmium, lead and mercury, and within four years appropriate surveillance be set up of the health of workers exposed to asbestos and lead.

The longer-term measures apply when a Member State adopts provisions concerning an agent. In order that the exposure of workers to agents be avoided or kept at as low a level as is reasonably practicable, Member States should comply with a set of requirements, but in doing so they have to determine whether and to what extent each of these requirements is applicable to the agent concerned. Some of the most important of these requirements are:

- ☐ limitation of use at the place of work;
- ☐ limitation of the number of workers exposed;
- ☐ prevention by engineering control;
- ☐ establishment of limit values and of sampling and measurement procedures, and methods for evaluating results;
- ☐ protection measures involving the application of suitable working procedures and methods;
- ☐ collective and individual protection measures, where exposure to

agents cannot be avoided by the other means;

- ☐ hygiene measures;
- ☐ emergency procedures for abnormal exposures;
- ☐ information to workers;
- ☐ surveillance of the workers' health.

In addition, further more specific requirements are laid down for a list of 11 substances (Table I).

Table I

'Framework' directive

List of agents with specific requirements

Acrylonitrile
Asbestos
Arsenic and compounds
Benzene
Cadmium and compounds
Mercury and compounds
Nickel and compounds
Lead and compounds
Chlorinated hydrocarbon compounds:

- ☐ Chloroform
- ☐ Paradichlorobenzene
- ☐ Carbon tetrachloride

The directive also requires the Member States to consult the social partners when the above requirements are being established.

The 'framework' directive envisages the drafting of individual directives for each of the 11 agents named in the table. The individual directives will lay down limit values and other specific requirements.

On the basis of the experience gained in the drafting of these individual directives, it is likely that forthcoming directives dealing with other agents will follow the same general structure described in Table II.

To date on the basis of this directive, two individual directives have been adopted on lead⁵ and asbestos;⁶ furthermore, a directive on the

Table II

Structure of individual directives for the protection of workers exposed to chemical agents at work

Structure	Comments
(1) Aims or objectives	General statement
(2) Definitions	Terms, quantities, units
(3) Scope	Coverage and exemptions
(4) Specific conditions	Sometimes – prohibitions of certain practices
(5) Reporting provisions	Certain operations may require notification or authorization
(6) General control principles	Main approaches to limit exposure
(7) Limitation of doses in special cases	Sometimes critical groups of workers to be considered
(8) Assessment of exposure	Sampling and analytical strategy
(9) Action levels	Numerical values, ambient and, if applicable, biological, which trigger the application of directive
(10) Exposure limits	Numerical values, ambient and, if applicable, biological, not to be exceeded
(11) Planned special exposures	For certain operations special precautions required
(12) Exceeding the limit values	Provisions to be taken in such cases
(13) Individual protection	Requirements and conditions
(14) Personal hygiene	Facilities and requirements
(15) Medical examinations	Frequency and guidelines
(16) Records	Measurement of exposure and health record in particular
(17) Information	Information of workers regarding dangers and precautions to be taken
(18) Statistics	Information for monitoring application
(19) Application	Dates when operational

TABLE III

Proposed and adopted action levels and limit values for lead at work (air)

	Proposed	Adopted
Action levels	40 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (beyond this value directive applies)	40 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (information and hygiene) 75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (beyond this value full application of directive)
Limit values	150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (at entry in force) 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (in 1985) (diameter of particles < 15 μ)	150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (in 1986) (diameter of particles < 30 μ)

protection of major chemical accidents, the so-called 'Seveso' directive has also been adopted.

Lead and asbestos

Lead and asbestos have been considered of primary importance for the following reasons:

☐ the number of workers exposed in the Community is very high: between 500 000 and 1 million for lead

and significantly in excess of 1 million for asbestos;

☐ both substances have a large number of uses and are present in a variety of industries;

☐ the toxic effects of lead are very well known although, at national level, different points of view exist as to the measures to be taken in particular regarding the protection of some categories of workers;

☐ regarding the health risk due to

asbestos, in addition to asbestosis, asbestos is associated with cancer of the lung, mesotheliomas and cancers of the gastro-intestinal system. Within the European Community, the number of deaths from mesothelioma probably exceeds 700 per annum.

The action levels and limit values (in air) proposed and adopted are summarized in Tables III (lead) and IV (asbestos).

TABLE IV

Proposed and adopted action levels and limit values for asbestos at work (Air)

	Proposed	Adopted
Action levels (all asbestos fibres)	—	0.25 fibre/cm ³ and/or 15.0 fibre/cm ³ per day over three months (full application of directive beyond) these values
Limit values		
Crocidolite	0.1 fibre/cm ³	0.5 fibre/cm ³
All other asbestos fibres	0.5 fibre/cm ³	1.0 fibre/cm ³

Prevention of major accidents – Seveso

In the 1970s a significant number of major chemical accidents occurred both within the European Community and in other countries affecting both workers and the population (Table V). However, the potential long-term consequences of the Seveso and Manfredonia accidents in 1976 added a new dimension and awareness to the overall problem.

In June 1982 the Council of Ministers adopted a directive on major accidents hazards of certain industrial activities, aimed at preventing such accidents and reducing consequences if they occur.⁷

The directive (also known as the Seveso Directive) is of great importance for workers, the general population and the environment.

A major accident is defined as a major emission, fire or explosion involving one or more dangerous substances, resulting from the uncontrolled development of an industrial activity, which could constitute a serious risk, immediate or delayed, for workers, the neighbouring population and the environment.

The directive requires that for industrial activities which involve dangerous substances:

☐ a safety report be drawn up;
☐ workers be informed, equipped and trained;

☐ safety drills be organized;
☐ the neighbouring population be informed and an emergency plan established.

In particular for the activities subject to notification, the obligation for the manufacturer to examine and provide information on the substances and their behaviour under abnormal conditions, on the installations, technical processes and the number of persons exposed to risk, and on possible major-accident situations, will certainly improve the safety of the workers who are usually the first ones exposed to any hazard.

Table VI gives examples of such substances. The notification is compulsory for 178 substances.

For these 178 substances it is envisaged to establish, in accordance with the requirements of the action programme on safety and

health at work and the framework directive, information notices as to the risks for workers, guidance on safety measures, and immediate

and follow-up action to be taken from the health point of view in case of severe accidental exposure.

Table V

Examples of industrial chemical accidents in the Member States of the European Community between 1974 and 1978 having severely affected the workers and the population

Year	Place	Chemical compound or substance used	Workers (population)		
			Deaths	Injuries	Intoxication/ exposure
1974	Flixborough (UK)	Cyclohexane	28 (-)	- (100)	- (-)
1975	Antwerp (B)	Ethylene	6 (-)	13 (-)	- (-)
1975	Beek (NL)	Naphta	14 (-)	30 (~100)	- (-)
1976	Northern Italy (I)	Wood dust	3 (-)	4 (-)	- (-)
1976	Seveso (I)	TCDD (dioxine)	- (-)	- (-)	- (400-500)
1976	Manfredonia (I)	Arsenic	- (-)	- (-)	500 (~100)
1977	Kiel (D)	Polyester	6 (-)	8 (-)	- (-)
1977	Brindisi (I)	Ethylene	3 (-)	83 (-)	- (-)
1977	Renfrew (UK)	Sodium chlorate	- (-)	13 (-)	- (-)
1978	Northern Italy (I)	Solvent paints	2 (-)	7 (-)	- (-)
1978	Genoa (I)	Hydrogen sulphide	4 (-)	14 (-)	- (-)

Table VI

'Seveso' Directive

Examples of substances requiring notification

Substance	Quantity
2-acetylaminofluorene	1 kg
Benzidine	1 kg
Beryllium oxide	1 kg
Arsenic (solid compounds)	500 kg
Phosgene	20 t
Chlorine	100 t
Carbon disulphide	200 t
Ammonia	1 000 t
Hydrogen	20 t
Ammonium nitrate	5 000 t
Liquid oxygen	10 000 t

Other Community legislation on chemicals providing worker protection – Classification and labelling of toxic chemicals

In the 1960s, the programme for the elimination of technical barriers to an intra-Community trade considered that there was a need for a unified approach towards the classification, packaging and labelling of dangerous substances.

The EEC labelling requirements are intended to provide a clear primary means by which all persons (workers as well as the public at large) handling or using substances are given essential information

about the inherent dangers of certain such materials.

The EEC label is intended to give information on two types of dangers:

- ☐ health dangers,
- ☐ physical dangers.

The classification of dangers as revised in the Sixth Amendment (79/831/EEC)⁸ to the 1967 Council Directive,⁹ and the corresponding symbols are given in Table VII. In addition to the symbols the label must include standard sentences describing the nature of the special risks and giving safety advice. Typical risk phrases related to toxicity are: 'harmful in contact with skin'; 'very toxic by inhalation'; 'dangers of cumulative effects', etc. Typical safety phrases include: 'keep contents under water'; 'when using do not smoke'; 'take off immediately all contaminated clothing'; etc.

Up to now close to 1000 substances have been examined, classified and listed. However, this number is very small in comparison to the existing substances, amongst which at least 40% would require classification under the meaning of the directive.

However, in most instances the physico-chemical and toxicological data are not available. To alleviate this situation, the sixth Amendment provides a new approach: the requirement for the manufacturer to

submit a notification dossier to the competent authorities for all new substances.

This dossier must include:

- ☐ a technical dossier supplying the information necessary to evaluate the risks which the new substance may entail for man and the environment. It should contain at least the information and results of the studies referred to in the so-called base set which concerns physico-chemical, toxicological and ecotoxicological tests; Table VIII shows the toxicity tests as foreseen in the base set;
- ☐ a declaration concerning the unfavourable effects of the substance in terms of the various uses envisaged;
- ☐ the proposed classification and labelling;
- ☐ the proposals for any recommended precautions relating to the use of the substance.

It is clear that the results of these tests will allow not only a more appropriate classification of the substance if it presents dangers, and definition of these dangers, but will also serve as one of the sources of information for setting control requirements as well as hygiene and medical surveillance measures for workers exposed to these substances.

Table VII

Classification and labelling symbols for dangerous substances










Classification	Labelling symbol	
Explosive	Exploding bomb (E)	
Oxidizing	Flame over a circle (O)	
Extremely flammable	Flame (F)	
Highly flammable	Flame (F)	
Very toxic	Skull and cross-bones (T)	
Toxic	Skull and cross-bones (T)	
Harmful	St. Andrew's Cross (XN)	
Corrosive	Symbol showing the damaging effect of an acid (C)	
Irritant	St. Andrew's Cross (XI)	
Dangerous for the environment Carcinogenic Teratogenic Mutagenic		

Table VIII

Base set of toxicity for 'new' chemicals

1. Acute toxicity

1.1 LD50 Oral, inhalation, cutaneous
Usually two routes of administration
Rats male and female
14 days observation

1.2 Skin irritation
Albino rabbit

1.3 Eye irritation
Rabbit

1.4 Skin sensitization
Guinea-pig

2. Sub-acute Toxicity

28-day administration, usually oral
Rat preferably

3. Mutagenicity

Series of two tests
Bacteriological with and without metabolic activation
Non-bacteriological

The above approach should significantly contribute to improve the health protection of the workers.

Unfortunately it is limited, however, to pure substances, while workers are most frequently exposed to mixtures.

From a scientific point of view, it is at present very difficult to transpose toxicological data from pure compounds to mixtures. Usually the additivity rule is used, which of course does not take into account synergisms and antagonisms. The additivity approach has been used in the 1973 directive on solvents.¹⁰

For example to determine if a preparation is to be classified and labelled as toxic or harmful, an empirical computation system has been set up based on a classification index for the toxic and harmful substances which may compose this preparation.

Conclusions – The future

At present we seem to have most tools, if properly applied, for ensuring an adequate protection of the workers exposed to chemicals.

Of course, further toxicological tests necessary, combined with clinical and epidemiological observations to ensure that the exposure limits selected are adequate.

In the case when several routes of exposure are significant, the introduction of biological monitoring and of biological limit values should be considered, as it been done for lead,⁵ and taken up by the DFG MAK Commission.¹¹ The complementarity of ambient and biological monitoring has been clearly established.¹² Finally there is a need to further develop and simplify monitoring techniques to be able to monitor as many individual workers as possible.

But foremost in all the above considerations is the need for a very close cooperation between workers and employers to work together for the goal of best health protection for all workers.

Alexandre Berlin and William J. Hunter

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⁷ Council Directive (82/501/EEC) of 24 June 1982 on the major accident hazards of certain industrial activities. L 230, 5. 8. 1982, p. 1.

⁸ Council Directive (79/831/EEC) of 18 September 1979 amending for the sixth time Directive 67/548/EEC on the approximation of the laws, regulations and administrative provisions relating to the classification, packaging and labelling of dangerous substances. OJ L 259, 15. 10. 1979, p. 10.

⁹ Council Directive (67/548/CEE) of 27 June 1967, on the approximation of Member States' laws, regulations and administrative provisions relating to the classification, packing and labelling of dangerous preparations. OJ L 196, 16. 8. 1967, p. 1.

¹⁰ Council Directive (73/173/EEC) of 4 June 1973 on the approximation of Member States' laws, regulations and administrative provisions relating to the classification, packing and labelling of dangerous preparations (solvents). OJ L 189, 11. 7. 1983, p. 7.

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Part Two

Analyses, debates, studies

Various aspects of small-scale local job creation

The programme of research and action on trends in the labour market provides the Commission with a means of analysing and thus understanding the complex nature of the European labour market. The programme has led to several studies, many of which are innovative and original, to identify new growth areas for job creation.

It is against this background that the Commission has for some years been interested in small-scale job-creation schemes.

This new approach to the labour market has its origins in the report by a group of outside experts whom the Commission consulted in 1977 as part of its research on medium-term economic prospects (New characteristics of socio-economic development – A blueprint for Europe – December 1977).¹

Further to this report, the Commission had an initial study conducted on workers' cooperatives in Europe. This analysis produced encouraging results, and was followed by further more detailed studies of the part played by cooperative support organizations in job creation, the quest for new types of ventures, particularly those involving women, and of experience outside the Community, including a study of the relationship between new information technologies and small-scale job creation in the United States.

All these studies helped to illustrate the value of a new approach to the employment problem, and the criteria for a viable undertaking then had to be established. A series of consultations was organized throughout Europe so as to obtain a close-up picture of such ventures. These meetings were not confined to workers' cooperatives; they encompassed all forms of enterprise and eventually led to the concept of small-scale local job creation.

As this is a dynamic and constantly changing concept, no definitive conclusions can be drawn at present, but more publicity should

now be given to some of the studies drafted for the Commission in what

is at the moment a highly topical field.

Prospects for workers' cooperatives in Europe

This report was a joint effort by the Mutual Aid Centre of London and the TEN Coopérative of Paris. It is the first reasonably exhaustive analysis of European cooperatives. In addition to giving an overview of existing cooperatives, it deals extensively with workers' production cooperatives. At present the study is available in French and English language versions.

Starting from two premises – the relative failure of conventional methods of sustaining employment, and the emergence of new forms of labour – the report outlines the contribution which workers' cooperatives can make to economic and social progress.

Volume I of the study gives a general overview of the characteristics of workers' cooperatives as an original form of undertaking controlled by those who work in it. Among other things, emphasis is placed on the social objective of such ventures, although it is stressed that this does not necessarily preclude profitability. The authors accordingly regard this type of undertaking as a 'middle course' between the extremes of traditional capitalism and public ownership. The report also explores a relatively little-known area, namely workers' cooperative associations which directly involve some 50 million Europeans. These include: groups of friendly societies, consumer cooperatives, agricultural cooperatives and credit cooperatives. It also broaches the subject of the – frequently delicate – relationship between cooperatives and the trade unions.

In addition to the primary objective which was to define cooperatives, the study also aimed to assess the contribution to employment which could be made by this form of venture. In this connection, it is to be

noted that, with very few exceptions, workers' cooperatives belong to the small and medium-sized business sector although, as we mentioned earlier, they have certain distinguishing features of their own.

As several Commission studies have shown,² it is in this sector that almost all new jobs have been created in recent years.

In the specific case of workers' cooperatives, the growth of employment can be attributed largely to five trends.

Factors influencing the creation of jobs in cooperatives:

- ☐ jobs protected as a result of workers' taking over ailing or bankrupt businesses;
- ☐ jobs protected as a result of healthy businesses being turned into cooperatives on the death or retirement of the former owner when there is no obvious successor;
- ☐ new jobs created as a result of new cooperatives being set up by unemployed workers and/or workers interested in new, more rewarding types of job resulting from a non-hierarchical form of organization, or workers concerned with the quality of the product manufactured and its value to society;
- ☐ new jobs created by the development of new public services which were until recently the responsibility of the public authorities and which have either been discontinued or inadequately performed, largely be-

¹ The report is better known as the Ruffolo Report, this being the name of the Chairman of the group, who is currently a Member of the European Parliament.

² See *Social Europe* No 00, July 1983, pp. 53–60.



cause of the budget problems encountered in recent years. For instance, large numbers of cooperative ventures providing support facilities such as nurseries and 'soup-kitchens' have been set up, and 'social solidarity cooperatives' have been created to provide assistance for the elderly or handicapped;

□ the authors close by pointing out that the greater job security enjoyed by workers attached to cooperatives also helps to improve the employment situation. As all the workers own the business and share in the profits, they all prefer to put up with temporary pay restraints to avoid redundancies.

Although, or possibly because, workers' cooperatives are a recent development they encounter many problems which hamper their de-

velopment and which in some instances are a threat to their survival.

These difficulties include:

□ Shortage of capital. This is a chronic problem with many workers' cooperatives and it is one of the reasons why they tend to be found in sectors with a low added value. There are two reasons for their undercapitalization, the first being, of course, the limited resources of the members themselves, and the second being the limited access which cooperatives have to conventional capital markets. Banks tend to mistrust cooperatives because of their unfamiliarity with this type of business structure and the limited capacity of such organizations to provide adequate guarantees.

□ No matter how much goodwill they may have, members of cooperatives often lack managerial exper-

tise. We would point out in this connection that virtually no training courses provide guidance on the administration of cooperatives which differs significantly from the running of a conventional business.

□ The legislation of several Member States actually hampers the development of cooperatives (maximum capital, social security system, etc.). The authors give a comparison table of legislation pertaining in the individual Member States to back up their claims.

Having analysed the advantages and problems of workers' cooperatives, the authors conclude that a series of proposals to foster the expansion of cooperatives should be submitted to the Member States and the Community authorities. These proposals illustrate the importance which they attach to the setting-up of intermediate back-up

organizations, easier access to capital markets, and adequate training.

The other volumes analyse cooperatives in each Member State, and there is also a reference to the

'Mondragon' cooperative venture in the Basque region of Spain. The country reports are based on visits to the countries and contain several interesting case studies.

achievements and failures – with concrete examples. She outlines their advantages and disadvantages, mentions any support organizations and indicates impact on job creation and the contribution which they make to society as a whole.

New information technologies and small-scale job creation

(The alternative economy and job creation in the USA with policy recommendations applicable to the European context)

In attempting to identify new areas of employment growth it is essential to decide, without preconceived ideas, 'who creates jobs and in what circumstances'. Present and future employment policies can only be framed in the light of this vital piece of information, even though it is by definition incomplete.

'What we need and have lacked is the ability to focus our incentives on those who will make good use of them without wasting taxpayers' monies on those who will not.'

In the light of this principle, the Battelle Institute in Frankfurt made a study of the alternative economy in the United States (Study published as 'Document' by the Office for Official Publications of the European Communities) for the Commission. The aim was to determine the actual and potential impact of alternative job-creating ventures and to attempt to analyse the relevance of such ventures to future Community employment policies.

Realizing the technological advantage enjoyed by the United States in the field of electronics and the more widespread use of micro-computers there, the Commission also asked the Institute to study the potential impact of the use of micro-computers on the development of the alternative economy.

I. Origins and definitions of the alternative sector

Born of the counter-culture movement of the late 1960s, alterna-

tive projects have recently attracted considerable attention in most of the media because of their original and 'colourful' approach, and have constantly developed. However, much less attention has been paid to the fact that what were essentially the expressions of a cultural movement have given place to socio-economic projects predominantly based on two principles.

How should we produce?

Although the term 'alternative sector' is clumsy, it can be defined as the combination of all attempts to give the individual the greatest scope for living and working in a more self-sufficient way, in democratically-run or cooperative organizations, with the emphasis on sharing rather than competition.

What should we produce?

The other principle underlying alternative projects is the need to produce goods and services which are socially useful and ecologically sound and which will be conducive to the welfare of future generations, rather than maximum prosperity now.

This twofold purpose, which is typically idealistic, precludes a quantitative appraisal of the alternative sector. The traditional yardsticks are totally unsuitable when it comes to assessing qualitative aspects such as the 'welfare of future generations'.

II. Main forms

The author pinpoints four types of working model, defining them and highlighting their significant

1. Intentional communities

The author regards these as the most radical expression of the alternative philosophy. Groups of varying size (in some instances numbering over a thousand people), decide to withdraw from society, rather like the medieval monastic communities, to create a microcosm living and producing according to principles which differ from the standard ones. In addition to their desire for a more equal society, these experiments frequently have a marked spiritual purpose (e.g. The Farm in Tennessee, a group of some 1300 people).

2. Barter

One of the main aims of alternative projects is to find solutions to the fragmentation of life and thus to reduce dependence on employment and money. Although more and more of them are aspiring to become self-sufficient, this obviously has limits. Barter is accordingly a more viable proposition, because it constitutes a link between goods produced by the consumer and more specialized goods and services. Barter provides a framework for this trade while at the same time excluding the market economy.

Although barter is viewed by the tax authorities as a means of tax evasion, this system, which is in fact deeply rooted in American history, is constantly expanding and becoming increasingly structured.²

¹ David Birch 'Who creates jobs?', *The public interest*, No 65, autumn 1981.

² There is now a national organization (Barter project) which provides support to barter groups in the form of an information exchange system and technical assistance.

The advocates of this system refute the allegation that it causes unemployment, claiming that goods and services which are bartered would probably not have been traded if there had been any money involved.

3. Cooperative and worker-owned firms

Although a sharp distinction must be drawn between 'old-style cooperatives' and 'new wave co-ops', the expansion of the cooperative movement in the past 10 years or more justifies the claim that the United States' cooperative movement is one of the most extensive in the Western World.

The fastest-growing cooperatives are consumer cooperatives, although the past few years have seen the expansion of two trends: take-overs of ailing or bankrupt firms by workers, which have in some instances resulted in the creation of cooperatives (e.g. Mohawk Valley Community Cooperative, NY); and cooperatives producing goods or services for the most part set up as a spontaneous reaction by young people of middle-class background who are highly critical of the established order and are motivated by a desire for a more equitable organization of labour (e.g. Consumers United Group).

This proliferation of cooperatives and the – largely financial – problems which have resulted prompted the United States Congress to set up the National Consumers' Cooperative Bank (NCCB) in 1978. This has a capital of USD 300 million redeemable over a period by cooperatives, its aim being to further the development of the cooperative sector (10% of the assets are specifically earmarked for producer cooperatives).

Furthermore, in 1980 a law governing small worker-owned firms came into force. Under the terms of this law, the government may grant loans to workers to enable them to buy up firms which are threatened with closure or to set up new firms.

4. Community and neighbourhood organizations

As a reaction to the deteriorating economic situation in inner-city areas and the consequences of run-down housing, movements were set up to combat unemployment and rehabilitate housing.

These organizations, which are an attempt to revitalize neighbourhoods, take a variety of forms, such as the development of urban vegetable gardens, the formation of buying clubs and the restoration of dilapidated housing by concerted efforts. A number of the experiments which are under way also involve the use of solar technologies which can be exploited on a small scale.

Although at the outset they were often dependent upon unpaid labour, many such projects have also received aid from a variety of public programmes. For instance, 'Interface Adopt-A-Building, NY' renovated several dozen buildings by pooling neighbourhood skills and organizing 'on the job' training. This project has enabled unemployed people to purchase their own home while at the same time acquiring job training in the course of the renovation work.

These projects are backed by several organizations, the best known being the 'Community Development Corporation – CDC' which, although it is privately owned, receives substantial government finance.

III. Information technologies and the alternative economy

Strange though this may seem to Europeans, information technologies are viewed by alternative groups in America as a means of achieving their independence and implementing their ideals. In their view, microelectronics permits the emergence of decentralized social structures linked by telecommunication networks. Moreover, it is ecologically sound and energy-saving.

Microelectronics also affords easy access to and control over in-

formation, thereby supporting such alternative values as cooperation and direct democracy.

This positive attitude towards the new technology has prompted many groups to create telecommunication systems making for easier exchanges of information and experience (e.g. Community Bulletin Board System – Feminist Computer Technology Project).

It can accordingly be said that Americans who favour the 'alternative' system consider new information technologies to offer a twofold advantage:

- ☐ they make for cooperation and solidarity, in that telecommunications afford an opportunity to communicate;
- ☐ they offer scope for creating new, 'alternative' jobs.

IV. Lessons, conclusions and recommendations

The current wave of interest in an alternative way of life is a reaction to the many inadequacies of the industrial society and its inability to resolve the ills which it generates (unemployment, lack of job satisfaction due to mass-production techniques, bureaucratic organization, pollution, the depletion of non-renewable resources, etc.).

However, given that the alternative sector is developing in conditions which were not specifically tailored for it, there are many difficulties which result in frequent failures.

In order to foster the development of new social values heralding the post-industrial era, and to prove their viability, the author concludes by proposing a series of measures designed to alleviate the difficulties besetting alternative projects. Prominent among these are access to capital markets, the analysis of legal problems (particularly in the case of barter), and the development of support structures, which should preferably be provided by the alternative sector itself.

Angelo Baglio

New departures in employment of particular interest for women

Women have traditionally been allocated a marginal role on the labour market, and are amongst the first victims of the economic crisis. Nevertheless, far from resigning themselves to the situation, they are reacting and taking innovative steps to create or save jobs, either as individuals or in groups.

The survey, carried out for the Commission by the 'Centre for Research on European Women' (Brussels) reviews new forms of initiative and proposes measures to support them. In the original English version, the many appendices also present interesting case studies (Study No 81/26, in English, with a summary available in French and Dutch).

Objectives

The aim of the survey was to ascertain to what extent collective organizations, such as cooperatives, can both create employment and integrate women into the labour market. In order to answer these questions, those carrying out the investigation conducted a survey (400 questionnaires) and supplemented the replies obtained with in-depth interviews with selected respondents.

In this way the various aspects of job creation, such as how to go about setting up an enterprise, the marketing of the goods or services produced (including pricing and costing), finance and work management are particularly emphasized.

Reasons

These are all questions which are of concern to any promoter of a venture. Nevertheless they gain an additional dimension because of the special reasons behind the initiative. It could be argued that when an enterprise is set up as a cooperative by women, it is primarily a vehicle for various motives rather than an end in itself. It could consist in setting up a bookshop or feminist pub-

lishing house to facilitate the diffusion of ideas or to create a structure for the improvement of conditions for female workers employed in the 'black economy', or it could consist of establishing a cooperative to take over a bankrupt firm, thus preserving jobs, or again of investing in ventures whose aim would be to penetrate sectors which are not traditional, and where the attitude of employers is still very conservative.

Those female workers who were asked also believed that a cooperative was, for them, preferable as a structure to the traditional type of company. The social dimension of a cooperative allows work to be organized in a more flexible way which makes allowances for the needs of

children and the workers' desire for personal fulfilment.

The environment

Analysis of various experiments demonstrates the importance of the environment for the development of women's cooperatives. Female workers are often treated as a minority group because they are poorly represented in politics and trade unions. Nevertheless, several cases demonstrate that fruitful cooperatives can be established successfully. The report analyses and assesses the impact of the main factors of the environment in the development of women's cooperatives (support organizations, financing, training, experts, etc.).



The idea is to train girls in a 'male' occupation (painting and decorating) with an additional training in the restoration of classified local half-timbered houses. Moreover, the training is orientated towards the future and takes account of the possibilities of working in a 'normal' firm after training has been completed or staying to run the workshop.

Local authorities and social services

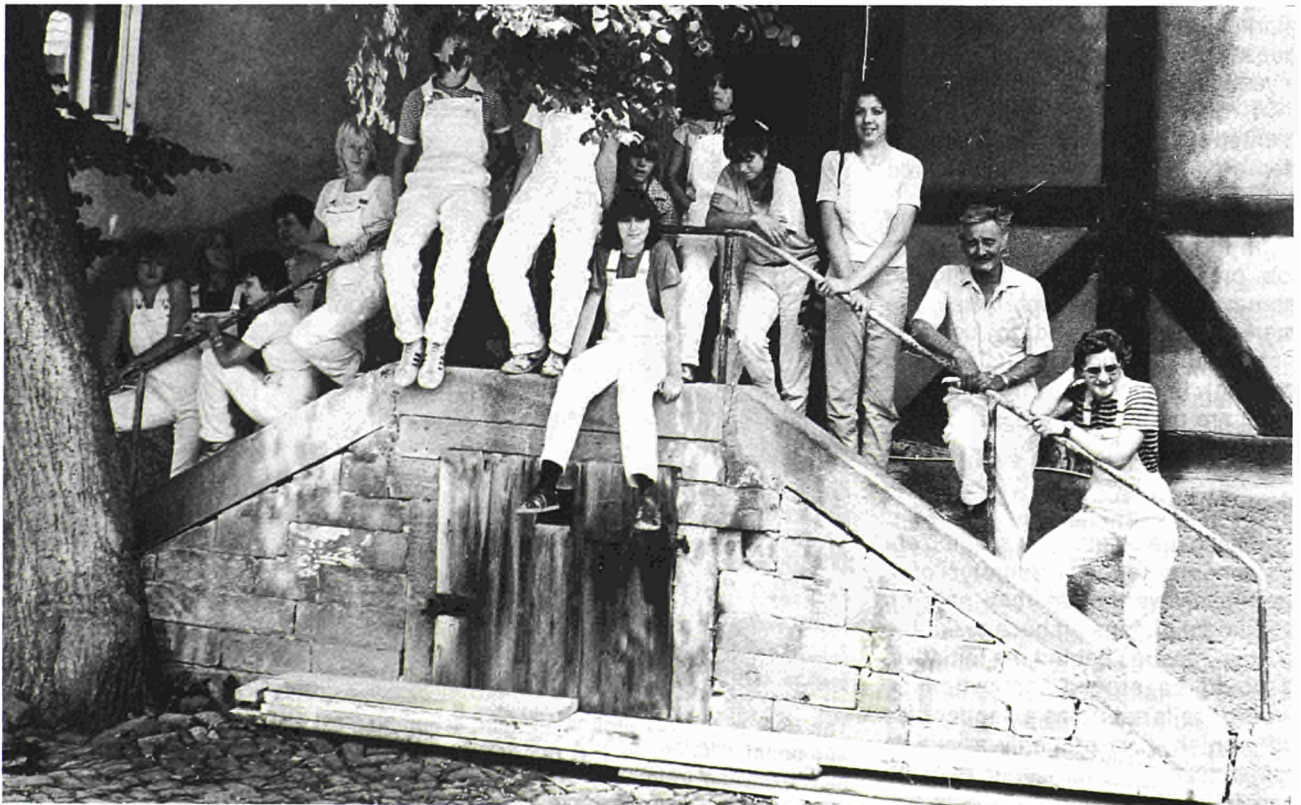
Italy is probably the country with the largest number of cooperative ventures which offer social services. This has been made possible by changes in legislation which now permit local authorities to delegate certain tasks of public interest to cooperatives. Consequently numerous cooperatives have been set up, employing mainly women, to meet

the need for crèches, assistance for the elderly, cooperative canteens, etc.

Although this issue is controversial in Italy, and is especially opposed by some trade unions who fear that it could lead to the dismantling of the social security system and a weakening of job security for local government staff, the phenomenon is becoming more widespread.

It would therefore seem that the steps taken by women in the field of employment have had a positive impact. Nevertheless these projects lack certain essentials, such as access to finance, back-up structures and training. Those carrying out the survey outline the basic needs of these enterprises and present proposals for meeting them.

Angelo Baglio



Applicants for a workshop training project in the north of Hessen (FRG).

Research on equal opportunities in banks

As part of the Community policy of creating equality of opportunity for men and women, in particular in employment (Action 12 of the new Community action programme to promote equal opportunities for women 1982-1985), the Commission introduced a pilot scheme to encourage changes in this direction in the banking sector. This sector was chosen because it provides employment for a large number of women, is comparatively similar in organization throughout the Community and very much involved with the new technologies, especially data processing.

Banking is a test sector, and this pilot scheme may have repercussions in others, particularly the tertiary sector.

It all began in 1979 with research projects in four main banks (in Belgium, France, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom). Subsequently, an information seminar was organized to present the results of this research to those responsible for personnel and management policies in 60 European banks.

The Commission decided to publish the results of this work, since they could be of interest not only to the banking sector, but also to a much wider public.

The research work which follows has therefore been edited and published. It should be of particular interest to researchers, consultants and social workers who have to deal with the problems associated with the deployment of staff and changes in management methods: it is also aimed at managerial staff in the business sector and public bodies and especially personnel managers who are interested in the development of human resources and therefore in the deployment of female staff: finally it is aimed at men and women who have to deal with the problems of equal opportunities.

Equal opportunities in the banking sector in the EEC countries (Research by Jacqueline Laufer)

The author first of all summarizes the progress made in this field since the three Council directives¹ on equality of men and women were drawn up, drawing attention to the legislation which should be introduced and the need to set about making equality a practical reality.

She then discusses developments in the situation of women on the job market of the European Community countries. The main features of this situation are:

- ☐ women's increasing demand for work: the overall percentage of women at work has increased from 27.7 % in 1970 to 31.6 % in 1981. This trend is considered by most observers to be irreversible;
- ☐ the persistence of major difficulties: women have 'second-rate', less skilled, insecure jobs; they run a greater risk of unemployment;
- ☐ the hazards of the economic crisis, which may increase women's vulnerability because of competition on the job market.

And so the situation of women is governed by antagonistic forces: on the one hand, there are factors which militate in favour of greater equality (drop in the birth rate, improvement in the standard of education and the fact that women are taking an increasingly large part in economic and public life); on the other, there are the pressures of factors which are rooted in the past but still very much present in attitudes and in practice today, factors which are linked to the traditionally feminine role of wife/mother/housewife, and still make women 'workers apart'.

Moving on to the position of women in the banking sector, the author discusses current trends as well as the results of the research programme which was carried out in Belgium, France, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. Although it

employs a large number of women, the banking sector highlights very clearly the obstacles which still hamper the equality of women in employment: the research carried out revealed similar stumbling blocks in all four countries both at recruitment level and as regards mobility of labour and integration into the job hierarchy.

Women in the banking sector are currently at a crossroads as far as their future is concerned. In the one direction, there are changes in employment as a result of economic and technical factors. This is a matter of coming to grips with such developments as the slowing-down of growth in the banking sector and the social consequences of automation and computerization; in all probability there will be more jobs for qualified specialists and fewer jobs of an administrative kind. There will also be more jobs for the less well qualified and the 'typical image' of the banker and his career will no doubt change. Women must not be excluded from the training which the introduction of new technology entails. In the other direction, there are developments in the field of equal opportunities, resulting from positive action. Future developments will depend largely on a combination of efforts on three levels: action on the part of public bodies (both national and European Community), mobilization of those concerned in the social field and propaganda aimed at those who are responsible for personnel management in the business sector.

Women and job desegregation in banks: situation, roles and changes

(Research carried out by Monique Chalude)

Is there respect for the principle of equality between men and women

¹ Directives 75/117/EEC, 76/207/EEC and 79/7/EEC.

who work in business organizations?

If not, how can changes be brought about?

What kind of obstacles do women encounter on the road to promotion and how can they be overcome?

What campaigns should be organized?

These are some of the questions tackled in this study, which describes and analyses the first piece of research carried out on equality between men and women in a Belgian bank by researchers from the Free University of Brussels. They chose to adopt a dynamic approach, geared to encouraging change, and not to write a purely theoretical report. The crucial thing was therefore to organize campaigns to further desegregation of jobs and to secure the kind of personnel management which takes into account social changes and a better use of the available talents and abilities.

The initial phase of the study was to identify the obstacles impeding the promotion of women, the objective then being to make banks aware of equal opportunities and to encourage them to initiate plans of action with this end in view.

The author pointed out that even if a bank did not knowingly practise discrimination as such, it nevertheless perpetuated the segregation of roles and the lack of promotion opportunities for women by its personnel management methods and the prevalent stereotyping. The organization of the bank studied reflected the social image of men and women

as found in the cultural models of our society.

It is, of course, true that the organization of the banking sector was set up at a time when women were excluded from the business world. Women have been increasingly allowed to take on jobs for economic reasons, but jobs of secondary importance, and they still meet resistance when they try to assume posts of responsibility (see tables). The special characteristics of the banking sector, where the male has always been seen as the point of reference, have therefore militated against opportunities for change and have encouraged resistance to change.

Because of the defence mechanisms which it triggers off in the individual and because it inevitably calls into question masculine privileges, the idea of equal opportunities arouses a great deal of resistance and is emotionally 'charged'. It cannot therefore be treated as if it were just another aspect of personnel management.

This is what has emerged from the report of the research proper and the reactions of the different people involved – senior management, middle management, and clerks, both male and female.

In the absence of any effective external pressures (legislation, social movements) or internal pressures (trade unions, women's groups), the powers that be do not see any need to change the situation.

However, the argument of profitability and a better use of women's potential may spark off a process of change.

Before this can happen, there must above all be a greater awareness, leading to a change in attitudes. Through interviews, questionnaires, periods spent in departments and the various stages of research, as well as through the team of researchers who were enthusiastic about their subject, thought processes were set in motion and individual people made more aware. This is the primary requirement which makes it possible to avoid setting up barriers in the future and to remove those which still exist. The change is therefore basically in attitudes.

The research showed that change is possible, but it also highlighted the difficulties inherent in achieving it, given the organizational system in banks and its constraints.

That is the whole problem with any overall strategy to initiate positive action in favour of women.

By way of example, three tables are shown here, illustrating the current situation of women in the line management of a bank at the end of the 1970s.

The obvious differences between the standard of education of men and women on the one hand and seniority in terms of years of service on the other hand cannot in themselves explain why there are so few women in top jobs. It is precisely these two criteria which are often used to justify this state of affairs.

That is why a new 'look' is necessary to understand and to be able to take action with a view to achieving equality and maximizing potential.

Table 1

Line management pyramid*(in percentages as at 31. 12. 1979)*

Women		Men	
Senior management		RD	0.2 Representative of Board of Directors
		GM	0.2 General Manager
		DM	0.3 Deputy General Manager
	0.04	AM	0.8 Assistant General Manager
	0.01	CSE	0.8 Chief senior executive
		SE	2 Senior executive
Managers	0.1	CDM	2.4 Chief Departmental Manager
	0.4	DM	3.9 Departmental Manager
	1	DDM	6.2 Deputy Departmental Manager
	2.4	OM	11.9 Office Manager
	7.7	AOM	16.6 Assistant Office Manager
Other staff	68.3	4	43.5 highly qualified clerks
	18.1	3	3.4 qualified clerks
	1.3	2	1.1 clerks
	0.2	1	0.5 auxiliary staff
	Total – 100		Total – 100

Table 2

Years of service

	Men	Women
less than 5 years	12.6 %	18.6 %
from 5 to 9 years	22.3 %	25.6 %
from 10 to 14 years	21.3 %	25.5 %
from 15 to 19 years	16.8 %	19.5 %
from 20 to 24 years	9.3 %	6.1 %
from 25 to 29 years	6.2 %	2.2 %
from 30 to 34 years	10.4 %	2.2 %
from 35 to 39 years	0.5 %	0.3 %
from 40 to 44 years	0.5 %	0.03 %
from 45 to 49 years	0.06 %	–
over 50 years	0 %	–

Table 3:
Level of education at time of recruitment according to date of entry to banking service

Education/Entry bank	Pre-1963		1963-69		1970-80	
	M	W	M	W	M	W
Primary/technical	4	5	4	0	2.5	1.8
Secondary years 1-3	15	30	19	14	5	5.6
Lower level technical	4	20	7	25	2.5	12.2
Secondary years 4-6	37	15	44	32	58.9	39.6
Higher level technical	15	10	7	11	0	3.7
University	19	5	11	7	25.6	20.7
Other	7	15	7	11	5	15.1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

New courses and careers for courageous women

by Jackie Horne

The following article describes the experiences of an organization which received assistance from the European Social Fund. As a financial instrument of the European Community the Fund should promote employment and the geographical and occupational mobility of workers within the Community.

Thus it finances vocational training programmes, employment promotion programmes and the relocation of workers and their families.

The project concerned about 40 women between the ages of 25 and 45. The contribution from the ESF over a period of just under a year was UKL 70 000 – half the total cost of the project. The project ended in mid-1982, and the organization will apply for assistance later for a follow-up project.

Jackie Horne is a Senior Lecturer in Social Sciences at Chelmer Institute of Higher Education in Chelmsford, Essex. This year she recruited 60 women for full-time courses in subjects where women are under-represented.

Every other day, when the phone on my desk goes, a woman's tentative voice says, 'I believe you run some kind of courses specially for women . . . Could you tell me about them please?' They have read a brief reference in *The Guardian*, *The Times*, a local paper or got wind of them from the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) or third hand. Quite a few colleges in Britain run these courses now and this article will, hopefully, supply more information and answer some questions. Why do they exist in the first place? What is the course content? What kind of women go on them and how do they cope (or not) once they are launched?

Why do such courses exist?

The money comes from the European Social Fund and is a very modest bit of positive discrimination to offset decades of disadvantage in certain careers from which girls/women have been effectively 'screened out'. As early as 13–14 years of age girls are encouraged to drop the science subjects for 'O' level – and science is a must for most later training. Girls who leave school at 16 are not welcome as craft apprentices and are usually 'conditioned' to enter the service industries. When girls do go on to 'A' level, the chances are that they will drop maths as well as science. One way or another by the time they leave school, girls do not have the kind of academic background – let alone social motivation – to enter into training for, say, building skills or engineering. They could apply for trainee management, but most are guided into its service counterpart – the secretarial section.

A highly active women's pressure group in Europe secured a small allocation from the European Social Fund to train mature women (over 25) in those career areas where they are 'under-represented'.

That word is the key, the *raison d'être* of all these Euro-funded

courses and explains the limitations of the range on offer. Chelmer Institute of Higher Education was awarded UKL 100 000 to retrain 60 women in craft skills, surveying, micro-processing and computer technology, accountancy and management. Norwich runs a foundation course in engineering. Women in these career areas number between 3–15% of the whole workforce. This is the justification for the 'positive discrimination'. The courses are free and the women receive a grant of around UKL 25 a week.

What is the course content?

Each course starts with a three-week Induction Block. During the first week all 60 women are introduced to all of the five courses on offer, though all have already made a provisional first choice. They also have talks by the Careers Officer, the Students' Union, the Sports Department, as well as a few study skills library lectures and 'getting to know each other' encounter-type sessions. These are excellent ice-breakers.

The second week of the Induction Block is given entirely over to a revision week in basic mathematics. This is essential as there is a maths base in most of the courses and women are notoriously lacking in confidence in numeracy skills.

In the morning they are taken through one basic area of mathematics and in the afternoon they split up into groups of mathematical ability. Students who have acquired a recent 'O' or 'A' level in mathematics are encouraged to help out their less able colleagues. In fact, the principle of group help is very strongly promoted from the first day.

The third week is a partial introduction to the first option choice followed by assessment of the rightness of this choice. On Friday of week three they have the chance to change course. The Induction Block is itself assessed by the students and suggestions are accepted for future

improvements. For instance, the maths week was introduced by student demand two years ago and this year's students have suggested that the general introduction week and the maths week should be time-tabled half and half throughout that fortnight as solid maths for a week is too gruelling! Once the final choice is made on the Friday of the third week, the students are ready to launch into their chosen full-time option. Briefly, the academic and practical content of individual courses is as follows:

Foundation course in surveying

Statistics
Use and development of land
Construction technology
Law
Planning
Information services
Land surveying
Surveying
Economics
Building management
Computing
Valuation
Measurement

Foundation course in micro-processing and computing

Programming principles
Mathematics
Computing and micro-programming systems
Business organization
Commercial application studies
Principles of physical science
Communications

Foundation course in management

Principles of management
Organizational behaviour and development
Decision-making and problem-solving
Manpower planning
Work analysis
Staff development
Industrial relations
Law and industrial psychology

Communications
Health and safety
Finance
Statistics for managers
One-week placement in local firm or industry

Foundation course in business studies

(with special reference to accountancy)

Accounting principles
Accounting for companies
Planning
Coordinating and controlling
Data processing
Economics
Supply and demand on the market
Monetary systems
Management and the economy
International trade
Economic growth
Costing
Law
English legal system
Administration
Law of contract and tort
Statistics and quantitative methods
Communications
Computer appreciation

Foundation course in building practice

Brickwork
Carpentry and joinery
Painting and decorating
Colour and design
Drawing office practice
Construction
Services and finishes
Decorative painting
Science and materials

Counselling tutorials with the students individually and careers seminars run weekly throughout the year with outside speakers from local major employers together with visitors from other colleges in the county, who tell the students what other courses are on offer which they may be able to bridge onto.

They are taught how to prepare job applications, a curriculum vitae

and take part in video-recorded interview simulations. Confidence building is also an integral part of the tutorials careers seminar.

All students are taught from an assumption of rock-bottom knowledge, but 30 weeks of 9 am – 3 pm tuition takes them a very long way ahead. The confident vital women who leave the course are scarcely recognizable as the group who started in fear and trembling (often literally) – a mass of self-doubts, anxieties, guilt complexes and apprehension.

What kind of women go on the courses

A few have no CSE or 'O' levels at all. One or two have defunct degrees, but most lie academically between the two extremes. The one factor I am looking for in selecting students is mustard-keen motivation. They also need a gritty determination to help them heave over the hurdles – mental fatigue, physical and psychological stress and even social harassment by relatives, friends and neighbours! Some of the women are single parents, highly motivated and likely to stay the course and so not 'waste the place'. Other students have husbands who are unemployed or in low-paid jobs; further economic desperation has been the spur. Quite a few are intelligent, bored women with a healthy sprinkling of 'O' and 'A' levels. They form the strong academic core – but some of them will 'drop out' either because they are reluctant to take the strains and stresses which their new student role imposes on their domestic life-style, or they are simply not prepared to work so hard after years of cushioning in the home.

Husbands...? The majority are very supportive and will even help out with the dreaded maths homework as well as the housework. A few unlucky students do have husbands who resent or feel threatened by either the new re-



vitalized woman their wife has become, or by the course, the study itself. They may feel excluded or even inadequate if they have no academic background themselves. This causes considerable stress. As well as coping with the course the students can be made to feel guilty every time they open a book or shut themselves off to write an assignment.

How do they cope?

Academically they all cope where home circumstances are reasonable. One of my earlier single parents who has six children and not an 'O' level to her name, is now well into the second year of a four-year honours degree! The women learn to cope with multiple stress – how and when to shop, how to field criticisms from jealous friends and critical neighbours; when and where to study at home on top of domestic commitments. They each find their own and varied solutions. For many the alternative stress of going back to the boredom of domestic bliss is worse!

Counselling and careers guidance are built into the course. We even introduce a bit of mild 'reprogramming' to help them overcome

their guilt feelings; to show them how to organize their day more efficiently and study more effectively. A big plus is that small children adapt quickly to new routines and older children are impressed by this new image of an industrious Mum swotting over her books... and you know what they say about learning by example? Well it seems to work in quite a few cases. With gentle but firm insistence, the children learn to respect mother's study periods. The family all have to take on a bit more of the housework but this makes them less selfish and the women find they are not taken for granted so much.

Of course, there are the few macho men who are unhelpful, even destructive. For these women the course is even more of an endurance feat. This is where group support from fellow students comes into play. Able students are encouraged to help those who are struggling. Strong and well-balanced women can be supportive to those going through a bad patch. But the sense of achievement, the stimulation and the fun the women get in overcoming one by one their various problems, is a source of deep satisfaction.

Why drop out?

I've mentioned the few who lack sufficient motivation to take the brain strain. But others sometimes have no option. A domestic crisis will develop – usually involving severe illness within the family – and with the best will in the world, the student cannot continue. Occasionally, a student may find a job – probably of the old mindless type she was doing before she had children – and the economic need of the family is such that she feels bound to give up the course and take it. Of course, the women find it a struggle. Mental effort creates greater stress and demands more willpower than physical effort. But the gain in terms of self-fulfilment is enormous. However, this brings us nastily up against a question which does not have an easy answer.

Do the women find it easy to get a job afterwards?

The honest answer must be 'no'. They have to struggle, apply, re-apply, and persevere just like men (only more so) in this recession-riven world.

A few do find jobs quickly; others have to wait months. Quite a lot of women who have completed these Foundation Courses use it as a bridge into higher-level courses – higher national diplomas, degree or certificate courses. About 30% are forced by necessity or choice back to the comfort of the kitchen, and even find a new happiness in the home... Oh well, you can't win 'em all!

No student who has managed to complete the year and taken the internal (and in some cases national) examinations, seems to regret going on the course. They benefit intellectually, psychologically and socially. As one of my budding brickies said to a woman who was anxiously wondering whether to go on next year's intake – 'Do it... just go ahead and DO IT!'

Jackie Horne

New information technology, data protection and social control in the undertaking

The problem

The public has reacted in conflicting ways to the use of new information technology, particularly the possibility of collecting detailed information on individuals in centralized systems. There is the optimistic view that operations requiring a great expenditure of time and energy will be done simply by pressing a key in the future; on the other hand, it is feared that all the information collected and processed will be used for non-institutional purposes and will restrict individual liberty and the right to confidentiality.

Often the second view prevails: the collective imagination, stimulated by various news items – often inaccurate – and ignorant of the technical details of how data-processing systems work, pictures a situation in which the public authorities or firms or anyone in charge of a data centre freely perpetrate every possible abuse in respect of those to whom the information refers.

But what is the real problem? Now that data centres have for some time been operating in firms and among other things have been used to control production, what practical problems were encountered and what were the reactions to them? If the problem is not so much a question of technology as one of control by society over the use of information, what legislative measures could ensure democratic control and what are the immediately apparent lacunae in this area?

To seek an initial – even if partial – response to these questions, the Commission has had a study¹ prepared which analyses the problem at industry level and is based on experiences under way in Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany and the United Kingdom. It deals with protection and control of the use of information at firm level only: on the one hand it refers to control

of production and productivity of workers employed in the firm, and on the other to the use the firm could make of individual data on its employees collected for various reasons. The more general question of personal data on citizens collected by various public and private bodies and the question of control by society in the broad sense is not tackled in the study. This would call for the examination of much broader political and social aspects outside the immediate objective of the study, which is to provide indications on possible forms of intervention in the labour law and industrial relations fields.

The study is therefore necessarily limited to a few countries and firms: given the lack of specific studies on the subject, the research has in some cases necessitated an on-the-spot analysis of individual firms, which for obvious reasons constitute a limited sample.

The present situation

A data-processing system to monitor production was put into limited effect in the 1960s, and was not widely used in large or small holdings until the late 1970s. Therefore, the findings only relate to the initial consequences and are not based on observation of all phases of development and application over a sufficiently long period of time. As was to be expected, data-processing systems were more often applied in large than in small firms, the latter tending to make use of a service company. Less obvious are the motives for introducing such systems: supervision and modernization of operations are more important than the concern to increase productivity, which is however very often an immediate consequence of modernization. Although the desire to improve the quality of the product or service and working conditions is present, it is far less frequently encountered. The scant attention paid hitherto to conditions governing the use of new

technology and the operators' requirements has been one of the reasons for the negative impact of new technology on working conditions. Effects on employment levels have concerned to a limited extent workers in employment, since as a rule production increases have been obtained without a parallel increase in employment levels. The chief consequences of introducing new technology have been to make the work more standardized and more formalized while altering the distribution of specialized skills.

The first two aspects are of direct concern here: working in conjunction with a computer on a real-time basis means that the content of individual operations is more precisely and rigidly predetermined and operating procedures can be checked immediately, which significantly reduces the autonomy of individual workers as regards working methods and time spent on each operation. This does not only apply to manual workers but is true in the case of middle managers who feel that their autonomy and discretion are significantly reduced. Increased supervision can have negative effects in a firm for it tends to encourage workers to conform rigidly to what is required rather than exercise their initiative or seek to improve their services, and to concentrate in particular on tasks that are immediately quantifiable and neglect other aspects of their work not subject to immediate control. English case studies show that a great deal depends on how the computerized system is introduced, and on the preparation and involvement of the staff when working methods

¹ Europäisches Institut für Industrie-Planer e.V., 'New information technology, data protection and social control in firms', Frankfurt/Main, July 1983. A summary report is available in French, English and German. National reports are available in German (Federal Republic of Germany) and English (Denmark and United Kingdom). This study is being published as 'Document' by the Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

are changed. Where changes are introduced in a climate of harmonious industrial relations and the management takes care to inform and train the staff concerned, workers feel involved in the change and tend to appreciate the positive and innovative aspects, such as the elimination of repetitive tasks; with a better understanding of the process their self-image is enhanced by the fact of working with new technology. Supervision of their services is not perceived as a threat if the workers are satisfied that the data culled will not be used to check individual productivity, or will be used in their own interests to effect an objective measurement of group productivity (for example, to determine piece rates). On the other hand, in firms or particular divisions where industrial relations are tense and where new systems are introduced without preparation or concertation, workers perceive the change as an attempt to speed up the pace of work, impair working conditions and reduce their control over their work. This engenders disputes and types of behaviour designed to neutralize the system.

These findings lead the authors to the following conclusions: control of individual productivity is not generally the primary objective of new systems but if it is introduced without prior information of workers, in practice this leads to negative reactions and disputes. If relations between management and unions are good, if workers are in-

formed of the scope and purpose of the system and associated with its installation, and if necessary changes are made in the work organization, it is likely that changes can be effected without undue friction.

Problems concerning the confidentiality of personal information vary from one country to another. Collection of personal information is particularly extensive in the Federal Republic of Germany where a series of rules, besides the requirements of various bodies, oblige firms to store a broad range of information on every worker in a centralized memory bank. In Denmark, similar procedures have caused concern among those directly affected and the trade unions; in the United Kingdom such systems have not yet been developed. The existence of computerized archives of workers' personal data clearly offers an outstanding potential for abuse: information that was formerly collected at firm level but in a diffuse and unsystematic way can be easily accumulated, collated and rapidly retrieved for legitimate ends or otherwise. Even excluding possible abuses, the fact remains that the individual's right to privacy is jeopardized; for any purpose concerning work or advancement the firm has access to employees' complete personal history, including private information that the individual might not wish to be known and/or used.

Means of action

The problem of control over the use of data has been tackled in all countries through legislation. In the absence of specific provisions regarding the introduction of new technology in firms, in the Federal Republic of Germany all facilities used to control workers' behaviour and productivity are subject to joint control procedures. The input of personal data is restricted to that relevant to the employment relationship. In Denmark, the law requires that any change in working conditions be subject to joint decision-making. On the other hand, no express provision is made regarding information technology and this lack is only partly offset by technology agreements between the two sides of industry. In the United Kingdom, the introduction of new technology is regulated by agreements between the two sides of industry which, however, cover only a small part of the labour force, while problems concerning privacy and data control are the subject of draft legislation which is still only in the proposal stage. Generally, there is a need for more specific provisions and common rules, to be established by statutory and collectively agreed measures to govern the introduction of new technology and the use of information within firms. The latter aspect could form part of more general legislation concerning the problem of individual data protection in society.

Anna Silvia Piergrossi

In memory of . . . machines or The role of technology in education and its control by society

Now let's just try to remember: it was not so long ago – in the 1960s – that the supporters of programmed education, the teaching machine fans, the zealots preaching computer-assisted education were revealing to the world a major pedagogical revolution: adding loops here and jumps there, calling Skinner and Crowder to the rescue, surrounded by the din of teletype machines and the first stammerings of the 'light pens' – efficiency, rationality, flexibility, accuracy all made their grand entry into the obscure world of schools . . . Admittedly, this was not virgin territory: is there anyone who cannot remember the end of the 1950s and the revolutionary, audio-visual role that was prophesied for educational television, with precious support in the shape of 'closed circuits'? . . . And let us add to that list, higgledy-piggledy: video recorders and video discs – which go together, of course – satellites, cable and, monarch of all it surveys, the microcomputer with its retinue of discs and printers.

Is there then nothing new under the sun? An ever so slightly sceptical – not to say caustic – mind would be tempted to say, paraphrasing a famous author, that classrooms (or, to be more exact, cellars and cupboards) are crumbling beneath the weight of teaching aids which were once thought to be absolutely essential; that this long line of machinery is, at best, evidence of a fashion offering a profitable outlet to the industry (and the experts!); that, when it all boils down to it, there is nothing to equal direct contact between teacher and pupil, where the one who knows and the one who wishes to learn hold a dialogue and make discoveries together . . . In that, at least, this sceptical mind would join kindred spirits who are disheartened, bitter and disappointed – in short, all those propagators of the (technological) faith who came up against and failed to overcome the 'obstacles' of the 'system', i.e. the inertia, bureaucracy

and suspicion of the decision-makers who, sitting behind their desks, were mainly intent on resisting change.

But enough of recriminations; the period 1950–70 was not only one of obstacles, disenchantments and wild enthusiasms, it was also an era of 'plans', 'concerted actions' and 'national programmes', which aimed – in five or 10 years' time – to take up and win the challenge of introducing technology into education.

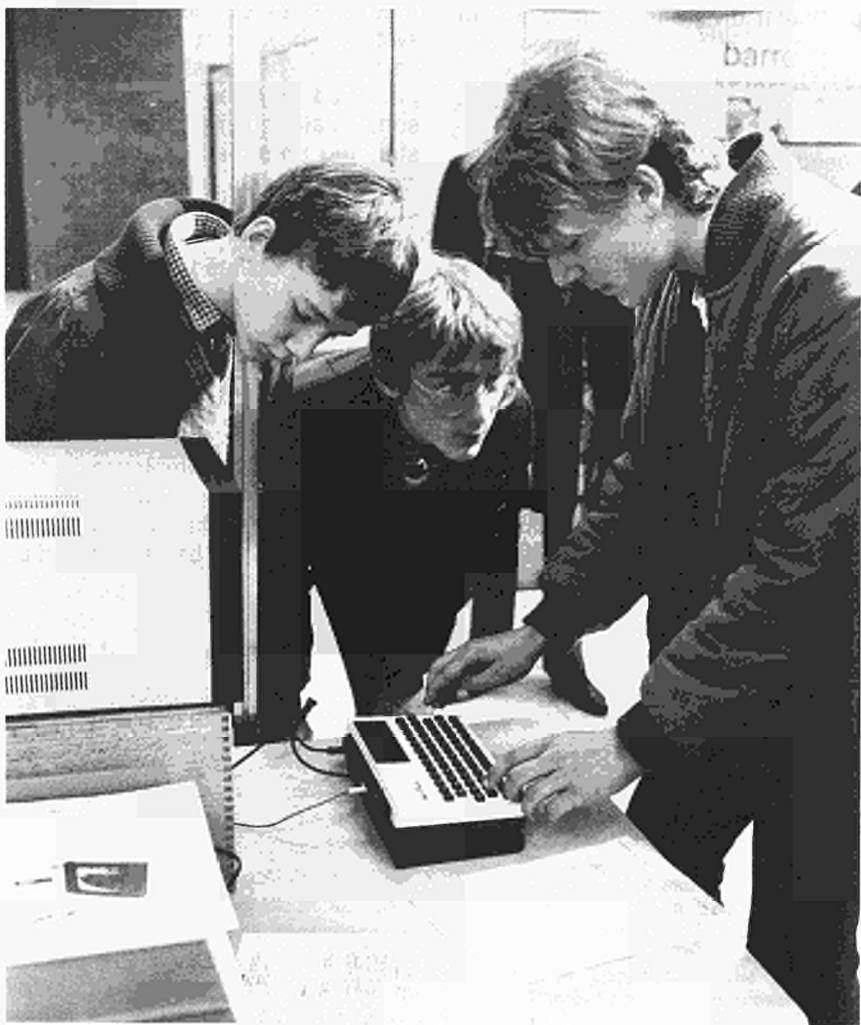
But there we are! The transplant – for that is, in fact, what it was – did not take . . . Of course, now and again pilot schemes or experiments

were set up and, with varying degrees of success, some of them have survived. On the whole, though, the idea was a failure and the 'teaching machines' have gone to gather dust in the storerooms.

And then, one day, the 'ship' appeared and with it miniaturization, flexibility, off-line systems – in short, data processing and teleprocessing finally made their grand entrance into the world of education (along, it must be emphasized, with the development of home computers).

In the memory of . . . machines, such a thing, quite unsurprisingly, had never happened before. The microcomputer is now a part of our

Photo: Guyaux; Bruxelles



environment, first of all at work and, in the very short term, at home. Children know this perfectly well, of course, and they eagerly throng around exhibitions and demonstrations organized in large stores. For them, there is nothing magic about it all, there is no problem – quite the contrary – about accepting a 'floppy disc' or a 'light pen' between 'Star Wars' and the latest Atari cassette.

Furthermore, there is now no country which does not emphasize, quite rightly, the major role played by these new technologies, and the importance of training the young to use a tool and a language which are all the more essential in that they hold the key to new economic growth.

However, the purpose of this article is not to justify the importance of educating and training people to use the new information technologies. Over and above this need, which has, to a large extent, already been recognized, and remembering those earlier ventures which came to nothing, another question has been raised, which we think is just as important: to what extent does the environment (social, economic, cultural, etc.) leave its mark on the development of such-and-such a technology? To put the case more directly: seeing that cars, which first of all travelled along roughly paved roads, in the end required such improvements as motorways and expressways and, furthermore, a whole socio-technological apparatus including the supply of petrol to service stations, the services of garages, road safety organizations, etc., are we not justified in wondering if, sooner or later, micro-computers in education will not require a completely different kind of pedagogical organization? Why not, in fact, 'express classes'?

If we allow ourselves a flight of fancy – nothing too extreme of course – we can visualize a school that is 'computerized' – like society itself – with its batteries of micro-computers, its data banks – both *in*

situ and remote – its videotex, its carousels of video recorders and video discs, films, simulators and, last but not least ... its pupils! School is no longer a rigidly compartmentalized structure, softened to some extent by common areas – but a collection of 'activity areas' for general use or otherwise, where self-service predominates (for example in terms of access to educational resources) along with 'production workshops' (video/micro/teleproduction and also, of course, anything to do with 'artistic activities') ... And let us take it a step further: people are now talking about 'work from home', leasing, sub-contracting: why not imagine, in the same vein, a completely different structuring of school time and space, which would be all the more flexible, decentralized and individualized since it would rely on the new technologies – for education as much as for management.

It might be said that we are letting our imaginations run away with us, that the master's voice(!) alone can really guide a pupil, that all these aids, instruments, switches and lights are at best only a back-up system, that, in short, we must not confuse the end with the means! No doubt – but that is not the problem, nor is the problem the pseudo-debate on the pedagogical value of one or other system of memories, screens and consoles. The real problem, as we see it, which is too often side-stepped, is that of the impact of these new technologies on socio-cultural training structures, at school and elsewhere. What does that mean? We should like to suggest that the increasing use of the new technologies and of the equipment and everything else which goes with them, 'upstream' and 'downstream', in schools and throughout the whole social sphere (industry, leisure-time activities, non-commercial activities, etc.) entails a radical change in the way pupils relate to their environment. We should also like to point out that

this change, branded with the seal of the new technologies, with their greater emphasis on formalization and symbolization, is part and parcel of the search for efficiency and order (ah! those lovely flow charts!). Finally, it should be added that chance and uncertainty have virtually been eliminated to the benefit of accuracy ('wrong statement') and logic and that contestation (individual or group, with fellow students or with the teacher) has given way to a rational, explanatory presentation of facts ... in other words, lurking behind the, admittedly, vital mastery of these aids, there is also something which could be or become subjugation to a socio-technical system which is incapable of controlling its own technological development.

This means that, even at the education and training level, if society is to keep control of the new information technologies it will not be enough merely to acquire skills in such and such a language, operation or procedure, nor to study the advantages and disadvantages of data processing!

Because the harmful effects of these technologies are much more widespread now; because these effects come about not merely because of ignorance or lack of technical knowledge but rather because, to a certain extent, our society and culture approve their use; because they call into play quasi-magical systems of individual or collective representation and also, in a very concrete way, power mechanisms – in terms of knowledge of access and control – it is important that the focal point of this training should be the relevant changes in roles and social relationships which are involved, in any given milieu – in this case school, not only as an institution but also as the socio-technical whole to which we referred above. In other words, to paraphrase (again) another famous author; technology ... directions for use required, please.

André Kirchberger

Disability and employment – an overview

Study done by Dr Mary Croxen

This study report was recently prepared by Dr Croxen, a social psychologist of the Open University in the United Kingdom, as a contribution to the Commission's currently intensive work on the employment of disabled people. The wide range of themes covered, the skill with which they are handled and assembled, and the freshness of the approach have won for the study an exceptional level of positive response and it has already established itself as a landmark in the history of work in this field at Community level.

The special value of the report derives from four factors. Firstly, it contains within the refreshingly modest compass of 50 odd pages an astonishing amount of much needed information concerning policies, situations and trends in all the Member States of the Community. The reader is likely to find especially useful the tables which set out the definitions of incapacity to work and summarize the employment policies for disabled people in all the 10 countries.

Secondly, the report is greatly enriched by the manner in which Dr Croxen has set her specific theme in two wider contexts. On the one hand the employment of disabled people is not explored in detail until a general picture of the employment situation and trends has been established. Equally, when the detailed discussion of the problems of people with disabilities is engaged their employment is not treated in an isolated way but presented as one, albeit a most important, element, in the whole pattern of factors which constitute independent living.

Thirdly, the report is structured in a dynamic way so that the reader's interest is perpetually engaged and at the same time he is conscious that his understanding of the subject is being progressively developed. Having established a description of the situation in the manner indicated above, Dr Croxen explores first the

solutions to the problems which have been provided by the 'administrative model', that is from the point of view of the providers of services. From here Dr Croxen takes us a big step forward by exploring the same problems and solutions from a completely different point of view, that of the 'consumers' of services, the disabled people themselves. The nature of their reality is vividly presented by means of a diagram which is itself a striking innovation and which Dr Croxen calls the 'ideal rehabilitation route'. This presentation succeeds both as a means of stimulating fresh awareness and as a conceptual

framework to which future work can refer.

Fourthly, Dr Croxen has a point of view, a position which is forcefully expressed but firmly based on the evidence adduced. As well as stressing the essential importance of taking a rounded view of all aspects of a disabled person's life and of thinking therefore in terms of coherent packages of positive measures rather than single panaceas, Dr Croxen insists, against what is probably the commonly held view, that there is still a need to include anti-discriminatory measures within that package. The necessary

Photo: Guyaux; Bruxelles



changes of attitude away from the caring paternalism of the past have still a long way to go; participation and advocacy, including self-advocacy, must be considerably strengthened if the situation of people with disabilities is not to deteriorate rather than get better.

Dr Croxen's report is one of a number of studies which the Com-

mission is undertaking over a short period in order to establish the basis for the policy initiative of the employment of the disabled which will be undertaken in 1984. Other reports look at the problem from statistical, ergonomic, juridical and sociological viewpoints; the Community network of rehabilitation centres is making its contribution and the Commission is inviting the

leading international and European non-governmental organizations in this field to send in data and opinions also. Of all these elements, Dr Croxen's report is certainly one of the most important. It is not a comfortable report, but neither does it exaggerate the problems. What reports sometimes fail to do utterly it does most powerfully – it raises the level of our understanding.

Patrick Daunt

The new technologies – Educating and training the handicapped

Summary of a study

Two recent Council resolutions, one on the social integration of handicapped persons (December 1981) and the other on measures relating to the introduction of the new information technologies in education (June 1983), can be regarded as a very clear statement that the new information technologies – which are also communication technologies – can be useful in the education and training of the handicapped and thus contribute to their integration into society.

This necessitated, first of all, a preliminary analysis and stock-taking of the various approaches and experiments already under way: that was the objective of a study begun at the end of 1981 on behalf of the Commission by a group of Danish research workers ('Teaching and training the handicapped through the new information technology'). Its most important conclusions may be presented briefly, using the typical examples as illustrations:

□ A little 11-year-old girl – let's call her Anne – goes to school in Manchester, in the North of England; her motor functions are totally paralysed: she is unable to walk, move her arms or even use her head muscles – in short, she cannot communicate – the only thing she can do is blink; and that is all she needs to do to work a special switch which in turn is connected to a microcomputer with a television screen on which letters and figures appear. By blinking, Anne can also move a cursor in different directions: by stopping it beneath a certain letter and giving the necessary instructions – still using her switch – she can make up words or even sentences which will be read, pronounced and printed out by 'the machine'!

□ Let us also look at the case of Berndt – a little 8-year-old boy in Aarhus in Denmark – who is dumb and physically disabled. He cannot handle or manipulate the objects around him and he spends most of his time sitting, immobile, on a chair. All he can do is move his hands, clumsily. He has, however, learnt the Bliss language – i.e. an organized and structured set of symbols (about 1 400) each of which corresponds to a given concept. In short, Berndt can communicate with the people around him, even if he cannot do anything with them:

Berndt now has a little robot. A very simple lever enables him to move the robot over a sheet of cardboard, to raise it and lower and thus draw more or less complex figures depending on the kind and length of instructions which he is able to make up – houses, cars, triangles, etc.

□ One final example is that of the Institute for Deaf Children in Paris – where the children, despite their severe handicaps, can learn to speak a foreign language by using a microcomputer which transmits back to them the image of their own voice on a television screen.

Michel, 11 years old, talks into a microphone and, lo and behold, a camel(!) appears on the screen, moving across a landscape covered with palm trees. The more correct Michel's pronunciation the fewer palm trees will be in the camel's way... Another programme gives a graphic representation of words: the teacher talks into a microphone and on the screen the child 'sees' the word in the form of a graph whose curve and thickness change – the deaf child then has to 'pronounce' a graph identical to that drawn by the teacher.

Numerous examples could be given – of the blind Open University students in the United Kingdom who take a course where the books are read by a computer, of those autistic children for whom the ability to use a machine is a first step towards communication with other human beings, etc.

That is the purpose of this study, to give a first stock-taking of the projects currently under way, showing the potential and present limitations of the new technologies. We should, however, like to stress that we refer only to the present limitations since technological developments are rapid and very promising in this sphere.

The study finishes with a number of recommendations on the use of the new technologies in the education of handicapped children. On a national level, emphasis is also laid on the importance of making teachers familiar with the new techniques, setting up information and resource and even developing methods which can be used for the technical inspection of equipment with a view to making it easier for educational establishments to acquire it. Similarly, at Community level, the authors of this study recommend that an active 'observatory' be created – i.e. with responsibility not only for observing developments which are under way but also for coordinating and encouraging experiments in this field – or even contributing to the setting-up of a European information network.

It is, of course, still too soon to give any concrete or precise details on the direction which Community policies will take in this field. However, this study is the first stage of an undertaking which deserves our support.

André Kirchberger

Part Three

Employment policies in the Member States

Overall measures

FR of Germany: Allowances
Italy: Investment and Employment Fund
Ireland: Cabinet task force
The Netherlands: 1984 policy reflections
The Netherlands: Non-collective bargains

Aid to the unemployed

Belgium: Household helps
France: Unemployment compensation
FR of Germany: Unemployment compensation
The Netherlands: Odd jobs

Training

Belgium: School-leaving age
Belgium: Industrial apprenticeships
FR of Germany: Subsistence allowances
Italy: Training contracts
United Kingdom: Open Tech
United Kingdom: TVEI

Job creation

Belgium: Loans to the unemployed
Ireland: Small businesses committee
The Netherlands: Unemployed graduates

Special categories of workers

France: Employment-training contracts
FR of Germany: Youth unemployment (overview)
Ireland: Young scientists scheme
The Netherlands: School-leavers campaign
United Kingdom: Armed forces
United Kingdom: Young workers scheme

Working time

Belgium: Hospitals
Luxembourg: Invalidity allowance (ASI)

Placement

FR of Germany: Adaptation subsidies
Italy: Nominative and numerical placement

In response to the desire expressed by Member States' delegations meeting within the Council for mutual information on developments in national employment policies, the Commission suggested setting up a mutual information system known as MISEP. The system works on the basis of contributions from the national correspondents in public administrations or bodies who are listed below, and from a representative of the Commission. It enables the authorities directly concerned in a given Member State to be informed, every three months, of changes and actions that have taken place in the employment policies of other Member States.

Each issue of *Social Europe* gives a selection of the information exchanged via MISEP. The Commission cannot be held liable for the use made of such information which is derived from official national sources. It is provided on a regular basis in a shortened form to inform the reader of developments in various aspects of national employment policies.

The MISEP correspondents are:

FR of Germany

Magda Kugler-Dabrowski, Bundesministerium für Arbeit und Sozialordnung
Lutz Vogt, Bundesanstalt für Arbeit

Belgium

Alfons Verlinden, Ministère de l'emploi et du travail

Denmark

Søren Hess, Arbejdministeriet

France

Denise Annandale, Agence nationale pour l'emploi
Claire Aubin, Ministère de l'emploi

Greece

Evangelia Hadzianioniou, Ypourgion Ergasias
Angelos Zizimopoulos, OAED

Ireland

Joe McLaughlin, Department of Labour

Italy

Teodosio Zeuli, Ministero del Lavoro e della Previdenza Sociale

Luxembourg

Jean Hoffmann, Administration de l'emploi

The Netherlands

Chris Smolders, Ministerie van Sociale Zaken en Werkgelegenheid

United Kingdom

Ron Sirell, Department of Employment

European Commission

Axel Bunz, DG V/A/1
Andrew Chapman, DG V/A/1

Developments at a glance

Belgium

The latest Royal Decree applying to unemployed workers within the 'third work circuit' was published in June dealing with household helps. A law recently passed by parliament aims at enabling 'marginalized' young persons to take up industrial apprenticeship contracts. Compulsory schooling is being prolonged by a June law from 14 to 18 years of age, particularly to enable early school-leavers to continue part-time education. A law was passed in July to give loans to

the totally unemployed to set up on their own. To stymie a rise of unemployment in hospitals, a government premium is given to those which have more than 10% part-time staff.

France

The government is ending the 'income guarantee' for the unemployed who can receive their old-age pension at 60 years of age. In addition to the 'employment training' contract as such, two decrees of May have brought in 'employment-adaptation' and 'employment-guidance' contracts, which altogether should raise the number of contracts in 1983 to 200 000 from 70 000 in 1982.

FR of Germany

The government has introduced a series of measures aimed at increasing its income and decreasing its expenditure, especially to reduce the deficit of the Federal Employment Institute and unemployment assistance. Reductions are being made in the rates of unemployment benefit, short-time allowance and bad-weather allowance as well as in 'large' and 'small' subsistence allowances for training, mobility incentives and vocational rehabilitation benefits. A brief survey is made of youth unemployment and the range of measures taken to combat it.

Ireland

The government has established a cabinet task force on employment and a national planning board to bring about planned economic recovery. A select committee of both houses of parliament has been set up to examine various aspects of the small business sector and to make recommendations on 11 matters. A review is made of the achievements of the Youth Employment Agency during its first year of operation and its main activities for the current year. The young scientists and technologists employment scheme, introduced on a pilot basis in October 1982, has been extended to January 1984.

Italy

Law No 130 provides the Investment and Employment Fund with 7 820 000 million lire in 1983, to be spread over eight specified areas of activity. Statistics are now available on the impact of the January joint agreement and subsequent Law No 79 relating to time contracts for young people to training within companies and 'nominative' and 'numerical' employment.

Luxembourg

A special invalidity allowance for steelworkers at least 50 years of age and occupationally incapacitated

was brought in with the 1983 State budget as a means of reducing the active labour force.

The Netherlands

The main lines of the government's 1984 policy for enhancing employment and fighting unemployment are now emerging. HFL 600 million is being earmarked for training, placement and job-creation schemes. The government has decided on the income and working conditions of those not covered by collective bargains which would foster employment. It has circulated a letter to local authorities on the nature and conditions of jobs they can provide the unemployed with. The ministries of education and employment have jointly launched a pilot project providing temporary work to unemployed graduates. And a campaign has been launched aimed at school-leavers to get them to do something about work with the motto 'Ga nu al aan 't werk voor werk'.

United Kingdom

The Open Tech Programme, launched in 1982, extends distance training opportunities to adults for all types of groups according to their learning needs. The technical vocational education initiative is a test programme for 14 to 18 year olds in schooling aimed at increasing the supply of skills which are in demand on the labour market. For young unemployed persons an initiative is being developed to provide training over a one-year period in the armed services. The young workers scheme, opened in 1982, 'provides financial incentives to employers who recruit young people that properly reflect their value to the employer'. Changes were brought in in August 1983.

Overall measures

Federal Republic of Germany: Raising income and reducing benefits

The creation of jobs, which is urgently required, can only be achieved by more investments and reduced public debt. This means that the expenditure of the 1984 federal budget which would amount to approximately DM 14 100 million to cover the deficit of the Federal Employment Institute and unemployment assistance will have to be reduced.

The requisite relief of the strain on the federal budget will be achieved through improving the revenues of the Federal Institute and through reductions in benefits. The charges will be spread over contributors and drawers of benefits in accordance with the Employment Promotion Act. It has, however, to be borne in mind that contributions to unemployment insurance were increased on 1 January 1983 from 4% to 4.6%, which means that employers and employed will have to raise an additional DM 3 600 million in 1983.

Increased inclusion of *Zuwendungen* (one-off payments of remuneration) in *contributory requirements*: In principle, Christmas and holiday money are already contributory. And many do pay contributions, but only when in the month of payment they remain below the contribution assessment limit. The chance nature of the date of payment decides on very different contributory requirements. The federal government intends to bring about greater justice in this respect. For allowances such as holiday and Christmas money, what should count is no longer the monthly assessment limit for contribution but the proportionate annual assessment limit at the date of payment.

Full inclusion of *sickness benefits in contributory requirements*: The regulations of the compulsory pension insurance for including sickness benefits and similar income replacement allowances in the contributory obligation are also to be valid as regards content for the contributory obligation according to the Employment Promotion Act. The new regulation improves the unemployment insurance protection. The times of drawing the aforementioned benefits can, in the future, like times of employment, be the basis for claiming unemployment benefit. Reductions in the unemployment insurance protection because of protracted illness or taking part in a medical rehabilitation measure will thus in future be largely excluded.

Italy: Allocations to the Investment and Employment Fund

Law No 130 of 26 April 1983 provides the Investment and Employment Fund, set up in April 1982 under Law No 181 with LIT 7 820 000 million in 1983. This sum is divided for use for the following schemes:

- ☐ LIT 500 000 million for further support to the revolving fund for movable investments;
- ☐ LIT 850 000 million for the National Electric Energy Corporation;
- ☐ LIT 300 000 million for major reductions in value-added tax;
- ☐ LIT 4 190 000 million for interventions in public and private sectors of industry;
- ☐ LIT 450 000 million for interventions in the agricultural sector;
- ☐ LIT 1 300 000 million for financing infrastructural interventions either on the land or for the relevant economic interests of agriculture, too;
- ☐ LIT 30 000 million for increasing the endowment fund of the regional medium-term credit institutions of the Mezzogiorno to be divided after deliberation of the Interministerial Committee for Credit and Savings;
- ☐ LIT 200 000 million for interventions for the socio-economic development of the Calabria region.

Ireland: Establishment of a cabinet task force on employment and a national planning board

The government has set up a permanent structure for effective economic and social planning with the establishment earlier this year of a cabinet task force on employment and a national planning board. The primary objective of the task force, which is comprised of key economic ministers, is to identify measures that can be taken immediately to alleviate the unemployment situation. It is also concerned with planning the maximization of output and employment and with making recommendations to the government on the policies and actions by which this can be achieved.

Closely related to the task force is the National Planning Board, an independent body comprised of a small number of experts of high national repute in different economic and social policy areas.

The *main functions of the Planning Board*, which will report to the government through the cabinet task force, are:

- ☐ to review the potentialities and weaknesses of the productive sectors, assess their likely future contribution to output and employment on the basis of present policies, and recommend what policy changes may be needed to maximize this contribution;
- ☐ to examine and recommend the means by which public works, essential to the provision of infrastructure for productive development, might be undertaken and financed at minimum net cost to the Exchequer as compared with the cost of unemployment compensation;
- ☐ to examine measures by which the needs of social equity and of securing an efficient use of public resources can best be reconciled.

Through these activities, and any other work the Board may consider necessary for the purpose, it will prepare for the task force a draft *medium-term programme for the economy* within the framework of which short-term economic planning will proceed.

Within the framework of the National Planning Board, the existing system of sectoral committees for different areas of economic activity is being extended. This will bring together government, management, workers and farming interests in maximizing output and employment.

The primary short-term aim of the task force and the National Planning Board will be to bring about planned economic recovery based on the best advice from both sides of industry and agriculture. The results of these activities will constitute a plan for national development over a medium-term period, to be kept under continuous review.

The Netherlands: Policy considerations, 1984

Internal discussions have begun about fulfilling the 'policy by objectives' for 1984. The main lines are as follows:

Policy starting points: Plans are worked out on the level of the provinces as regards the use of the labour market instruments on the basis of what the expected labour market will be and the policy to be pursued for specific target groups both as regards the supply and the demand side of the labour market. These provincial policy plans are compared on the central level with national policy decisions.

1984 will see considerable stress put on fighting youth unemployment. In applying the schemes, an attempt will be made to have a balance between men and women as well as between Dutch nationals and foreigners. The table below provides figures for the breakdown of resources for the major schemes for the last three years.

Financial resources for manpower regulations
(million HFL)

	1981	1982	1983 ¹
Adult vocational training centres (CVV)	110.0	110.0	130.0
Careers' guidance and activities centres (CBB)	20.5	35.5	35.7
Joint government-industry training (SOB)	74.0	60.5	61.7
Tuition fees scheme for job-seekers (SKR)	12.7	15.0	15.0
Vocational qualifying education (BKE)	—	8.0	8.0
Courses for the young unemployed (CJW)	6.0	20.0	25.9
Youth vocational training (BVJ)	40.0	135.0	135.0
Short-medium vocational training (KMBO)	—	6.0	—
Relocation aid (PBM)	119.3	68.5	69.6
Employment creation scheme (WVM)	254.4	445.0	343.0
Experimental job creation for unemployed young people (EAJ)	30.0	35.0	35.0
Regional (ISP/PNL) funds	67.5	45.0	40.0
Miscellaneous	142.2	51.9	93.0
	876.6	1 035.4	991.9
of which structural schemes	207.6	210.4	391.9

¹ Situation at the beginning of 1983.

Financial starting points: For applying schemes for training (exclusively CVV, BVJ and CJW), enhancing placement and employment creation, a sum of roughly HFL 600 million is being made available in 1984. This amount is not fully spread throughout the provinces. For the moment, HFL 100 million is being centrally reserved for the purposes of

- ☐ sectoral restructuring agreements, innovative projects which bring about adjustments to the socio-economic structure;
- ☐ central joint government-industry training projects (SOB);
- ☐ experimental job-creation projects for young people (EAJ);
- ☐ special employment-creation projects for specific target groups such as minorities and graduates.

As regards the breakdown of the resources among the provinces, two aspects are noteworthy:

- ☐ for further stress on fighting unemployment in the traditional problem areas (the extreme northern and southern provinces), HFL 150 million (of the HFL 600 million) is earmarked for the four major towns and regions having an 'obvious' regional unemployment problem;
- ☐ the remaining HFL 350 million is spread over the provinces on the basis of each province's proportion in the national total of the category of unemployed persons who have been registered for more than six months.

The Netherlands: Decision on 1983 non-collective bargain incomes

The Minister for Social Affairs and Employment has made known his decision on working conditions for those incomes not covered by collective bargains in 1983. The Ministry takes the decision on the basis of the Law on Non-collective Bargain Incomes. The law seeks to ensure that the working conditions agreed to for workers covered by collective bargains are also applied to workers where there are no such bargains.

The decision is at variance with that of the previous years in that only a limited amount of working conditions have been settled. Beside this, the decision consists of a number of recommendations. The Minister hopes that through these recommendations the decision will stimulate non-collective bargaining sectors to reach agreements on dropping wage claims, with the goal of enhancing profit recovery, employment and the redistribution of work and of fighting youth unemployment.

Also for working conditions not covered by this decision, such as regulations on early retirements, savings and pensions, profit-sharing and vacation allowances, the parties are urgently requested to practise the requisite moderation.

Aid to the unemployed

Belgium: Employment of household helps within the third work circuit (TCT) – Royal Decree of 6 June 1983

The Royal Decree No 115 of 23 December 1982 brought in modifications to the Royal Decree No 25 of 24 March 1982 setting up an employment promotion programme in the nonmarket sector.

These modifications introduced:

- ☐ the possibility of making unemployed persons working within the third work circuit scheme available to third parties against payment;
- ☐ the obligation, when this happens, for the employers to pay back to the national employment office (ONEm) the amount charged to the users.

These arrangements were spelt out in the Royal Decree of 6 June 1983 as regards the employment of *household helps*. Thus can communes, public social aid centres and legal and *de facto* non-profit associations of persons (= the employers) hire household helps from among long-term fully compensated unemployed persons so as to make them available, for private purposes, to natural persons (= the users).

The household helps will be hired within the TCT scheme and hence remunerated by the State (the remuneration is equal to the starting wage given to a person employed by the State carrying out the same or a similar function).

Although the previous regulation did not forbid there being any financial contribution by the users, the main aim of the 6 June Royal Decree is to:

- ☐ lay out the limits of this payment;
- ☐ require employers to pay a great amount of it back to the State;
- ☐ clear up the undeclared charwomen market by offering individuals the possibility of hiring household helps quite legally but paying the employers a contribution round about the hourly cost of an undeclared charwoman and without having to fill in the social security formalities since these are ensured by ONEm.

As regard the amount of payment, the Ministry of Labour and Employment fixes, according to the household help employed, the amount of remuneration which the users pay to the employers. This amount is decided on taking into account the hourly remuneration usually paid to the household helps in the region in question.

A part of the payment has to be paid back by the employers to ONEm; this amount is also fixed by the Ministry of Employment and Labour taking into account the amounts paid and the expenses incurred by making household helps available to the users.

France: Unemployment compensation – Ending of 'income guarantee' for workers 60 years of age or more who are made redundant

Income guarantees were set up in 1972 for wage-earners made redundant who were 60 years of age or over and who, because of this, could not find any other job before reaching retirement age.

Being able to draw a guaranteed income was extended in 1977 through an agreement between the social partners to wage-earners over 60 years of age who resigned.

The rate of the guaranteed income, modified following the Decree of 24 November 1982 reforming the unemployment compensation system, amounted at the beginning of 1983 to 65 % of the previous wage for the amount below the social security ceiling and 50 % for the amount exceeding this ceiling.

The cost of the income guarantee for the UNEDIC budget has been estimated at nearly FF 29 000 million in 1983.

The reduction of the retirement age to 60 years by the Order of 26 March 1982 meant that the income guarantee could no longer be justified since it was, at the outset, conceived of as an early retirement for workers made redundant at a time when the retirement pension could only be had at the full rate at the age of 65 years.

The 5 July 1983 Order draws the consequences of this reform by clarifying the respective roles of the old-age insurance and of the unemployment insurance:

- ☐ Income guarantees to wage-earners of 60 years of age and over are abolished. In as far as they meet the required conditions (having paid old-age-insurance contributions for 150 quarters), they can from now on receive their old age pension at the full rate.
- ☐ Acquired rights are maintained: the rights to income guarantee operating before the new law came into force are not altered.

The consequences of substituting the old-age insurance for an income guarantee from the unemployed insurance can be assessed as follows:

- ☐ As regards the number of beneficiaries, the conditions for giving the old-age pension, which constitutes a right recognized by law, are much wider than those which prevailed for income guarantee based on an agreement of the social partners, which was aimed at a narrower target group.
- ☐ As regards the amounts, the level of a full old-age pension cannot be less than a minimum fixed at FF 2 200 per month. For workers with wages under the social security ceiling (FF 7 410 per month), the pension paid for the old-age insurance is equivalent to 70 % of the wages of the last 10 years.

Substituting retirement for an income guarantee would thus seem to be advantageous for non-executives.

FR of Germany: Reduction in the rates of allowances

The rate for unemployment benefit, short-time allowance and bad-weather allowance is set uniformly at 68% of the estimated net income. To date, it has been the same rate for receivers with or without children. From 1984, the rates for these three allowances of the Federal Institute for receivers with no children will be reduced by 5% to 63%.

☐ **Unemployment benefit according to training compensation**

The unemployment benefit for persons who are unemployed after completing training is now calculated on the basis of 75% of the wages which could be obtained (skilled worker's wages). In the future the unemployment benefit shall be based on half the wages which the trained person could expect on the basis of the knowledge and skills acquired during his training, at least according to the training compensation granted to date.

☐ **Payment of bad-weather allowance for one day per month by the employer**

Construction workers can claim bad weather money (SWG) from the Employment Office for every day of loss of employment due to the weather between 1 November and 31 March. The Federal Employment Institute covers:

☐ SWG (wage compensation allowance to the worker);

☐ a subsidy to the employer amounting to 50% of his expenditure for the contributions to the pension insurance of the workers drawing SWG.

The employers of construction workers shall henceforth pay back to the Federal Employment Institute the SWG costs for each worker for the first eight hours of non-work due to weather conditions (a full day) of each month of the recognized bad weather period. There are no changes in the workers' claims on the Federal Employment Institute.

☐ **Reduction of the rate of unemployment assistance**

At present the rate of unemployment assistance amounts to 58% of the estimated net income, irrespective of whether the receiver has children or not. From 1984, the rate of benefit for receivers without children shall be reduced by 2% from 58 to 56%.

☐ **Updating the dynamic adjustment of the unemployment benefit**

The work compensation setting standards for the assessment of the unemployment benefit, the unem-

ployment assistance and the subsistence allowance is increased for the individual after each year by the percentage adjustment of pensions. As a consequence of the updating of the adjustment in pension rights, unemployment benefit, unemployment assistance and subsistence allowance will be adjusted to the updated rate of adjustment of pensions.

The Netherlands: Working while retaining the unemployment benefit

The Secretary of State for Social Affairs and Employment has set out in a letter to local authorities the possibilities and advantages of working whilst retaining unemployment benefit.

Working whilst retaining benefits can take place both individually and in an organized way. The latter can be within existing establishments or organizations which are not of a commercial character (the so-called *pro deo* work), within projects for the unemployed set up by public authorities (community jobs) or within other projects which are launched (whether or not on their own initiative) by individuals (work projects for the unemployed).

Generally speaking, for persons receiving WWV (unemployment provision) and RWW (unemployment assistance) benefits who take part in this sort of unpaid work, the same limiting conditions apply: they must remain available to accept a paid job and they must continue to seek suitable work.

The Secretary of State gives municipalities a series of recommendations for judging this type of activity. Unpaid work which was already carried out before someone became jobless can be continued if someone receives an allowance under the WWV or RWW. Unpaid work during the weekend or during the evening hours may be done without information of and checking by the executive organ (the municipal social service).

Unpaid work in non-commercial establishments which has previously been checked by an inspection committee need no longer be reported by the individual entitled to the benefit. The same applies for activities in the area of rendering services to and helping the family, neighbours and acquaintances.

Community jobs are carried out to enhance the living environment and the well-being of the local community. Those in charge of municipalities mostly organize projects for community jobs for the benefit of unemployed young people, to enable them to gain some work experience and to get to know their own abilities. If young people can participate in other schemes aiming at integrating or re-integrating them into the labour market, such as the 'Kort Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs' (short-term senior secondary voca-

tional education), the apprenticeship system, courses for the young unemployed, measures fostering placement or experimental work projects for unemployed young people, then these schemes take priority over participating in unpaid work. The following are the conditions for a community job project.

- ☐ it must be work which is outside the 'regular working setup' and remains outside the normal economic circuits;
- ☐ the work must be purposefully created for non-active people who are willing and able to work and who thereby make a meaningful contribution to society;
- ☐ participants must be able to do the work whilst retaining their benefits;
- ☐ it must preferably be 'odd jobs' which can be stopped without any serious consequences;
- ☐ existing voluntary work must not be pushed aside;
- ☐ the work must not be part of the normal services package of the municipality or the non-commercial establishments and it must not be any work which is normally carried out by third parties (social bodies or companies) for the benefit of the municipality;
- ☐ work may only be carried out for private persons if these persons are not in a position either to carry the activities out themselves or have them carried out.

The difference between projects for community jobs and projects for unemployed persons is that the former, as a rule, are set up on the initiative of the local authority and take place within the boundaries of the municipality whereas the latter usually originate from private initiative and have rather a regional character.

In constituting the inspection committees which have to see if work carried out whilst retaining benefit is admissible from the point of view of competition and budgets being falsified and regular work being pushed aside as much use as possible is made of the existing managerial staff.

Training

Belgium: Prolonging compulsory schooling (Law of 29 June 1983)

By the Law of 29 June 1983 on compulsory schooling, the age of compulsory schooling was raised from 14 to 18 years, with the possibility of part-time schooling from the age of 15 years. This obligation will be brought in progressively. This measure will not in reality radically change current practice as regards schooling; but it does provide a juridical framework within which the problem of training young people having the least schooling might be solved.

In Belgium 9 children out of 10 are still at school at the age of 16 years. By 18 years only one-third of young

people have left school. Raising compulsory schooling to 18 years will thus only affect a relatively small margin of young people of the age group concerned.

But young people who leave school early are those experiencing the greatest problems in finding a job. Their chances of becoming unemployed are relatively much higher than for those who have been able to complete normal schooling. However, for these young people the mere prolongation of compulsory full-time schooling cannot be a solution. For them it has rather to be acknowledged that, as it now exists, school is unsuitable to provide them with appropriate training. So it is being foreseen that compulsory schooling from 15 years will only be part-time, thereby enabling there to be mixed working and teaching approaches which are more suitable given the profile of these young people.

The application of this law is foreseen for 1 September 1983. However, for young people now aged between 15 and 18 years, a transitional period is foreseen during which the obligation is attenuated.

Belgium: Industrial apprenticeship contracts

Today Belgium is endowed with a very dense network of institutions which can offer a great variety of vocational training, both within and outside the schooling framework. The whole, although constituting a flexible arrangement, has not, however, yet been able to provide a solution to the situation of those young people who have not been able to find their place within one or other training so as to take up the career they would like.

These young people, relatively few in number, are those who have been edged out of schooling and who have not been able to find within organized training the means for achieving their desired qualifications. For this specific group it has been necessary to design a system which sets the young person up in his first steps towards an industrial career. The law on apprenticeships for wage-earners' jobs, recently voted by the Belgian Parliament, aims to meet this requirement.

The law puts forward an overall regulation which can enhance the development of apprenticeships under the aegis of representative trade-union and employer organizations. It is aimed explicitly at young people who have not been able to find, in their own region, teaching appropriate to the jobs they would like to do; it is also aimed at young people who have not been able to complete the training they started out on, so as to help them to qualify for the jobs of their wishes; and finally it is aimed at those young people who, late in the day, would like radically to change their career, even if they have successfully completed training for another job.

The importance of the joint bodies should be stressed here which are called upon to draw up specific apprenticeship standards and to monitor their progress, both on the level of each industry and on that of enterprises.

FR of Germany: Reduction of the 'large' subsistence allowance

When participating in vocational training schemes, the unemployed, those threatened with unemployment, the unskilled and those being retrained in vocations with labour shortages receive:

- ☐ a subsistence allowance amounting to 75%, if the participant has children or if his/her spouse needs care;
- ☐ a subsistence allowance amounting to 68% in all other cases.

The 'large' subsistence allowance shall be reduced in 1984 by 5 percentage points for:

- ☐ those receiving allowances with children or spouses needing care from 75% to 70%;
- ☐ all other allowance receivers from 68% to 63%.

The large subsistence allowance is granted when participation in a training scheme is necessary so that the applicant who:

- ☐ is unemployed can be re-integrated into working life;
- ☐ is directly threatened with unemployment can avoid unemployment;
- ☐ has no vocational certificate can obtain a vocational qualification;
- ☐ wishes to take up a vocation for which there is a manpower shortage on the labour market for which he qualifies or can be expected in the foreseeable future, can take up this vocation.

Allocations of the 'small' subsistence allowance are to be switched from being compulsory to being optional. The 'small' subsistence allowance will be granted as a loan to workers and employers who participate in an advanced training scheme which is considered exclusively as being purposeful for labour market policy (e.g. further training from journeyman to master craftsman).

Italy: Time contracts for young people

The January 1983 national agreement on labour costs and employment, which was converted into law No 79 on 25 March 1983, foresaw in particular new time contracts for young people. Enterprises are enabled to

take on young people from 15 to 29 years of age by name call ('chiamata nominativa') with a time-contract which does not exceed 12 months and is aimed at training them by working in the company.

The figures for persons employed through this scheme from February to June are as follows:

Of the total 63 007 young workers with such a time-contract for training, 42 620 were male and 20 387 were female. The sectoral break-down was:

agriculture	1 920
industry	44 440
services	16 647

with the company break-down by numbers of employees being:

up to 49 persons	45 128
50-249 persons	13 398
250-499 persons	2 295
more than 500 persons	2 186

United Kingdom: The Open Tech programme

In August 1982 the Manpower Services Commission launched its Open Tech programme as part of the new training initiative. Managed by the Open Tech Unit at the MSC's headquarters in Sheffield, the programme has been based on responses to consultations and the recommendations made to the MSC by a representative task group.

The programme aims to extend the training opportunities available to adults. Its starting point is identified needs – by employers and individuals – for training, retraining and updating in skills and knowledge at technician and supervisory levels.

Within this its focus is on those needs which the present kinds of education and training provision do not reach adequately. There are often many barriers in the way of adults who want to enter, return to, or continue education and training. These barriers may be:

- ☐ geographical – travel problems, no local course available;
- ☐ personal – domestic ties, personal disability;
- ☐ work demands – shifts, difficulties of getting away;
- ☐ inflexible or unsuitable course times, content, etc.;
- ☐ anxieties – reluctance to return to formal study, 'I've forgotten how to study', 'I'll be shown up'.

The Open Tech programme is designed to tackle these and similar problems through open learning.

Open learning enables people to learn at a time, place and/or pace which suits them best and also gives them a wide choice of what they study. It may involve

self-study at home or work at convenient times, supported by telephone tutorials and practical work. It may also involve tailor-made workshops and groups, or flexible access to equipment, training centres, colleges or other sources of help and advice. It can make use of tapes, video, computer based learning, etc. Whatever form it takes, open learning starts with the needs and circumstances of particular groups of people and tries to meet them.

The programme is for everyone to consider. Employers, trade unions, local authorities, colleges, professional bodies, training organizations, skill centres, voluntary groups and individuals could all be involved, either as users or providers of open learning, often collaborating closely.

The programme is focused primarily on:

- ☐ adults;
- ☐ people in or seeking to return to employment;
- ☐ technician and supervisory level skills;
- ☐ filling specific present and future skill shortages.

It is intended particularly to help people face up to the consequences of change in their work.

There are no hard and fast definitions of individuals or situations that might be eligible for support. For example, there is no set age range for 'adults', but it is likely that most participants in the programme will have completed full-time education or initial vocational training.

The programme does not replace existing education and training provision. Its key tasks are to open or widen access to this provision and to make possible new provision which is more flexible and thus accessible to participants.

The 'Open Tech' is not an institution. The programme is made up of projects commissioned by the Open Tech Unit and run by outside organizations. Projects cover a wide range of activities and are of two kinds:

- ☐ operational, i.e. making learning materials and/or facilities more widely available;
- ☐ supporting, i.e. providing information services, helping with training of staff involved in open learning projects, evaluating individual projects and the programme as a whole.

Most of the money available will be allocated to operational projects.

The programme provides development funding to enable projects to get off the ground and prove themselves. After an agreed period they should be capable of supporting themselves under other auspices. Project managers are responsible for the successful achievement of their objectives. It is the

projects and not the Open Tech Unit that will enrol individuals, design and produce learning packages and keep in touch with participants.

Projects approved so far range over a wide variety of subjects, industries and levels of education and training. They include open learning provision in engineering, avionics, textile coloration, micro-electronics, refrigeration, quality assurance, supervisory skills and are run by colleges, employers' training bodies, or a number of these organizations in concert.

Some of these projects provide the opportunity of achieving a national qualification through open or distance learning.

United Kingdom: Technical and vocational education initiative

To help meet the challenge to education of industrial, occupational and technological change the government announced in November 1982 a technical vocational education initiative to begin in September 1983 and to last for five years.

The purpose of the initiative is to test programmes of general technical and vocational education for 14-18 year olds within the educational system, including ways of managing and resourcing such programmes, and the curricula and learning methods required for success. The government proposed that a number of pilot projects in England and one in Wales should be instituted to this end from the beginning of the next school year. The initiative will cost UKL 7 million in 1983/84 and somewhat larger sums thereafter.

The Manpower Services Commission (MSC) was asked to launch the scheme and the Commission established a National Steering Group (NSG) composed of members from local education authority associations, schools and further education, industry and trade unions to advise it and oversee the scheme.

At the beginning of 1983, the Commission and MSC established the basic criteria for projects under the scheme. Among these are the following:

- ☐ Projects should cater for young people across the ability range.
- ☐ Equal opportunities should be available to young people of both sexes and they should normally be educated together on courses within each project. Care should be taken to avoid sex stereotyping.
- ☐ They should provide four-year curricula, with progression from year to year, designed to prepare the student for particular aspects of employment and for adult life in a society liable to rapid change.

☐ They should have clear and specific objectives, including the objectives of encouraging initiative, problem-solving abilities, and other aspects of personal development.

☐ The balance between the general, technical and vocational elements of programmes should vary according to students' individual needs and the stage of the course, but throughout the programme there should be both a general and a technical/vocational element.

☐ The technical and vocational elements should be broadly related to potential employment opportunities within and outside the geographical area for the young people concerned.

☐ There should be appropriate planned work experience as an integral part of the programmes, from the age of 15 onwards.

☐ Courses offered should be capable of being linked effectively with subsequent training/educational opportunities.

☐ Arrangements should be made for regular assessment and for students and tutors to discuss students' performance/progress. Each student and his or her parents, should also receive a periodic written assessment, and have an opportunity to discuss this assessment with the relevant project teachers. Good careers and educational counselling would be essential.

Local Education Authorities (LEAs) in England and Wales were invited to submit proposals and two-thirds of them did so by March 1983. Proposals for projects from 14 LEAs have been provisionally accepted by the Commission as the basis for the initiative. Within the national framework the projects vary in their approach and in their technical and vocational components. All, however, meet the criteria and

☐ offer new technical and vocational opportunities to some 250 young people across the ability range in each year band, rising to around 1 000 in total in each project at the end of four years;

☐ make use of existing schools and colleges;

☐ ensure that entry into the project is voluntary;

☐ lead to nationally recognized qualifications;

☐ seek to develop within a framework of general education, broad-based transferable technical skills.

Detailed work in the LEAs and schools concerned to enable young people to enter projects from September is now in hand. Teachers are being recruited and young people and parents consulted. An essential part of the scheme is careful monitoring, evaluation and dissemination of the experience of the projects, and the National Steering Group and local education authorities are also turning their attention to this.

Job creation

Belgium: Loans to some totally unemployed persons to set up on their own (Law of 13 July 1983)

The two Chambers have recently adopted a draft law put forward by the government to enable the 'Fonds de Participation de la Caisse nationale de crédit professionnel' to grant at the expense of the Ministry of Employment and Labour, subordinate loans to certain fully compensated unemployed persons who wish to set up on their own or create their own enterprise. The peculiarity of these subordinate loans is that in cases of bankruptcy of the debtor, the creditor of such a loan only ranks after all the other creditors, both privileged and ordinary.

The operating arrangements relating to this law are currently being drafted. As soon as they have been published the characteristics of this new scheme for mopping up unemployment will be set out in detail in these columns.

Ireland: Establishment of a select committee of parliament on small businesses

A select committee of both houses of the Oireachtas (parliament) is to be set up to examine various aspects of the small business sector and to make recommendations for its development.

The committee, which will be known as the Joint Committee on Small Businesses, has been assigned the task of examining and making recommendations to each house on the following matters:

☐ a common definition of small businesses having regard to the criteria applied by State agencies, the Small Firms Association of the Confederation of Irish Industry and definitions used in other EEC countries;

☐ the development of the small business sector of the economy;

☐ the means of facilitating the financing of small businesses with particular reference to existing loan schemes;

☐ the provision of finance for innovation, research and development for small businesses with particular reference to EEC initiatives, including the setting-up of an industrial innovation and development fund;

☐ existing export financing arrangements to see if they are adequately tailored to the needs of small businesses;

☐ the small industry programmes of the Industrial Development Authority and the Shannon Free Airport Development Company Limited;

- ☐ how to ensure greater linkage between new foreign industry and small domestic businesses;
- ☐ the use of State purchasing decisions as an encouragement to the development of small businesses;
- ☐ how to improve the marketing capability of small business;
- ☐ existing management training techniques in so far as small businesses are concerned and, in particular, the retraining of management; and
- ☐ the working of the committee of enquiry to be established by the Minister for Finance, which is to recommend a simplified tax regime for family businesses.

The Netherlands: Temporary work for unemployed graduates

The Ministries of Education and Science and Social Affairs and Employment have launched a test project to help 60 unemployed graduates by giving them a temporary job for one year. The purpose of the test project is to increase the chances of graduates of finding a permanent job.

The test is being carried out in collaboration with the State University of Groningen, the Technical University of Twente and the Agricultural University of Wageningen.

The project, which is being funded through additional resources for fighting unemployment, has had an amount of HFL 2.5 million made available to it for the current year.

The graduates are provided with work through the assistance of a steering committee which is being established in each of the three regions – Groningen, Twente and Wageningen.

An evaluation will be made of the effects of the test project.

The government has decided to extend and diversify this tool to adapt it better to the specific needs of various categories of young people. Three specific types of contract are hence currently available to help in vocationally integrating unemployed young people less than 26 years of age:

- ☐ the 'employment-training' contract as such,
- ☐ the 'adaptation-employment' contract and the 'employment-guidance' contract, which are two new forms derived from the employment training contract. Two Decrees of 19 May 1983 spell out the rules for these contracts.

Unlike the employment training contract intended for untrained young people, the employment-adaptation contract is intended for young people who have had some training but need to have it completed and/or adapted in line with the specific characteristics of the job offered. It is a diversified form of an employment training contract, shorter in length (150 hours of training compared with an employment training contract which can last from 200 to 1 200 hours) which must enable a young person to acquire a certain practical know-how.

The employment-guidance contract is an original approach aimed at young people who have neither training nor any idea of what they would like to do as a job. It is intended to enable a young person, guided by a person specially designated within the enterprise, to gain some preliminary experience of working life and to better decide on what he/she would like to do.

As for the employment training contract, both these approaches pre-suppose the signing of a written full-time work contract for a length of time equal to

- ☐ a minimum of one year for an employment-adaptation contract, or
- ☐ a minimum of four months for an employment-guidance contract

70 000 employment training contracts were concluded in 1982. For 1983 the aim is 200 000 contracts, adding up all three types.

Special categories of workers

France: Vocational integration of young people – The new employment training contract

The new 'employment training' contract is aimed at untrained young people to whom an enterprise wants to give skills. It is based on a common law work contract matched with a training requirement which justifies aid by the State. Set up in 1975, it is a well-tested approach for integrating young people into working life.

FR of Germany: Unemployment of younger people

In the Federal Republic young unemployed people under 20 years of age are differentiated from those between 20 and 25 years. Some two-thirds of unemployed young people under 20 have not completed any vocational training whereas more than half of those aged between 20 and 25 years at the end of September 1982 had had vocational training in a school or workplace. Some 80% of the young unemployed come from workers' professions; roughly one-third of the 20–25 year-olds who are unemployed come from white-collar vocations.

The length of the unemployment of the young people is significantly lower than that of the other age groups. A good 60% of the unemployed under 20 years of age are unemployed for up to three months, the average for all unemployed persons being only 35%.

Young unemployed foreigners amount to 17%. Almost 95% of them have not completed any vocational training.

Already in previous years there has been a variety of schemes for fighting the unemployment of young unemployed job-seekers. Finance has been provided by means of the Employment Promotion Act. The Federal Government and individual *Land* governments have provided complementary resources for special programmes. It has been estimated that without these schemes the unemployment of young people would have been 20 to 25% higher.

The existing catalogue of measures has been further developed. Since 30 March 1983 the following measures have been prominent:

☐ Young unemployed with work experience can participate in the wide variety of continuing training and re-training programmes provided that the conditions of the Employment Promotion Act are fulfilled in each individual case.

☐ The supply of measures preparatory to the 'external exam' is intended to be expanded. Unemployed persons who have not passed any vocational training exam but have been employed for a period which is at least twice as long as the prescribed training period can sit this final vocational exam as 'externals' (without proof of a vocational training relationship).

☐ Job-creation measures ('ABM') can foresee, in addition to their practical function, vocational qualifications accompanying the work (integrated into the measure). ABMs can also be especially designed for unemployed young people who have completed their vocational training so that the skills learned can be strengthened and vocational experience gathered. Experience shows that in this way placement prospects are improved. A further variant of this is connecting job-creation measures with training measures. This 'working and learning' system should furthermore make it possible to achieve a vocational qualification and/or catch up on general educational subjects.

☐ Young people without vocational training can acquire basic or additional qualifications in individual vocational areas through appropriate courses, such as in metal- or wood-processing, or in hotels and catering. Experience shows that participation improves the prospects for being integrated or re-integrated into working life.

☐ In measures aimed at preparing young people for a career, vocational knowledge in various vocational

areas should be practised and deepened so as to obtain a job. Provided that aptitude and inclination are available, this measure should also generate interest in vocational training.

☐ Another form of measure preparing for a career is vocational guidance providing information on vocational training opportunities and the local labour market conditions. Training in applying for jobs is included.

☐ General education programmes, particularly in German and maths, are intended to fill educational gaps. It has been seen that young unemployed persons with limited success at school in this way gradually become more open to vocational and general learning. This special programme of the Federal Government also makes it possible to complete secondary school.

☐ Young foreigners should, in as far as possible, take part in these measures with young Germans. The training programme can, in addition, provide courses in German.

☐ The Confederation of German Employers (BDA) has requested its member associations and industrial training institutions to provide additional training space. Particularly young people over 18 who are not (or not yet) considered for vocational training, should by priority be given vocational knowledge in measures aimed at preparing for a career.

It is often difficult to convince young unemployed persons to take part in vocational training measures. Bringing in specialist social workers has been shown to be helpful. Their employment can also be fostered as a job-creation measure.

Through these various measures an attempt is being made to stop, or at least to limit, the unemployment of younger workers.

Ireland: Activities of the Youth Employment Agency since its establishment in March 1982

Establishment of the Agency

A major initiative in relation to youth unemployment was taken in Ireland with the establishment of the Youth Employment Agency (YEA) in March 1982 under the Youth Employment Agency Act, 1981.

The initiative was taken against a background of rising youth unemployment, a steadily growing young labour force, a slow international recovery from the recession and public finance constraints which limited the scope for increasing employment in the public sector.

The agency is charged with bringing about a united and concerted approach to training, work experience and educational measures designed to tackle the problem of youth unemployment. It is backed by

statute and was established as a limited company so as to ensure that it can act with flexibility, efficiency and speed.

The agency acts, under the Minister for Labour, as the body with overall national responsibility for furthering the employment of young persons. In general, it has looked to the existing manpower authorities such as AnCo and the National Manpower Service to implement programmes rather than itself assuming an executive role.

Youth employment levy

The activities of the YEA, and other activities in the area of youth employment, training and work experience, are funded by a 1% youth employment levy which was introduced in April 1982. The amount collected during 1982 was IRL 38 million. In 1983 the first full collection year, the levy will raise an estimated IRL 77.5 million.

The introduction of the levy has enabled expenditure to be increased substantially on youth employment, training and work experience schemes: the amounts for 1981 and 1982 were IRL 19 million and over IRL 32 million respectively.

Activities

Since its establishment, the Agency has concentrated on the following areas:

- ☐ the expansion of existing youth employment programmes so as to absorb as many new participants as possible;
- ☐ the development of better information systems about youth unemployment, so as to achieve greater precision in the designing and targeting of programmes;
- ☐ the establishment of projects at community level for disadvantaged groups and areas.

Over 57 000 young people are expected to participate in programmes financed from the youth employment levy in 1983, more than twice the participation level in 1981 and over 40% up on 1982 participation.

While directing much of its attention to the operations of existing programmes as these expanded throughout 1982, the YEA also funded directly a number of projects which could not be accommodated within existing programmes. By the end of 1982 the Agency had approved financial support for over 50 projects.

The main thrust of the Agency's activities in 1983 is in the following areas:

- ☐ support for the continued expansion of State-aided training and work-experience programmes for young people;

- ☐ a greater concentration on the longer-term unemployed (i.e. those on the unemployment register in excess of six months) by improving their access to programmes;

- ☐ the replacement of the current temporary employment activities with a new integrated approach;

- ☐ improved access to training for disadvantaged teenagers (young travelling people and young people – mainly in inner city or large urban areas – who have left the educational system relatively early) through the extension of the network of community training workshops;

- ☐ support for local and youth initiatives in job creation;

- ☐ the promotion of priority developments in the educational system relating to the transition from school to work.

An estimated 17 000 young people in Ireland registered as unemployed, have been out of work for six months or more. The YEA recognizes the need to give priority access for this group to the range of training, work-experience and employment schemes provided for young people generally. To this end the objective of the Agency, over 1983, will be to move towards a situation where recruitment will take place exclusively from among the longer-term unemployed for the programmes providing employment on community and environmental facilities. The intention also is that up to 500 of the existing training places for young people will be progressively devoted to those out of work for longer periods.

The YEA's community and youth enterprise programme, which is now getting off the ground, is aimed at making a significant contribution towards the creation of economically sustainable employment. This pilot programme involves three main elements:

- ☐ provision of support to community and youth groups at local level who wish to employ community enterprise workers to carry out a specific and developed programme of work;

- ☐ provision of support to such groups at an earlier stage of development who want to assess and quantify the extent of local employment needs and potential;

- ☐ provision of support to community and youth groups who have reached a relatively advanced stage of development and who require additional resources.

Another YEA initiative during 1983, is the proposal to establish about six demonstration projects at community level which would integrate the activities of the education, training, recruitment, job creation and local authorities. The projects are based on the establishment of community training and employment consortia (comtecs), representative of all local manpower and community interests.

Ireland: Young scientists and technologists employment scheme

An employment scheme for young scientists and technologists was introduced by the Youth Employment Agency on a pilot basis for one year in October 1982. The scheme is administered by the National Board for Science and Technology in conjunction with the Institute of Industrial Research and Standards (IIRS).

The main purpose of the scheme is to promote the employment of young people under 25 years of age who hold degree or diploma qualifications in science or engineering and who are unemployed or in employment outside the science and engineering fields for at least three months. The scheme is also aimed at assisting firms in the private sector to increase their technological capability. For this reason special consideration is given to firms hiring technical personnel for the first time. Appointments made under the scheme must be additional to normal manpower intakes.

The scheme was initially confined to firms with under 50 employees but its scope was subsequently extended to include firms with up to 100 employees. Firms participating in the scheme are required to:

- ☐ employ, on a full-time basis for a period of 12 months, a technically qualified person;
- ☐ sign a contract of employment with the employee as supplied by the sponsors;
- ☐ enter an agreement on a work programme for the year and permit the non-intrusive monitoring of the programme on a quarterly basis;
- ☐ take a decision on the future employment of the graduate by the end of the first nine months.

Personnel recruited under the scheme can be located either in the firm itself or a higher education institution. The latter arrangement is to facilitate firms which wish to avail themselves of the advanced equipment in colleges and the element of expert supervision from scientists or engineers employed there.

It was planned to employ up to 80 young people during the pilot phase of the scheme. 73 were finally placed including 14 in higher education institutions. Minimum annual salaries were fixed at IRL 6 000 for degree holders and IRL 5 300 for diploma holders. Under the scheme the Youth Employment Agency is contributing up to IRL 3 600 per annum towards the salaries of graduates and up to IRL 3 000 per annum in the case of diploma holders.

Experience to date indicates that the scheme has been very successful in achieving its stated objectives. Over half the 71 firms participating are now employing technologists in development work for the first time.

Moreover, there is a better than average possibility that the majority of these firms will retain these young people in permanent employment.

It has been decided to extend the existing scheme from its expiry date in September up to the end of this year and to continue it on a pilot basis for a further year from 1 January 1984.

The Netherlands: School-leavers' campaign

The Minister for Social Affairs and Employment has sent a personal letter to some 200 000 employers. This letter is a part of an information campaign launched by the Ministry aimed at employers and young people who are leaving school this year.

The school-leavers are in particular being advised to become enrolled in good time (before July) at the labour office under the slogan 'Get working now to get work'. Enrolment is necessary for receiving a benefit or children's allowance.

From the 1983 school-leavers' letter, sent to all careers masters, it appears that the number of school-leavers who become enrolled at the labour offices has more than doubled since 1977: from $\pm 105\,000$ in 1977 to $\pm 220\,000$ in 1982. These 220 000 represent some 84% of total school-leavers. Presumably the deteriorating labour market situation and modifications in social security legislation provide additional incentives for young people to be enrolled at the labour office.

According to estimates, the numbers of school-leavers will continue to grow to 1987, when some 269 000 young people will be leaving school. Subsequently there should be a drop which will continue well into the 1990s virtually exclusively as a result of the drop in births which set in after 1970.

In the coming years there will be an increase in both male and female school-leavers in semi-higher or higher education. The most important reason for this is already perceptible: greater numbers of young people are choosing to spend more time in training. Roughly two-thirds of last year's school-leavers were no longer enrolled at the labour offices at the end of March. The number of enrolled went down then to 84 000.

Of the 1977-80 school-leavers, 19% were trained for the quaternary sector. Proportionately more women than men took up this line of training. For example, on the level of the secondary school education 2% of men compared with roughly 54% of women took up this sector.

According to the forecast of the school-leavers' letter, the proportion of both secondary school educated men and women who will go specifically into this quaternary sector will remain almost constant through to 1990. On the higher vocational training

level, there will be some decrease, notably with the men. The proportion of women taking up the quaternary sector is expected to be substantially higher than of men.

United Kingdom: Youth training in the armed services

The UK Government has been considering the role of the armed forces in meeting its objective of providing training and work experience for unemployed school-leavers. The high quality of the training provided in the armed forces has convinced the government that they should play a part. It is therefore proposed that about 5 200 places should be made available in the forces for the young unemployed. The precise number of places in the first year will depend on the number of applications and the capacity of the services training organization.

All applicants for the scheme will be volunteers, will have to satisfy existing entry standards and will be able to leave at any time on 14 day's notice. They will volunteer to join one of the services on a 12-month engagement, part of which will be spent in formal training and the remainder in work experience. All volunteers will receive the same basic training as regular service men and women and some will go on to learn skills and trades.

They will be service men and women and, in all but a few respects, will qualify for the same benefits as single regulars and be subject to the same disciplines. They will receive, as will youngsters joining civilian employers in the youth training scheme, an allowance of UKL 25 per week. A deduction of UKL 10 per week will be made for food and accommodation.

The scheme will become operational in the autumn. Full details are currently being finalized.

United Kingdom: Young workers scheme

The young workers scheme has now been in operation for over a year and a half. The scheme opened on 4 January 1982 under the 1978 Employment Subsidies Act. One of the Department of Employment's special Measures, it is aimed at alleviating the unemployment of young people under the age of 18 who are entering the labour market. The scheme also aims at keeping juvenile wage rates at realistic levels which more accurately reflect their inexperience and frequently their need for training.

It is the UK Government's view that the narrow margin of wage rates between those for experienced adults and the comparatively inexperienced young workers contributes to today's high youth unemployment. There are many employers who cannot afford to support young people whose contribution to produc-

tion may be small in comparison to experienced workers; to correct this distortion in the labour market, young people's wage rates need to be set at a level which reflects their relative inexperience.

The young workers scheme therefore provides financial incentives to employers who recruit young people at wage rates that properly reflect their value to an employer. The scheme's payments are not a contribution to an employer's wage costs but they help to offset the employer's costs of employing eligible young people. This will result in an increase in the number of jobs offered to young people. In addition, by providing incentives to employers to price young people's jobs at realistic levels, the scheme will enable companies to become more competitive, to expand and to create more job opportunities for both young and older workers alike.

The scheme is open to all employers in Great Britain except public services, for example Civil Service, local authorities, National Health Service, and domestic households. A similar scheme operates in Northern Ireland. Employees and employers are required to satisfy all the scheme's conditions for employers to be able to claim its payments. Employees must be under 18 years of age and in their first year of employment on the date the job commenced. Employers who recruit eligible young people into jobs that are intended to be permanent, to work a minimum of 35 hours a week and whose wage rates do not exceed the scheme's earnings limits may be eligible to claim the scheme's payments. Jobs that last less than eight weeks will not qualify. Training is not a requirement but it is hoped employers will provide appropriate training and time spent on training is regarded as being at work.

The first date from which payment is successfully claimed begins a young person's 'payment year' which continues to run even if the young person later becomes unemployed or goes on a training course. A subsequent employer will be able to claim payment for the balance of the payment year in respect of that young worker, provided the young worker remains eligible when that employment begins.

Once approval of the application is obtained, employers are required to submit claims for payment quarterly in arrears and payments are made in respect of the quarter as a whole on the basis of the gross average weekly pay. If, for any reason, employment ceases during a quarterly period claims may be submitted up to that date without employers having to wait until the end of that quarter. In any event claims remain payable up to three months after a young person's payment year has ended. The scheme is administered by the Department of Employment's Regional Offices. Employers are not exempt from meeting their statutory

obligations and employees are subject to normal income tax and National Insurance liabilities.

From August 1983 there have been several changes to the current rules of the young workers scheme. Applications in respect of young people now need to be submitted within three months from the first date payment could be claimed. Prior to August the time-limit was six months for applications. This change in the time-limit for applications is in order to focus support on those who genuinely need it.

Another more major change in the scheme is the alteration of the earnings limits. These have been increased to UKL 42 and UKL 47 a week so that employers whose employees' gross average wage rates are UKL 42 or less a week will be able to claim the higher rate of UKL 15 a week and employers whose employees' gross average wage rates are between UKL 42 and UKL 47 a week may claim the lower rate of UKL 7.50 a week. Gross average wage rates exceeding UKL 47 a week attract no payment. The rationale behind the changes in these earnings limits is to maintain take-up, which has been encouraging.

Over 200 000 applications have been approved since the scheme began and more than 150 000 applications were approved in the 1982/83 financial year. The number of young people currently being supported under the scheme in May 1983 is estimated at 104 000.

Take-up has been most concentrated in the distributive sector (26%) followed by miscellaneous services (17%) which includes the leisure industry, hair-dressing and garages, and the construction industry (10%).

Working time

Belgium: Rearranging working time in hospitals (Royal Decree of 3 May 1983)

The objective of this measure is to fight unemployment by ensuring the distribution of the work available over a greater number of persons by encouraging part-time work.

The specific characteristics of hospitals necessitated an original measure. The hospital sector has been a huge creator of jobs between 1975 and 1981 with an increase of 29% in numbers employed. Now the number of hospital beds has been frozen at the number approved and existing on 1 July 1982. The ensuing strict application of staff norms has brought in serious threats of extending unemployment in the sector. The promotion of part-time work has been seen as a solution in the light of the sector's characteristics. On the one hand, the 1983 wage moderation will bring about few additional jobs in it, given the new indexa-

tion procedure of per-day prices and, on the other, the type of work of the care staff and the predominance of female staff implies a greater demand for part-time or reduced work than in other sectors.

It has thus been foreseen that premiums be given to hospital establishments which rearrange their working time and thereby enable additional workers to be taken on. These additional jobs can only be filled by fully compensated unemployed persons. Whenever rearranging working time gives rise to hiring one or more additional workers whose performances are equivalent, in time, to a full-time job, a premium of BFR 100 000 or BFR 150 000 is given to establishments where the part-time percentage is between 10 and 20% or is more than 20% compared with the total staff. These premiums are given annually and are covered by the Ministry of Employment and Labour.

Luxembourg: Special invalidity allowance (ASI)

The Law of 20 December 1982 dealing with the State's income and expenditure budget for 1983 brought in a special invalidity allowance (ASI).

The same as for early retirement, this short-term measure is a part of the social programme of restructuring the steel industry. The aim of the allowance is to accelerate the run-down of manpower overcapacity in the steel industry.

Granting the special invalidity allowance depends on the following conditions:

- ☐ the worker has to be employed in an enterprise belonging to the steel industry;
- ☐ he must be over 50 years of age;
- ☐ he must not be receiving a waiting allowance in cases of early retirement;
- ☐ he must be occupationally incapacitated according to the definition foreseen by the pension insurance system for private employees. According to this, only those workers are involved 'who, following an illness, infirmity or weakening of their powers will be permanently incapable of carrying out the job they last performed or a similar job corresponding to their training and to their work experience';
- ☐ the applications must be made before 28 February 1983.

The special allowance is calculated on the same bases as the disablement pension which the person in question would be paid. But this amount is increased until the age of 60 years – at which age he usually has the right to an early old-age retirement pension – by an allowance corresponding to 12.5% of the previous remuneration, with a ceiling at 4 times the minimum social wage (LFR 95 655 at the 382.62 index applicable from 1 May 1983).

The increased special invalidity allowance is subjected to social and fiscal charges. Expenditure result-

ing from this scheme is covered by the Unemployment Fund.

As regards the effects of this scheme, it has, on the basis of the requests made, been estimated that some 750 persons will be admitted to the ASI system.

The cost of the system has been estimated as follows:

1983	LFR	400 million
1984	LFR	405 million
1985	LFR	415 million
1986	LFR	420 million
1987	LFR	430 million
1988	LFR	400 million
1989	LFR	312 million
1990	LFR	222 million
1991	LFR	54 million
Total	LFR	3 058 million

Placement

FR of Germany:

Reductions of adaptation subsidies: A reduction in the expenditure for adaptation subsidies is to be achieved by reducing the maximum amount of the aid from its previous rate of 80% of work compensation to 70%. Furthermore, no subsidies will be granted for employees/workers who already belong to the firm.

Restrictions in granting incentives to enter employment: Savings will be made in mobility aids to foster employment being taken up (a.o. costs of application, travel costs, allowances for working equipment) for example by raising minimal limits.

Restrictions in vocational rehabilitation benefits: Bridging money which is paid for vocational rehabilitation schemes will, following the reduction in the allocation rate of subsistence allowance, be brought down from 80% to 75% (if the person in question has children or the spouse is in need of care) and from 70% to 65% for all other cases.

Italy: 'Nominative and numerical' employment

Law No 79 of 25 March 1983 enabled employers to submit, for one year, a nominative request (*richiesta nominativa*) for a quota which is equal to half of the number of workers for whom the numerical request (*richiesta numerica*) is compulsory.

Between February and June 1983 this brought about the placement of 60 490 workers, of whom 18 957 were women and the remainder men. The sectoral breakdown was as follows:

agriculture	5 756
industry	37 685
services	17 049

with the company breakdown by numbers of employees being:

49 persons or less	48 940
50-249 persons	9 333
250-499 persons	1 499
more than 500 persons	718

Rough currency conversion rates

One European currency unit (ECU) was roughly equivalent to the following amounts of national currencies in mid-1983:

● Belgium	BFR	45
● Denmark	DRK	8.05
● FR of Germany	DM	2.27
● Greece	DR	77
● France	FF	6.8
● Ireland	IRL	0.72
● Italy	LIT	1 348
● The Netherlands	HFL	2.54
● United Kingdom	UKL	0.59

Part Four

Statistical information

I. Population

Year	B	DK	D	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR10
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1. Total population

(a) Annual average or as at 30 June (1000)

1960	9 119	4 581	55 433	8 327	45 684	2 832	50 198	315	11 487	52 559	240 535
1970	9 638	4 929	60 651	8 793	50 772	2 950	53 661	340	13 039	55 522	260 295
1980	9 847	5 123	61 566	9 643	53 714	3 401	57 069 ¹	365	14 150	56 010	270 887 ¹
1981	9 852	5 122	61 682	9 728	53 966	3 443	56 502	365	14 247	56 020	270 927
1982	9 856	5 118	61 638	9 792	54 219	3 483	56 639	366	14 313	56 010	271 434

(b) Average annual rate of increase (%)

1960/70	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.5	1.1	0.4	0.7	0.8	1.3	0.5	0.8
1970/80	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.9	0.6	1.4	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.1	0.4
1980/81	0.1	-0.0	0.2	0.9	0.5	1.2	0.2	0.1	0.7	0.0	0.0
1981/82	0.0	-0.1	-0.1	0.6	0.5	1.7	0.2	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.2

(c) By age group (end of year) (%)

Age 0-14	1960	23.7	24.9	21.6	26.1	26.5	31.1	24.5	21.4	30.0	23.3	24.3
	1970	23.6	23.1	23.1	24.6	24.7	31.2	24.4	22.0	27.2	24.0	24.2
	1980	20.0	20.6	17.8	22.6	22.2	30.4	21.7	18.6	22.1	20.9	21.0
Age 15-64	1960	64.3	64.4	67.5	65.8	61.9	57.7	66.0	67.8	61.0	65.0	64.9
	1970	63.0	64.5	63.6	64.3	62.4	57.7	65.0	65.4	62.6	63.2	63.4
	1980	65.6	65.0	66.7	64.3	63.9	58.9	64.8	67.8	66.4	64.1	64.8
Age 65 or over	1960	12.0	10.7	10.9	8.1	11.6	11.2	9.5	10.8	9.0	11.7	10.8
	1970	13.4	12.4	13.3	11.1	12.9	11.1	10.6	12.6	10.2	12.8	12.4
	1980	14.4	14.5	15.5	13.1	13.9	10.7	13.5	13.6	11.6	14.9	14.2

2. Population change

(a) Birth rate (births per 1000 inhabitants)

1960	17.0	16.6	17.4	18.9	17.9	21.5	17.9	15.9	20.8	17.5	18.0
1970	14.8	14.4	13.4	16.5	16.8	21.9	16.5	13.0	18.3	16.3	15.9
1980	12.7	11.2	10.1	15.6	14.9	21.9	11.3	11.4	12.8	13.5	12.6
1981	12.6	10.4	10.1	14.5	14.9	21.0	11.0	12.0	12.5	13.0	12.4
1982	12.2	10.3	10.1	14.2	14.7	20.4	10.9	11.8	12.0	12.8	12.2

(b) Death rate (deaths per 1000 inhabitants)

1960	12.5	9.5	11.6	7.3	11.4	11.5	9.4	11.8	7.6	11.5	10.8
1970	12.3	9.8	12.1	8.4	10.7	11.4	9.6	12.2	8.4	11.8	10.9
1980	11.5	10.9	11.6	9.1	10.2	9.7	9.7	11.3	8.1	11.8	10.6
1981	11.2	11.0	11.7	8.9	10.3	9.4	9.6	11.2	8.1	11.7	10.6
1982	11.1	10.8	11.6	8.8	10.0	9.4	9.4	11.3	8.2	11.8	10.5

(c) Net migration (per 1000 inhabitants)

1960	+0.5	+0.7	+6.1	-3.7	+3.1	-14.8	-1.9	+1.7	-1.1	+1.7	+1.6
1970	+0.4	+2.4	+9.2	-5.3	+3.5	- 1.2	-0.9	+3.1	+2.6	-1.5	+2.4
1980	-0.4	+0.1	+5.1	+5.2	+0.0	- 0.4	+1.4	+3.7	+3.7	-1.4	+1.5
1981	-0.7	-0.4	+2.5	+0.7	+0.0	+ 0.1	+0.4	+0.2	+1.2	-1.4	+0.4

Source: Eurostat.

¹ New series.

II. Education

Year	B	DK	D	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR10
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1. Compulsory education

(a) Age at commencement of compulsory education

1960	6	7	6	7	6	6	6	6	6	5	5-7
1970	6	7	6	7	6	6	6	6	6	5	5-7
1980/82	6	7	6	5½-6	6	6	6	6	6	5	5-7

(b) Age at end of compulsory education

1960	14	14	14	13	14	14	14	15	14	15	13-15
1970	14	14	14/15	13	16	14	14	15	14	15	13-16
1980/82	14	14	15	14½-15	16	15	14	15	15/16	16	14-16

2. Numbers of pupils¹ and students

(a) 1 000

1960/61	1 503	—	7 222	—	8 469	—	6 961	40	2 303	—	—
1970/71	1 902	930	9 866	1 560	10 183	634	9 449	54	2 719	10 515	47 812
1980/81	1 904	1 040	10 912	1 746 ⁽²⁾	11 059	773	10 782	51	3 104	10 928	52 300

(b) Pupils and students as a percentage of the population

1960/61	16.4	—	12.9	—	18.4	—	13.8	12.7	19.9	—	—
1970/71	19.7	18.8	16.2	17.7	20.0	21.3	17.6	15.7	20.7	18.9	18.3
1980/81	19.3	20.3	17.7	18.2 ⁽²⁾	20.5	22.8	18.9	13.9	21.8	19.5	19.3

(c) Numbers of pupils and students by level of education (%)

First level

1965/66	57.5	49.3	45.6	—	60.3	72.6	56.9	—	60.1	56.9	55.8 ⁽³⁾
1970/71	54.8	48.9	41.4	58.9	50.5	63.0	52.2	60.1	56.3	55.6	51.0
1980/81	45.1	41.8	26.4	51.5	44.4	55.7	41.1	51.0	46.0	45.4	40.7

Second level

1965/66	37.6	44.1	47.9	—	35.2	24.1	38.0	—	35.0	39.7	39.4 ⁽³⁾
1970/71	38.6	41.0	51.8	35.6	41.9	32.9	40.6	39.0	37.2	40.0	42.5
1980/81	44.6	47.9	62.6	41.6	46.3	38.9	49.3	47.4	45.0	49.7	50.7

Third level

1965/66	4.9	6.7	6.5	—	4.5	3.3	5.1	—	4.9	3.3	4.8 ⁽³⁾
1970/71	6.6	10.1	6.8	5.5	7.5	4.1	7.3	0.9	6.5	4.3	6.5
1980/81	10.3	10.2	11.0	6.8	9.2	5.4	9.3	1.6	9.0	4.9	8.6

Source: Eurostat.

¹ Excluding primary schoolchildren.

² 1979/80.

³ Excluding Greece and Luxembourg.

III. Employment

Year	B	DK	D	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR10
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1. Working population

(a) Annual average (1 000)

1960	3 598	2 085	26 351	3 601	19 820	1 118	21 691	132	4 232	24 639	107 267
1970	3 830	2 380	26 817	3 430	21 430	1 118	20 873	140	4 795	25 300	110 113
1980	4 152	2 662	27 191	3 636	23 147	1 239	22 804	160	5 389	26 701	117 081
1981	4 161	2 671	27 395	3 863	23 231	1 264	23 100	160	5 547	26 548	117 940 ¹
1982	4 174	2 684	27 501	—	23 394	1 283	23 188	161	5 696	26 303	118 060 ¹

(b) Activity rates (working population as a percentage of the total population)

1960	39.5	45.5	47.5	43.2	43.4	39.5	43.2	41.9	36.8	46.9	44.6
1970	39.7	48.3	44.2	39.0	42.2	37.9	38.9	41.2	36.8	45.6	42.3
1980	42.2	52.0	44.2	37.7	43.1	36.4	40.0	43.8	38.1	47.7	43.2
1981	42.2	52.2	44.4	—	43.0	36.7	40.4	43.9	38.9	47.2	43.2
1982	42.3 ¹	52.4	44.6	—	43.1	36.8	40.5 ¹	44.1	39.8	46.6 ¹	43.3 ¹

2. Employment

(a) Total employment (1 000) – annual average

1960	3 481	2 054	26 080	3 514	19 581	1 055	20 476	132	4 182	24 313	104 868
1970	3 761	2 363	26 668	3 294	20 920	1 053	19 762	140	4 708	24 745	107 414
1980	3 841	2 489	26 302	3 541	21 695	1 163	21 107	159	5 080	25 188	110 565
1981	3 762	2 455	26 123	—	21 536	1 151	21 187	159	5 113	24 153	109 200 ¹
1982	3 713	2 450	25 668	—	21 526	1 146	21 119	159	5 094	23 533	107 980 ¹

(b) Female employment as a percentage of total employment

1960	30.4	29.8	37.6	34.0 ¹	32.7 ¹	26.3 ¹	29.7	25.2 ¹	22.0 ¹	33.1	33.0 ¹
1970	31.9	38.6	35.9	26.4 ¹	34.8	26.7	27.5	27.5	25.7	35.8	33.2
1980	35.1	44.0	37.4	28.1	37.1	28.1	31.3	29.8	30.0	39.8	36.0
1981	35.6	44.9	37.6	—	37.3	29.1	31.2	29.8	31.2	40.1	36.3
1982	36.1	—	37.8	—	37.8	29.6	31.6	29.9	30.9	40.6	36.9 ¹

(c) Total employment by sector (%)

Agriculture, fishing

1960	8.6	17.6	13.9	57 ¹	21.4	37.0	32.2	16.6	11.2	4.7	18.2
1970	4.7	11.5	8.6	40.8	13.9	27.1	20.2	9.3	6.3	3.2	11.5
1980	3.0	8.1	5.6	30.3	8.7	18.5	14.2	5.4	4.9	2.6	8.0
1981	3.0	8.5	5.5	—	8.6	17.7	13.4	5.1	4.9	2.6	7.8 ¹
1982	2.9	8.6	5.5	—	8.4	17.3	12.4	4.7	5.0	2.7	7.7 ¹

Industry

1960	46.3	35.6	48.0	18 ¹	37.3	23.5	33.5	44.8	41.0	46.3	41.0
1970	43.2	37.8	49.3	25.0	39.7	29.9	39.5	44.3	39.1	44.8	42.8
1980	34.8	28.9	44.2	30.2	36.0	32.4	37.8	38.0	31.4	37.7	38.0
1981	33.4	27.1	43.5	—	35.3	31.7	37.5	37.5	29.9	35.7	37.1 ¹
1982	32.4	26.3	42.7	—	34.6	31.1	37.0	36.6	28.8	34.7	36.3 ¹

Services

1960	45.1	46.8	38.1	25 ¹	41.3	39.5	34.3	38.6	47.8	49.0	40.8
1970	52.0	50.7	42.1	34.2	46.4	43.1	40.3	46.4	54.6	52.0	45.8
1980	62.3	63.0	50.3	39.5	55.3	49.1	47.9	56.7	63.6	59.7	54.0
1981	63.6	64.5	51.0	—	56.2	50.6	49.2	57.4	65.2	61.7	55.1 ¹
1982	64.7	65.1	51.8	—	57.0	51.5	50.6	58.7	66.3	62.6	56.0 ¹

Source: Eurostat.

¹ Estimate.

III. Employment *(continued)*

Year	B	DK	D	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR10
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3. Employees in employment

(a) Total (1 000) – annual average

1960	2 579	1 580	20 257	1 130 ¹	13 944	650	12 257	94	3 296	23 009	78 800 ¹
1970	3 067	1 885	22 246	1 500 ¹	16 457	725	13 355	112	4 045	22 843	86 235 ¹
1980	3 218	2 097	22 986	1 853	18 101	876	15 240	138	4 469	23 177	92 155
1981	3 139	2 077	22 877	—	17 989	868	15 262	139	4 482	22 035	90 750 ¹
1982	3 087	2 089	22 455	—	18 026	868	15 242	139	4 442	21 415	89 670 ¹

(b) As a percentage of total employment

1960	74.1	76.9	77.7	32.2 ¹	71.2	61.6	59.9	71.4	78.8	94.6	75.1
1970	81.5	79.8	83.4	45.5 ¹	78.7	68.9	67.6	80.3	85.9	92.3	80.3
1980	83.8	84.3	87.4	52.3	83.4	75.3	72.2	86.8	88.0	92.0	83.3
1981	83.4	84.6	87.6	—	83.5	75.4	72.0	87.2	87.7	91.2	83.1
1982	83.3	85.3	87.5	—	83.7	75.7	72.2	87.7	87.2	91.0	83.0

4. Employees in the iron and steel industry

(a) End of year (1 000)

1973	62.4	2.7	228.4	—	151.7	0.8	89.7	23.2	23.3	196.2	778.4 ²
1979	48.7	2.8	204.8	—	120.6	0.7	98.7	16.3	21.3	156.6	670.4 ²
1980	45.2	2.2	197.4	—	104.9	0.7	99.5	14.9	21.0	112.1	598.0 ²
1981	44.1	1.7	186.7	—	97.3	0.7	95.7	13.4	20.9	88.2	548.7 ²
1982	41.7	1.6	175.9	—	95.2	0.6	91.5	12.4	20.2	74.5	513.6 ²

(b) Annual percentage increase (+) or decrease (–)

1973/79	–4.0	+ 0.6	–1.8	—	– 3.8	– 2.2	+1.6	– 5.7	–1.8	– 3.7	– 2.5 ²
1979/80	–7.2	–21.4	–3.6	—	–13.0	–28.6	+0.8	– 8.6	+0.5	–28.6	–10.8 ²
1980/81	–2.4	–22.7	–5.4	—	– 7.2	–40.0	–3.8	–10.1	–0.5	–21.3	– 8.2 ²
1981/82	–5.4	– 5.9	–5.8	—	– 2.2	–14.3	–4.4	– 7.5	–3.3	–15.5	– 6.4 ²

Source: Eurostat.

¹ Estimate.

² EUR 9.

IV. Unemployment

Year	B	DK	D	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR10
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1. Registered unemployed

(a) Annual average (1 000)

1960	128	31	271	87	131	53	1 546	0	29	393	2 669
1970	81	24	149	49	262	59	888	0	46	612	2 169
1980	382	162	889	37	1 451	102	1 776	1.1	248	1 665	6 712
1981	472	218	1 272	42	1 773	128	1 993	1.6	385	2 520	8 804
1982	535 ¹	235	1 833	50	2 008	157	2 377	2.0	542	2 917	10 656
1983 March	563	275	2 387	75	2 017	189	2 742	2.3	768 ¹	3 172	12 192
June	545	231	2 127	45	1 878	189	2 632	2.1	793	2 984	11 425
Sept.	631	246	2 134	39	2 087	193	2 690	2.4	827	3 167	12 017
Dec.			2 349								

(b) Unemployment rates (unemployed as a percentage of the civilian working population)

1960	3.6	1.5	1.0	2.4	0.7	4.8	7.2	0.0	0.7	1.6	2.5
1970	2.2	1.0	0.6	1.5	1.3	5.3	4.4	0.0	1.0	2.5	2.0
1980	9.4	6.1	3.3	1.1	6.4	8.3	8.0	0.7	4.7	6.3	5.9
1981	11.6	8.3	4.7	1.2	7.8	10.2	8.8	1.0	7.2	9.6	7.7
1982	13.2 ¹	8.9	6.8	1.5	8.9	12.5	10.5	1.3	12.0 ¹	11.1	9.4
1983 March	13.8	10.4	8.8	2.2	8.8	14.9	12.1	1.4	13.7	12.2	10.6
June	13.4	8.6	7.9	1.2	8.2	14.9	11.6	1.3	14.2	11.5	9.9
Sept.	15.4	9.2	7.9	1.1	9.1	15.2	11.9	1.5	14.8	12.2	10.4
Dec.			8.7								

2. Structure of unemployment

(a) Proportion of women among the unemployed (%)

1960	25.4	11.7	34.1	—	37.4	11.5	28.8	—	16.9	27.9	28.8 ⁴
1970	42.1	18.0	37.6	—	44.4	16.8	30.1	—	21.6	15.3	27.9 ⁴
1980	62.4	45.7	52.0	40.6	54.6	23.9	46.0	51.9	35.5	29.1 ¹	44.7
1981	57.9	41.8	48.7	39.7	51.5	23.5	47.7	46.8	32.0	26.9	42.1
1982	54.6 ¹	43.0	44.3	38.8	50.0	24.1	48.6	46.5	30.6	26.9	41.1
1983 March	53.3	42.0	41.0	37.1	48.8	24.3	46.7	41.5	29.8 ¹	26.9	39.5
June	53.6	47.1	44.8	41.9	48.9	25.1	48.6	46.5	31.8	28.1	41.2
Sept.	53.9	49.9	46.3	35.8	49.6	25.3	48.2	48.1	32.9	30.4	42.3
Dec.											

(b) Proportion of young persons² among the unemployed (%) – October

1975	44.0	—	28.6	—	47.7	—	—	—	41.3	36.6	—
1980	41.4	32.6	27.3	—	46.4	25.2	51.4	53.3	47.2	44.6	43.6 ³
1981	41.3	31.0	29.8	—	46.9	27.5	54.0	51.8	47.4	43.1	43.7 ³
1982	40.4	29.0	30.3	—	46.4	29.5	48.7 ¹	50.9	42.5 ¹	39.5	41.7 ³
1983	39.0	29.3	—	—	45.2	30.7	49.9	53.9	41.0	40.7	41.0 ³

Source: Eurostat.

¹ New statistical series.

² Aged under 25.

³ EUR 9.

⁴ Estimate.

V. Industrial relations – Working conditions

Year	B	DK	D	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR10
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1. Trade-union membership^a (union members as a percentage of all workers)

1960	62	70	38	20/25	24	44	55/60	60	38	44	42
1970	66	70/75	38	25	23	50	50/55	55	36	46	41
1980/82	70/75	75/76	42	25/30	25	50	55/60	55/60	37	52/53	45/46

2. Industrial stoppages

(a) Average number of days lost per year (1 000)

1960/69	270	278	219	216 ^a	(17 400)	420	13 993	—	69	3 555	36 420
1970/79	826	507	1 165	—	3 558	585	17 843	1.6	165	12 835	37 485
1980	222	192	128	2 617	1 674	412	13 514	0	55	11 964	30 780
1981	—	651	60	711	1 496	434	8 664	0	24	4 267	—
1982	—	93	15	—	2 327	434	16 243	80	215	7 916	—

(b) Average number of days lost per 1 000 employees

1960/69	99	176	11	195 ^a	(1 167)	607	1 137	—	21	154	472
1970/79	269	260	54	—	211	759	1 310	0	41	570	436
1980	71	93	6	1 570	95	479	920	0	13	523	343
1981	—	315	3	420	86	509	589	0	5	197	—
1982	—	45	1	—	133	511	1 108	579	50	375	—

3. Weekly hours of work

(a) Usual contractually agreed hours of work of industrial workers

1960	45–46	48	40–45	48	40 ¹	44	46½–48	44–48	45–48	43–44	40–48
1970	42–44	42½–41¾	40–41	48	40 ¹	41–42	42–44	41–45	42½–43¾	40–41	40–48
1980	37½–40	40	40	43–44	40 ¹	40	36–40	40	40	39–40	36–44
1981	37½–40	40	40	42–43	40 ¹	40	36–40	40	40	38–40	36–43
1982	37½–40	40	40	41	39 ²	40	35–40	40	40	37½–40	35–41

(b) Hours of work offered to industrial workers – October

1966	44.2	—	43.9	43.6 ^a	47.3	—	44.6 ³	45.7	45.9	—	—
1970	42.7	—	44.1	44.6 ^a	45.9	—	42.5	45.0	44.3	—	—
1980	35.7	—	41.6	39.0 ^a	40.9	42.3	38.4	40.2	40.8	40.7	—
1981	35.9	—	41.3	39.0 ^a	40.6	42.5	38.6	40.6	40.7	41.4	—
1982	34.9	—	40.0	37.8 ^a	39.4	41.7	37.5	39.0	40.6	41.4	—

4. Basic paid annual holidays for industrial workers as laid down in collective agreements (days)^a

1960	12	18	12–18	6–12	18	12	12	8–18 ^a	12*–15*	12	6–18
1970	18	18	16*–24*	6–12	24	12–18	12–15	18–24	15*–18*	12–18	6–24
1980/81	24	26*–30	21*–30*	10–12	24	17*–19	20*–24	25*	20*–24*	18–23	10–30
1982	24	26*–30	21*–30*	12–24 ⁷	30	17*–19	20*–24	25*	22*–25*	19–25	12–30

V. – Industrial relations – Working conditions (continued)

Year	B	DK	D	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR10
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5. Public holidays paid for and not worked (fixed by legislation and laid down in collective agreements)

1960	10	9½	10–13	6	4–7	6–7	17	10	7	6–7	4–17
1970	10	9½	10–13	6	8–10	6–7	17	10	7	6–7	6–17
1980/82	10	9½	10–13	6	11	7–8	10–11	10	7–8	8	6–13

¹ Normal hours fixed by legislation.

² From 1 February.

³ 1967.

⁴ Paid hours of work.

⁵ Weekdays: where the figure relates to days of work it is marked with an asterisk.

⁶ According to certain works agreements.

⁷ After one year's seniority.

⁸ Estimate.

Source: 1, 3(a), 4 and 5: Commission;
2, 3(b): Eurostat.

VI. Income, wages, labour costs

Year	B	DK	D	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR10
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1. Gross domestic product per inhabitant at current prices and purchasing power parities

1960	1 032	—	1 207	391	1 047	662	834	1 543	1 108	1 236	1 059
1970	2 378	2 751	2 631	1 173	2 463	1 457	2 067	3 067	2 460	2 349	2 344
1980	8 209	8 505	8 790	4 333	8 489	4 825	6 777	9 189	8 140	7 172	7 703
1981	8 790	9 286	9 590	4 647	9 240	5 256	7 365	10 254	8 715	7 629	8 335

2. Average annual remuneration of employees

(a) Average annual rates of increase in nominal terms (%)

1960/70	7.8	(10.3)	8.6	9.8	9.4	9.9	10.6	6.7	10.6	7.1	8.8
1970/80	12.0	11.5	8.5	18.3	13.8	18.1	18.5	10.5	11.0	16.1	13.3
1980/81	7.3	10.2	5.3	23.9	14.5	18.5	22.0	7.7	3.3	14.7	11.5
1981/82	7.2	10.8	4.5	27.3	13.2	11.7	18.7	6.3	5.9	9.3	—

(b) Average annual rates of increase in real terms (%)

1960/70	4.1	(4.2)	4.8	6.4	4.8	4.2	5.8	2.7	5.2	2.7	4.4
1970/80	4.6	1.7	3.2	4.0	4.0	3.9	3.2	3.9	3.1	1.9	3.1
1980/81	2.0	-0.6	1.2	3.5	2.3	0.7	3.7	-0.1	-2.2	2.3	2.2
1981/82	2.5	0.3	-0.2	4.4	1.8	-5.3	1.0	0.5	-0.2	0.6	—

3. Average gross hourly earnings of industrial workers

(a) converted into current purchasing power standards

October 1975	2.88	3.49	2.77	1.23 ¹	2.02	2.48	2.48	3.51	2.95	2.80	—
October 1980	5.42	5.84	4.96	2.70 ¹	3.78	4.38	4.49	5.84	4.95	4.25	—
October 1981	6.21	6.48	5.52	3.11 ¹	4.27	4.88	5.21	6.42	5.40	4.63	—
October 1982	6.61	6.97	6.00	3.92 ¹	4.72	5.15	5.64	7.01	5.99	5.13	—

(b) Average annual rates of increase (%)

Oct. 75/Oct. 80	13.5	10.8	12.3	17.0	13.4	12.0	12.6	10.7	10.9	8.7	—
Oct. 80/Oct. 81	14.6	11.0	11.3	15.2	13.0	11.4	16.0	9.9	9.1	8.9	—
Oct. 81/Oct. 82	5.6	10.2	4.2	36.5	13.1	14.4	17.0	8.2	6.9	8.9	—

(c) Real trends (indices, October 1975 = 100)

October 1960	45	48	50	—	50	45	39	50	43	62	—
October 1970	72	75	87	80 ¹	76	72	71	79	75	83	—
October 1975	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	—
October 1980	112.4	94.7	112.4	127.0 ¹	114.9	107.6	116.1	111.2	105.5	99.1	—
October 1981	115.1	93.8	111.4	130.7 ¹	115.9	107.8	121.5	107.4	103.3	98.5	—
October 1982	110.6	93.5	110.7	149.1 ¹	119.8	105.5	119.9	105.2	105.4	101.5	—

4. Labour costs in manufacturing industry

(a) Average hourly costs in ECU

1975	5.89	5.74	5.75	—	4.69	2.66	4.26	5.93	6.46	2.95	—
1980 ²	10.90	9.30	9.80	—	8.40	5.10	6.30	10.30	10.30	5.70	—
1981 ²	11.90	10.00	10.30	—	9.30	5.90	7.30	10.50	10.60	6.90	—

(b) Highest country = 100

1975	91	89	89	—	73	41	66	92	100	46	—
1980	100	85	90	—	77	47	58	94	94	52	—
1981	100	84	87	—	78	50	61	88	89	58	—

Source: Eurostat.

¹ Manufacturing industries only.

² Update.

VII. Standard of living

Year	B	DK	D	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR10
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1. Dwellings

(a) Existing dwellings per 1000 inhabitants – end of year

1960	351	328	264	242	295 ⁵	240	275	309	248	317	285
1970	355 ¹	353	341	290 ⁵	320	244	319	329	288	346	329
1980	386	422	412	354 ⁵	360 ⁵	263	380 ⁵	383	342 ¹	384	381

(b) Dwellings completed per 1000 inhabitants

1960	5.1	5.9	9.4	6.5 ²	7.0	2.1	5.8	4.2	7.3	5.8	6.9
1970	4.8 ²	10.3	7.9	12.9 ²	9.0	4.6	7.0	5.1	9.0	6.6	7.8
1980	4.8 ²	5.9	6.3	20.2 ³	7.0	8.2	4.3	5.5	8.0	4.2	6.0
1981	3.4 ²	4.3	5.9	11.1 ²	7.2	8.4	3.8	5.6	8.3	3.6	5.5

2. Durables consumer goods – end of year

(a) Passenger cars per 1000 inhabitants

1960	86	88	78	5	121	62	40	118	47	108	81
1970	213	218	230	22	254	133	190	278	181	215	210
1980	320	271	377	92	343	217	310	474	322	281	317

(b) Television sets per 1000 inhabitants

1960	67	118	83	–	41	–	42	23	69	210	91
1970	217	267	271	10	216	152	181	209	235	294	227
1980	297	362	320 ³	147 ³	292 ³	223 ³	231 ³	290 ³	296	331 ³	306 ³

(c) Telephones per 1000 inhabitants

1960	124	174	107	28	95	57	77	162	140	92	96
1970	211	342	225	120	172	104	174	327	168 ¹	268	211
1980	369	641	464	291	460	190	337	570	517	496	436

3. Consumer prices

(a) 1975 Index = 100

1960	50 ⁴	36	57	46	44	34	40	55 ⁴	43	37	–
1970	67 ⁴	64	74	56	66	54	58	71 ⁴	66	54	64
1980	136.0 ¹	164.0	122.0	212.6	164.5	193.2	213.1	134.2 ⁴	134.9	195.6	167.0
1981	146.5	183.3	129.2	264.7	186.5	232.6	254.8	145.1 ⁴	144.2	218.9	188.4
1982	159.2	201.9	136.1	320.1	208.9	272.5	296.6	158.6 ⁴	152.7	237.7	209.1

(b) Annual average rate of increase

1960/70	3.0	5.9	2.7	2.1	4.0	4.8	3.9	2.6	4.5	4.0	–
1970/80	7.4 ¹	9.8	5.1	14.3	9.6	13.7	13.8	6.6	7.4	13.7	10.0
1980/81	7.6	11.7	5.9	24.5	13.4	20.4	19.6	8.1	6.9	11.9	12.8
1981/82	8.7	10.1	5.3	20.9	12.0	17.2	16.4	9.3	5.9	8.6	11.0

Source: Eurostat.

¹ New statistical series.

² Dwellings begun.

³ 1979.

⁴ Excluding rents and associated costs.

⁵ Estimate.

VIII. Social protection

Year	B	DK	D	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR10
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1. Total social protection expenditure as a percentage of the gross domestic product

1970	18.5	19.6	21.5	13.6 ¹	19.2	13.2	17.4	16.4	20.8	15.9	19.3 ³
1975	24.5	25.8	28.0	14.3 ²	22.9	19.4	22.6	22.4	28.1	19.5	24.2 ³
1980	27.6	28.7	28.7	—	25.9	22.2	22.8	25.6	30.5	21.4	25.8 ³
1981	30.2	29.3	29.5	—	27.2	23.4	24.7	27.1	31.7	23.5	27.1 ³

2. Social protection benefits

(a) Benefits per inhabitant at 1975 prices and purchasing power parities

1970	650	800	860	—	720	300	510	760	770	590	680 ³
1975	1030	1210	1240	—	1000	500	760	1100	1200	820	980 ³
1980	1280	1390	1520	—	1290	640	930	1450	1490	970	1200 ³
1981	1360	1410	1540	—	1340	660	1000	1490	1500	1030	1250 ³

(b) Benefits according to function (%)

1970											
<input type="checkbox"/> Sickness	22.3	29.2	27.7	—	26.9	28.7	26.3 ⁴	17.2	29.8	26.3	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Invalidity, employment injury	10.5	14.1	12.6	—	9.9	10.2	21.3 ⁴	7.8	12.1	9.2	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Old age, survivors	37.8	36.3	45.6	—	41.1	36.9	34.8 ⁴	63.0	40.4	46.9	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Maternity, family	19.1	14.1	10.2	—	16.8	17.1	12.9 ⁴	11.5	14.0	10.8	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Unemployment, vocational training, placing	4.3	2.8	2.0	—	2.0	5.7	1.1 ⁴	0.0	3.3	4.5	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Other	6.0	3.6	1.9	—	3.4	1.4	3.5 ⁴	0.6	0.3	2.3	—
	100.0	100.0	100.0	—	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	—
1980											
<input type="checkbox"/> Sickness	22.5	26.8	29.6	—	25.8	36.2	23.1	23.9	29.1	22.8	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Invalidity, employment injury	11.4	9.1	11.5	—	9.1	6.9	22.5	17.0	19.9	10.0	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Old age, survivors	38.2	35.5	43.3	—	42.1	32.5	43.8	48.8	33.0	42.8	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Maternity, family	12.3	10.9	8.4	—	12.6	10.9	8.0	9.4	9.6	13.1	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Unemployment, vocational training, placing	12.8	13.0	5.9	—	6.9	8.3	2.4	0.7	6.3	9.8	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Other	2.8	4.8	1.3	—	3.5	5.1	0.2	0.2	2.1	1.6	—
	100.0	100.0	100.0	—	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	—

Source: Eurostat.

* Provisional data.

¹ 1969.

² 1977/78.

³ EUR 9.

⁴ Data from the second European social budget.

3. Receipts according to nature (%)

<i>1970</i>											
<input type="checkbox"/> Employers' contributions	46.8	11.2	47.1	—	59.2	19.3	—	36.1	43.3	33.6	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Contributions from insured persons	21.2	6.4	24.2	—	18.9	12.4	—	24.8	35.8	18.0	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Contributions from public funds	25.4	79.6	23.7	—	18.6	67.5	—	29.9	12.5	38.4	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Other	6.6	2.8	5.0	—	3.3	0.8	—	9.2	8.4	10.0	—
	100.0	100.0	100.0	—	100.0	100.0	—	100.0	100.0	100.0	—
<i>1980</i>											
<input type="checkbox"/> Employers' contributions	41.0	10.2	39.0	37.4 ¹	55.9	24.7	58.5	35.4	37.0	33.3	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Contributions from insured persons	20.2	2.1	25.6	37.3 ¹	23.6	11.2	13.6	23.0	31.0	14.6	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Contributions from public funds	34.7	83.2	32.2	21.7 ¹	17.5	63.1	25.4	32.4	20.4	43.3	—
<input type="checkbox"/> Other	4.2	4.5	3.2	3.6 ¹	3.0	1.0	2.6	9.2	11.6	8.8	—
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	—

¹ 1977/78.

SOCIAL EUROPE

Coming soon: New technologies supplement

No one can be unaware of the impact the microelectronic revolution and other technological advances have had on an enormous range of human activities ranging from telling the time to the conduct of war. However, in spite of a general awareness (and perhaps a degree of unease) about the impact of changing technologies on their individual lives, large numbers of Europeans have neither the means nor the time (nor perhaps the inclination) to familiarize themselves with the wider implications of developing technologies.

The Commission is conscious of this gap in knowledge and understanding. Information is needed which can be readily comprehensible and designed to help people come to grips with the global implications facing European society, what is happening in other countries and how the social consequences of technological developments are being tackled at European level.

A special supplement to *Social Europe* will therefore be published three times a year entitled 'New technologies and social change'. In it some of the major challenges facing European post-industrial society will be addressed. In the first issue (to be published in April) various key areas will be dealt with, such as the controversial question of involving workers when new technologies are introduced in companies. What do employers and trade unions think? How can (or even should) there be a Community approach to ensuring good industrial relations practices in technological developments which transcend national frontiers? In the safety and health field issues will be discussed such as the advantages and disadvantages of microchips (easier physical work vs. greater mental stress), biotechnologies and genetic manipulation etc.

The work of the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions will also be reported on, especially the impact of technological development on areas such as work organization, shift work and physical and mental stress.

How far the European Social Fund can help workers and companies to adjust to technological change will be examined as well.

Nor are the Community's efforts in research and development ignored, given the longterm employment impact of Europe's strategies, particularly in information technologies (the ESPRIT programme).



Photo: Guyaux; Bruxelles

As well as giving some idea of what is happening on the social front at European level, the supplement 'New technologies and social change' will be providing summaries of reports on events in the member countries, so that progress (or lack of it), in particular areas can be compared and contrasted. These reports may be published as 'Documents' by the Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

Future issues of the supplement will concentrate on particular themes, such as the social impact of developing technologies like office automation and telecommunications, as well as reporting regularly on the latest initiatives at European level, reports on studies, international bibliographies, etc.

It is clear that the future is one in which societal changes will be endemic, many of them induced by advances in science and technology.

The role of 'New technologies and social change' will be to ensure that its readers know what is taking place throughout the Community and at European level, and are able to judge as individuals the consequences for themselves, their families, their jobs and their society.

Tim Mawson

SOCIAL EUROPE

Issues of the supplement on education, vocational training and youth policy will be appearing shortly

It is said that the future is for the young! But what future? How will they cope with it? Are today's adults giving young people the means to face the future with confidence? These are some of the many questions that parents, educators, youth movements and, last but not least, political leaders, must ask themselves. For inasmuch as it holds the key to the future of our type of 'civilization', this is very much a 'political' subject.

There is also the question of the dimensions of tomorrow's world, the one in which tomorrow's adults must fulfil their ambitions.

These, and other questions are taken up by *Social Europe* in pursuit of its commitment to a future involving the Community as a whole, since the present economic, technological and cultural challenges can be met only by an evolving Europe, by the potential it offers and the synergies it creates.

Young people must therefore be steeped in the Community spirit, their education should leave them open to different ways of thinking and different national attitudes created by history. Their vocational training should accustom them to greater mobility, whether geographical or occupational. And mobility – the key word in measures the Commission is attempting to promote throughout the Community – is given pride of place in the articles *Social Europe* plans to publish in forthcoming issues.

In the first issue of the 'Education' supplement due to come out in April 1984, a wide range of subjects will include information on the Council Resolution on vocational training policies in the 1980s, and on experience acquired in the new information technologies. The reader will also find data on recent trends in education in the Member States and on the links woven between national education systems.

In a second issue of the supplement which will be published several weeks later, the reader will find an overview of what is termed the transition of young persons from school to working life. This will include the results of a first Community programme. Factual references will demonstrate the extent of the constantly expanding activities, both in schools and outside, aimed at helping the young to become aware of their future responsibilities in adult and working life. The second Community programme on the



Photo: Guyaux, Brussels

transition to working life, which began in Autumn 1983, will be explained in order to give a better understanding of what is involved.

Social Europe, will thus be dealing with young people and what is being done for them in Europe. If you are interested in this subject, if education and vocational training concern you, write to:

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Social Europe
Commission of the European Communities
D.G. V
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- New technologies and social policy
- European Social Fund: guidelines for the next few years
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