

SOCIAL EUROPE

MAY 1984 - No 1/84



COMMISSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES

DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR EMPLOYMENT,
SOCIAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION

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Preface

At a time when the attention of Europeans is focused on the second general elections to the European Parliament, but when – at the same time – so much energy is being expended on internal quarrels, the Community is suffering the worst social and economic crisis since its inception.

With every month that passes, unemployment increases, new industrial restructuring takes place and workers are required to adapt to the requirements of technological progress.

Despite this depressing background, certain new initiatives emerge and hopes are rekindled. 'Social Europe' is going to give an overview of this constantly changing situation. In order to understand this reality in the best

possible way, the editorial board of the review wants to have the comments and suggestions of its readership. You can make your views known by writing to:

The Editor
Social Europe
Directorate-General of Employment,
Social Affairs and Education
200, Rue de la Loi

B-1049 Brussels

J. Degimbe
Director General

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Part One

Actions and guidelines

The social life of the Community in 1983



Photothèque Commission

Jean Degimbe
Director-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Education.

Every year, in the follow-up to its outline programme, the Commission presents to the European Parliament an overview of the main developments in the social field which have taken place in the European Community during the preceding year.¹

The Commission is obliged to do this by Article 122 of the Treaty of Rome; but it also provides a prime opportunity, if not for putting all the individual social measures under the microscope, then at least for an objective survey of the broad canvas of social developments throughout the Member States of the Community. It is also a chance to take stock of the Ten's new initiatives on social policy matters and the Commission's plans for the following year.

¹ *Report on Social Developments in 1983*. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, L-2985 Luxembourg.

The economic indicators for 1983 pointed inexorably towards continuing recession accompanied by rising unemployment. Two things stood out clearly: that an increasing number of people would need retraining for other jobs, and that pressure would increase for older workers to leave the labour market sooner rather than later. Econometric analyses and statistical forecasts showed that there would be 12 million jobless in the Community as a whole. Almost 40% of them would be young people under the age of 25. And more than 1.5 million young people would have been out of work for at least 18 months. The figures have now crystallized, and they do not paint an encouraging picture. At the end of January 1984, the Community had 13 million registered unemployed.

0.2% more of the Community's total working population is now in the dole queues than at the end of 1982. That is more than just a cold statistic. In human terms it means that there are now 760 000 more Community citizens without a job than there were a year ago. It makes an already disastrous situation worse. The very nature of the Social Report limits it to dealing with the 'broad sweep' of social developments; with things and people in generic, rather than specific, terms. It cannot show, in any detail, the human reality which lies behind those figures, the variety of individual situations, or the sheer number of measures taken. What it can and does do, without drowning the reader in a sea of statistics, is to offer a series of cameos of how unemployment affects social relations in

each country, how it interacts with other social problems, and what governments, workers and employers are doing about it all.

The most striking development on the social scene during 1983 was the thousand-and-one discriminations spawned by, and now heaped on the back of, unemployment itself. They are familiar to all because few, if any, have emerged untouched by them. The discrimination against young people with no qualifications in favour of those with experience, against women in favour of men, against immigrants in favour of natives; and so the list goes on. The Commission's report does not attempt to skate around these 'problems within a problem'. It shows how both national governments and their agencies, and



Photo Paul Marnef
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the Community institutions, have set about tackling them. But that is a hard road and a long one, as every issue of *Social Europe* attests.

But 12 months in the social life of a Community of 270 million inhabitants is more than just unemployment statistics and a litany of the efforts made to bring them down. True, the theme of employment runs like a common thread through all aspects of social life. Whether we are talking of vocational training, social aid and welfare, industrial relations, social security, working conditions, or any other of the nine chapters of the Report, jobs and unemployment recur as the cause, effect or condition of an existing state of affairs or initiatives taken. Take, for example, the situation of immigrants. The developments briefly reviewed in the Member States (and dwelt on at length in the press) point up a direct link between the rising tide of xenophobia among large sections of the population and the employment situation. 'Foreigners go home' slogans are sprouting up in town and city streets and on factory walls. Society is racked with the fear of being 'thrown on the scrap heap'. No one can now close their eyes to the problem and simply hope it will go away. Something has to be done about it – and quickly. The Commission, for its part, intends to put forward proposals to that effect in a communication to the Council later this year. It will be taking a long, hard look at

Community immigration policy, at the origins of our present problems, and ways of integrating the Community's immigrant populations into society and the educational system.

Outside of employment proper, perhaps the topics which have most polarized Community opinion and stirred up a hornet's nest of discussion and legislation throughout the 10 nations are the problems of how jobs will be affected by the introduction of new technology, and the reform of social security systems.

With regard to the former, all the Member States seem to be agreed on one clear priority for the future. And the principal beneficiaries will be the Community's youth. The ripples spreading out from national efforts – succinctly reviewed in Chapter II of the Report – could be taken to their logical conclusion if the Commission's recent proposals for action¹ were to be speedily passed by Council and implemented in a coordinated manner by the appropriate public authorities in the Member States. The aim would be to increase productivity in industry and open up the way for further expansion of the high technology infrastructure by adapted vocational training programmes aimed at developing multidisciplinary skills, particularly for high-level technicians.

A coordination of efforts on this scale is no longer merely essential, it

has now become a real possibility. In different ways, it is also broadly applicable to the problems of our ailing social security systems – the other headline-grabbing topic in social affairs. This comes under scrutiny in Chapter VII of the 1983 Report.

One remarkable aspect of this issue is the striking similarity between the ways in which the Member States have set about tackling their respective social security crises. But shortage of cash comes down to the same thing in any language and culture. Social security may be a bottomless pit in soaking up finance, but in that, and as far as welfare and living standards are concerned, it leaves no-one untouched. With costs growing at an exponential rate, and revenue plateauing out in the sluggish business climate, Member States found their social security systems confronted with a straightforward alternative: financial reform or total bankruptcy. The national governments lost no time in acting, sometimes with draconian severity: supplementary taxes, reduced levels of benefit, a shifting of the burden of contributions. In other words, a wide variety of across-the-board measures. And yet, in most cases, the medicine was not strong enough to get the patient back on his feet. Long-term, structural solutions are called for. The goals of the social security system may need to be reassessed. That is not a new proposal. It was mooted, in general terms, by the Commission in a communication to the Council.²

During 1983, a series of national round tables on social security were organized to give government at all levels, social welfare institutions, and representatives from both sides of industry the chance to sit down and thrash out the interests at stake and the areas where reform might be possible.³

¹ COM (82) 637 final of 21. 10. 1982 – Report on Social Developments Year 1982, para. 8
COM (84) 6 final of 26. 1. 1984 – Report on Social Developments Year 1983, para. 11 et seq.

² COM (82) 716 final of 17. 11. 1982. C. f. *Social Europe* No 00 of July 1983, p. 20.

³ C. f. page 36.

In the final analysis, then, the Report on Social Developments Year 1983 is more than a mere dry catalogue of events. It offers no cut-and-dried solutions to the Community's social problems. But that is principally because no clear answers have yet emerged from the tangled web of new situations born out of the current economic crisis through which we have now been struggling for more than a decade. It does give us an idea (albeit a fragmentary one) of how developments in one country compare with those in another. In the same way, it also offers both information and food for thought to all those wishing to lend their weight to constructing that social fabric without which the plan to build Europe will lose direction. 1983 confirmed two trends. The first gives cause for concern, for it saw a general deepening of the most

visible effects of the recession: unemployment (particularly among young people), and the thrusting of an ever-greater section of the population towards the fringes of society. The second is reason for hope. It was the evidence that, bit by bit, new structures and attitudes are beginning to take shape – particularly with regard to vocational training and the reorganization of working time.

Social policy, whether at national or Community level, must not fall behind these developments; it must match them. Not in a passive sense, or with mere palliatives, but by supporting the efforts called for from all sections of the population: efforts of adaptation and vocational training for workers and those about to embark on their working lives; for solidarity in favour of the most

at-risk and deprived groups. To put it another way, in a society in which new information technology is playing an increasingly important part in our lives, whose economic machinery is intimately tied to theories of rational behaviour and whose resources are only proportional to its achievements, it is essential that social policy plays a full part in keeping the emergent structural upheavals firmly under control. In doing so it will need to successfully combine the needs of business to remain competitive with the ability to offer the men and women of the Community credible alternatives which assure them of improved living and working conditions. And that, let us not forget, is one of the Community's 'raison d'être'.

Jean Degimbe

New technologies and social policy: a step forward

The Commission has recently recast and sent to the Council a communication on *'Technological Change and Social Adjustment'*.¹ Appearances can be deceptive, however, and the dry-as-dust title of the document in fact conceals a bold move by the Commission to add to the impact of the initiatives already taken over the past two years to deal with the social consequences of new technologies. The Commission's plan is to take these initiatives one step further with the announcement of, and first steps towards implementing, an overall Community strategy, intended to go hand-in-hand with those already under way in industrial policy, innovation and research and development.

It aims to bring about a positive consensus of all sections of society on the best way to meet the social challenges raised by new technology. This, the Commission hopes, will help sharpen the competitive edge of European industry without losing sight of the Community's objectives and achievements with regard to access to jobs and the quality of living and working standards. The Commission knows it will not have an easy job on its hands. The precarious nature of that social consensus is made all too evident with every day that passes. But it is something we cannot afford to dispense with if technological progress and our existing industrial relations systems are to meet each other half-way and work in harmony.

Now is neither the time nor place to examine the minutiae of the Commission's proposals for action. They can be found set out in detail in the supplement to Social Europe on 'New Technologies'. The least that can be said about it is that the discussion on the social reverberations of post-industrial technology is as wide open today as it was when it was first broached by the Standing Committee on Employment back in November 1981. In fact, the rapid spread in the use of microchip technology and the upheavals in established working practices and patterns which have accompanied it, have made

the technological revolution, if anything, a more pressing problem now than it was then. Looking behind the smokescreen of fashion and esoteric jargon, the truth is that we are now living through a real, post-industrial revolution. And one which is turning a very harsh spotlight indeed not only on production processes, but also on social relations.

The discussion raging at the present time is centred chiefly on the relationships between new technology and employment. Or more precisely, on the impact of microelectronic technology on the structure of employment and the operation of the labour market. But the debate itself is not new. Those techno-rebels of 1811, the Luddites, wrecked textile machinery which they saw as a threat to their individual survival. One school of thought contends that the basis of new technology is increased productivity. This inevitably leads to the destruction of more old jobs than can possibly be created by the demand for new products and services. The opposite view is that the new technology will lead to a redeployment of demand, producing a net increase in the number of jobs created. The dilemma is made the harsher by the fact that the problems and conclusions differ according to the level (company, sector, branch of industry) and whether we are mainly concerned with products or processes.

Is it merely stating the obvious to say that, in the final analysis, the volume and structure of employment depends less on new technologies as such and more on economic growth, and on the impact of technological advance on that growth? That aside, one proposition with which all sides can agree is that the policies actually implemented (or not implemented – which is a form of policy in itself!) with regard to the reorganization or reduction of working hours are not without effect on the level of employment, whether new technology is involved or not...

This total interdependence in space and time in the effects of technology on

employment clearly demonstrates that the ritual chanting of slogans, however comforting, attractive or frightening they may be, is simply not enough. And that is equally true whether you define the parameters on a political, economic or geographic basis – the Ten, the rest (i. e. the USA and Japan, clearly), competition in more general terms, and the international division of labour. At a time when many observers are predicting the break-up of Europe and the rise of a new protectionism, it might be worth bearing in mind that the failure to coordinate policies (whether on employment or industrial development) at Community level which reflect macroeconomic strategies for putting European industry back on its feet and in the international marketplace will only accentuate the pattern of job losses within the Community. The only ones to benefit from this situation will be Europe's competitors. To put it another way, whether we're talking 'chips', 'bits', 'bauds' or social dialogue – we're all in the same boat, sink or swim!

But the implementation of a Community strategy for technological change isn't a one-dimensional affair focusing on employment to the exclusion of all else. There are other considerations, too: such as the need for a huge effort in training and education, to give both workers and management an adequate grounding in the new occupational and social skills being ushered in by third-wave technology. Not forgetting the work that needs to be done in preparing society as a whole for the transformations in social and cultural arrangements for which post-industrial technology is the standard-bearer. The new technologies must be harnessed to improve working conditions, not reduce it to mere drudgery. Microcomputer technology can and must be used as a tool to reorganize and increase the flexibility of working time. Each consideration adds another dimension to the strategy which the Community needs to develop to cushion the social impact of new information technologies and technological change in general.

¹ COM (84) 6 final, 29 January 1984.



Photo J. Marton

The Community has certainly not been caught napping by these developments. The Council, for example, has already adopted two resolutions on new information technologies and their relation to vocational training¹ and education.² There are also the recent decisions taken on the European Social Fund, widening the scope for financing in operations involving new technology. There is the 'Vredeling'⁴ with all its hopes and fears (well-founded or groundless), which represents a first step along the road to social dialogue at Community level. And there are the Commission's own proposals, currently under study by the Council, on the reduction and reorganization of working time.⁵ One common thread binds all these different initiatives together. It is also the theme which runs through all the reflexions and proposals contained in the Commission document: the need for across-the-board social dialogue.

Workers, management and government at all levels will need to bury their seeming differences in the search for common ground if we are to find practical and practicable ways of dealing with the problems of employment, the impact of the new technology on working

time and conditions, the need to improve the match for a better fit between labour supply and demand in the light of the complex changes coming about in the area of qualifications and skills. The lack of, if not negotiation then at least consultation, over the introduction of new technologies should be regarded as cause for concern. It leads to resistance, if not outright refusal, and blocks the innovatory urge in all those working to increase production.

One way to make that much-needed consultation more effective and fruitful for all concerned is through the European Community. We would be fooling ourselves if we thought that we could build an organized, structured Europe this way. The example of work-sharing shows where the dangers lie in that direction: no headway is being made with national and industry-wide agreements. One reason for this is that the repercussions in other Member States of national innovations have not been properly coordinated at Community level. The same goes for European standards for such diverse things as new fuels, financial and tax incentives for innovation in small business, or even the new information technologies.

But European agreements could help boost new activities in all these sectors and others besides. And new activities mean fresh jobs.

One point it might be worth bearing in mind at this stage is that when we talk about the social adjustments coming in the wake of technological progress, we don't simply mean their effects on the standard, full-time, wage-earning employee. Without wishing to exaggerate the probable scope of the future changes, we should nevertheless be giving serious consideration to such new developments as 'telecommuting', the increasing use of subcontracting and the growth of one-man businesses. The same applies to home (or out-)working, which unquestionably provides scope for greater flexibility. But the general instability of the kind of jobs done at home, and the fact that it ties the worker to his or her domestic surroundings, can result in the fragmentation of work relationships.

The necessary response to these developments and uncertainties is forward manpower and work planning which takes local and regional factors into account in an attempt to find the best match possible between the use of economic, industrial and human resources.

Any Community strategy on the social consequences of the new technologies should not treat the problem with tunnel vision. It must not be restricted simply to implementing a policy with the sole objective of correcting the likely negative impact of the rapid spread of new technologies into the national production line, and more generally through society as a whole. Social policy must not be allowed to become the stretcher-bearer for economic and industrial decisions taken 'somewhere else'. Strengthening and

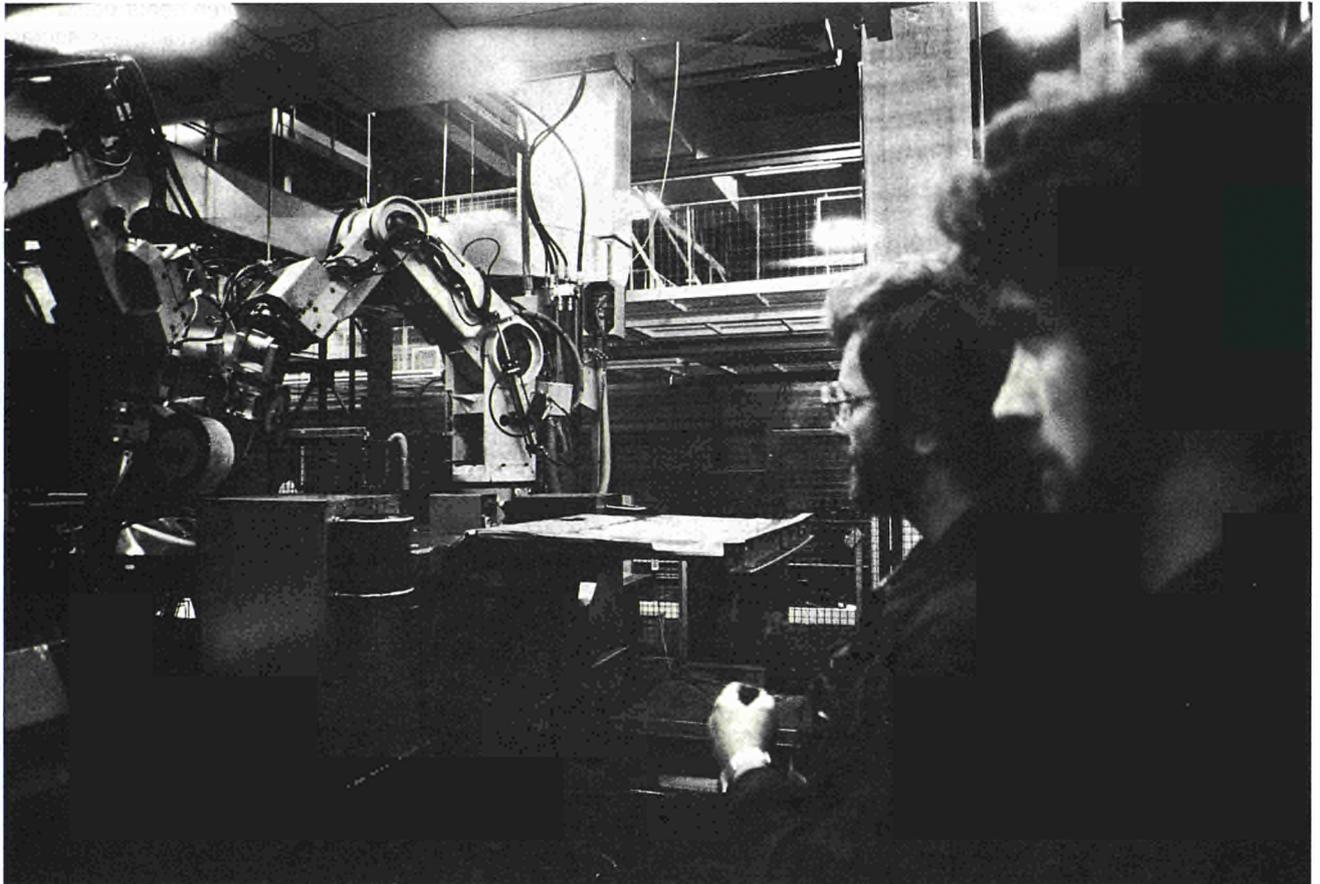
¹ O J C 166/1, 25. 6. 1983.

² O J C 256/1, 24. 9. 1983.

³ O J L 289, 22. 10. 1983.

⁴ O J C 217, 12. 8. 1983.

⁵ O J C 290, 26. 10. 1983.



The Renault car works at Vilvorde: using robots.

Photo P. Versele and Marc Deville - Copyright Photo News, Bruxelles

nurturing innovatory potential; supporting the introduction of new technology in industry, while assuring that not only the workers but society as a whole draws the utmost benefit from it; making sure that the new technology is fully integrated into the process of economic and social development. These are all sound objective reasons, if not imperatives, for making a vigorous and sustained effort at both national and Community levels.

It is an almost immutable fact that efforts at Community level are a *sine qua non* for the success of national attempts to control the social impact of technological advance. The implementation of an industrial strategy – whether by deepening the internal market, developing active cooperation over R&D, or mobilizing Community financial resources to support productive investment in innovation – must go hand-in-hand with a social strategy to which

both sides of industry and government at all levels are fully committed.

A communication is . . . just that and no more. Except that in this case, it is more. It signifies the opening of a more directed discussion, accompanied by proposals. The ball is now in the Council's court. The challenge with which we are faced is no greater or less than what we have at stake.

André Kirchberger

Women's unemployment in the Community: The myths and the reality

On 16 November 1983, the EC Commission sent a communication to the Council dealing with the problem of women's unemployment in the Community.¹ The Commission felt that the prevailing political, economic and social crisis had thrown the problem of unemployment among women into sharp relief. It therefore set itself the task of conducting an extensive analysis of the problem. The present article is an attempt to map out the broad lines of the Commission's investigation.

Over the last 10 years, unemployment among women has mirrored the general rise in the total number of jobless in the Community, both in absolute terms and as a percentage. But the differences between the unemployment rates of the individual Member States are so wide as to make any attempt to define a Community average meaningless. The proportion of unemployed women in the working population is high in Belgium (at 20%), Italy (14.9%), Ireland (11%) and France (11%), but very low in Greece (1.9%) and Luxembourg (2%) – although still remaining higher than the level of male unemployment.²

But the glaring inequalities of the situation do not really strike home until one compares the unemployment rates for men and women (which are roughly

the same), with the respective activity rates for the two sexes. In 1981, the overall rate of activity for men in the Community as a whole was 56% (with minor country-to-country variations), compared with an average activity rate for women of 31.2% (with significant country-to-country differences ranging from 46% in Denmark to 20% in Ireland).

The position of women in the labour market gives serious cause for concern in view of the continuing rise in unemployment generally and the economic and social upheavals in the job sector throwing into question many of our

¹ COM (83) 653 final. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

² Source: Eurostat unemployment 4-1983 – figures for 1982.

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established preconceptions about how we live and work.

The Commission's analysis pinpointed a number of specific causes and factors putting women in the front line of those most affected by industrial recession and unemployment, and last in the line for the handout of jobs if and when the world economy begins to pick up again.

Over and above the general reasons for the rising rate of unemployment in Europe are a number of other hurdles which only women wanting to start work have to clear.

Firstly, there is the obstacle of skills. The fact that only a very tiny minority of women possess the necessary specialized skills seems to be the greatest handicap to their securing better and more highly-paid jobs with good promotion prospects.

This situation, however, is due less to lack of training than to the mismatch between employment opportunities

and their initial training at school. Women still tend to stay in or be channelled into inappropriate forms of training for low-level jobs (textile and clothing industry . . .) or to essential but de- or undervalued vocations (nursing, teaching . . .).

Little is done to encourage girls and young women to learn a skill or trade enabling them to get a job in manufacturing industry (building, electrical goods, electronics . . .) or the service industries (engineering, financial services . . .).

The instability of the types of job normally done by women contributes to making their employment situation still more marginal. It also helps to reinforce the sex discrimination at work which starts with the segregation of training in school.

The truth of this is clearly illustrated by part-time working and other atypical forms of employment such as temporary work, casual work and home working.

With a very few exceptions, the sort of part-time work normally offered to women tends to be low-level, semi-skilled jobs holding little scope for initiative, with little job security in most Member States,¹ and with few or no prospects for advancement or further training. After all, what employer would be prepared to invest in training an employee who was only going to be there half the time or less?

Women make up the great majority of part-time workers in the Community; but here again, the national differences range over such a wide spectrum that any attempt at comparison finds itself on shaky ground: in the United Kingdom and the Netherlands, some 45% of women workers are in part-time jobs, compared with less than 5% in Italy and Greece.

Family and domestic responsibilities still largely devolve on women, whether working wives and mothers or not. They are obstacles to the career development and promotion prospects of women: while men are able to pursue their careers without interruption, women's careers are broken off for childbirth, lack of education facilities for young children, etc.

There is, however, a perceptible decrease in the number and frequency of career interruptions among younger women; but it is still too soon to tell whether or not that is a sign of a new attitude by women to the way their time is used and pointing to a greater determination to take their rightful share of the job market.

The traditional, ingrained view of women's work as secondary, providing the 'second' wage for a household, looks on the woman's job as 'pin money', merely supplementing the family, and national, income. The consequence is that women are seen as no more than a pool of labour to be tapped

¹ The proposal for a Council Directive (COM (82) 830 final) concerning voluntary part-time work aims to give part-time workers precisely the same rights as full-time employees, in proportion to the hours worked.

when needed (for a war effort, during an economic boom) and sent back to the home when jobs are scarce.

Taken together, these various factors contribute significantly to keeping unemployment among women high. But the activity rates of women are continuing to rise steadily, reflecting their growing determination to enter and stay in the job market. It is a trend which has been slowly developing over the last two decades and is unlikely now to be thrown into reverse.

But while women may continually be consolidating their place in the employment statistics, their employment situation remains marginal in terms of overall employment and stable, full-time jobs. It also limits their employability in the long term.

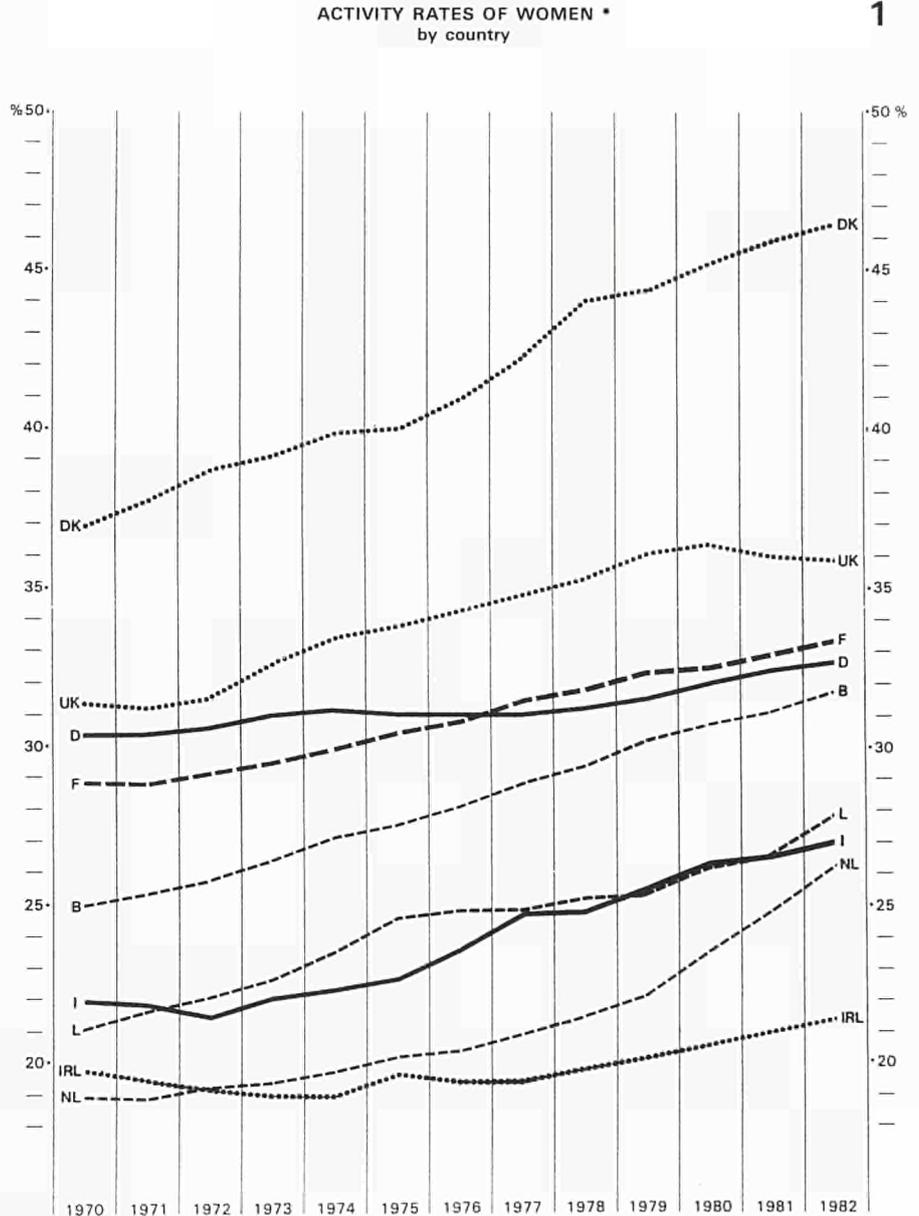
Assessment, reflection, action

Following an overview of the principal measures taken by Member States to combat unemployment (particularly female unemployment) the Commission goes on to sift out the negative results from measures with proven success. In areas where measures have failed or resulted in further job segregation, the Commission has designed a set of guidelines for action to combat women's unemployment as part of a series of wider measures to tackle the related areas of stimulating economic recovery and employment growth,¹ promoting equal opportunities for women² and the promotion of employment for young people.³

The Commission then goes on to identify specific steps to be taken in clearly-defined fields of action. Its proposals are, however, to be read subject to three overriding principles.

Matters of principle

Women have the same right as men to economic independence through work. Governments should not use shortage of jobs in a time of recession as a pretext for denying women the



Female activity rates by country (the active female population – with or without jobs – as a % of the total female population).

right to work by giving priority to male job seekers. National social security and taxation policies must recognize women's importance as an integral part of the economy.

Social policies must have coherent, integrated objectives. Efforts must be made to determine what effect individu-

¹ Council Resolution concerning Community action to combat unemployment, OJ C 186, 21. 7. 1982, p. 1.

² Council Resolution of 12. 7. 1982 concerning the promotion of equal opportunities for women (OJ C 186, 21. 7. 1982, p. 3).

³ Commission communication concerning the promotion of employment for young people, COM (83) 211 final of 22 April 1983.

al decisions in such matters as the reduction of working time and the reorganization of working conditions and job organization will have on other measures. They will also have to make allowances for the ability of individuals to adapt their lifestyles to cope with such measures. This will also require not just central and local government cooperation, but also involvement by management and labour at all levels and at all stages of implementing the policies.

Job segregation on the basis of outdated and stereotyped attitudes about appropriate jobs for men and women cannot be simply legislated out of existence. Positive action needs to be developed to counteract *de facto*, rather than legal, inequalities. These can only be eliminated by specific measures designed to meet the specific problem.

What is 'positive action'?

Positive action is a specific measure promoting employment opportunities for women.

Sociological surveys have pointed up the existence of blatant inequalities between men and women in the employment market, and between girls and boys in education and vocational training. These inequalities cannot be

legislated out of existence by equal opportunities laws. Nor can they be dismantled by an 'inevitable' change in the climate of social opinion. Society changes, but not always necessarily as we would wish it to.

What is needed in the fight against women's unemployment, therefore, is a strategy – one which will not just redress present imbalances, but also compensate for the historic inequalities.

A strategy of positive discrimination could extend over the entire spectrum of employment activities from recruitment to appointment, selection to transfer and promotion, training to actual working conditions, and so on.

It could take effect as a positive encouragement of job applications from women, by reserving places for women in training programmes, publishing information on traditionally 'male' occupations, organizing women-only retraining courses . . .

The way forward

The Commission is proposing that action be taken or continued in four distinct fields. Whatever specific or general action is taken in the public and private sectors, the guiding principle for decision-makers must be to desegregate the job market. In addition to this, the Commission also suggests a number of complementary measures which, for all their apparent innocuity could turn out to be of crucial importance in the future.

As far as creating fresh jobs and recruiting people to fill both old and new jobs goes, the Commission advocates the wider use of job creation premiums in private industry, a more balanced recruitment policy in the public sector, greater flexibility in working hours, and greater opportunities for part-time working at all levels and across a wider spectrum of occupations.

The Commission feels that one aim should be to purge training, guidance and placement services of ingrained stereotyped notions of women's role in society and employment. The European Social Fund is invited to continue and intensify its work in supporting innovative projects in the initial training and retraining of unemployed women, women in threatened occupations and those wanting to take up work again; booster training will be another area receiving particular attention. The placement, guidance and counselling services are to be expanded, and the staff are to be educated in the special problems of women job-seekers.

Underpinning the integrated action programme will be a campaign to educate public opinion on women's rights and encourage a general change in attitudes about women's role in society.

Mutual information systems will be set up to help improve the essential collection of data on the situation of women in the labour market and its relation to trends in unemployment.

Dominique de Vos

Women's unemployment
Total activity rates by sex (1981) – Table 1

	FR Germany	France	Italy	Nether- lands	Belgium	Luxem- bourg	United Kingdom	Ireland	Denmark	Greece	EUR 10
Men	57.5	53.7	54.9	53.2	53.9	63.1	59.3	52.4	58.5	58.5 ¹	56.1
Women	32.4	32.8	26.5	24.9	31.1	25.6	35.7	20.9	46	21.1 ¹	31.2

¹ 1980 figures only.

Unemployment rate by sex – Table 2

	FR Germany	France	Italy	Nether- lands	Belgium	Luxem- bourg	United Kingdom	Ireland	Denmark	Greece	EUR 10
Men	6.4	7.4	8.2	10.4	9.9	1.0	13.4	13.5	9.2	1.3	8.8
Women	7.9	11.1	14.9	9.6	20.0	2.0	8.0	11.0	8.5	1.9	10.2

These two tables illustrate the striking differences in the total activity rate of women and the rate of unemployment by sex on a country-by-country basis; they also point up the disparities between the activity and unemployment rates of men and women.

N.B. Differences in employment regulations (particularly concerning registration as unemployed) make comparisons between national unemployment statistics unreliable.

Sources: Table 1 – Eurostat – Employment and unemployment 3 – 1983.

Table 2 – Eurostat – Unemployment 4 – 1983.

Girls in transition to adult life: positive action on the agenda

The Commission of the European Communities has an armoury of directives, resolutions and financial instruments which it has not been reluctant to use in the fight against inequality between women and men in employment and social affairs. Yet the Commission itself recognizes that achieving equality of opportunity between men and women is not just a matter of legal adjustments and financial incentives:

'The legal provisions are inadequate for the elimination of all forms of discrimination, unless parallel action and measures are taken... to counteract or compensate for the impact of existing social structures on individual behaviour. Action may take different forms...'

One form of action which the Commission has taken in partnership with the national education ministries in Member States, is in transition from school to work, for it is here that girls and young women face special problems. Sex discrimination exists, both covertly and overtly, in the education and training systems, in the labour market and in the attitudes of girls, their families and friends. Sex stereotyping has a powerful influence on the way in which girls perceive themselves and their world and is shown most dramatically in the period of transition – a time when decisions have to be made.

The first programme of pilot projects on transition from education to working life helped to illuminate some of the problems facing girls as they make vocational decisions and prepare themselves for the world of work:

'Girls are still choosing occupations like generations before them. 85 % of girls' preferences are condensed to only 20 occupations... boys in vocational education outnumber girls two one' (Denmark)

'73 % of all girls choose one of 17 occupations. This creates problems: a lot of girls apply for only a few jobs and the traineeships in these fields go like hot cakes... A high proportion of girls "dream" of an office job, so any technical ability they may have is never exploited' (Federal Republic of Germany)

'Girls who look for work immediately on leaving school are more disadvantaged than boys in a similar position (within any group of similarly qualified young people, the majority of those registered as unemployed will be girls)' (France)

'In the Shannon project, it was noted that no girls undertook "Careers exploration" in the skilled areas available – electrician, mechanic or panel beater. One girl was particularly anxious to visit such a location, but her tutor dissuaded her – she felt that there was a danger that a young girl might be molested in an all male working situation' (Ireland).

'Discussing sex roles in mixed groups can be difficult – the girls get quite vociferous and the boys feel threatened because they've never thought about it before. If a girl says "I can do anything a boy can do", the boys immediately refer it to the sex act. Contrary to the stereotype, it is the boys who are laughing and giggling and nudging each other' (England).

The evidence from Programme 1 showed that transition is not only different for girls, it is also more complex. Making vocational decisions from a narrow range of 'suitable' occupations means that aspirations have to be com-

promised, with the result that girls will often aim for jobs which are far below their actual capabilities. Those who are responsible for education and vocational preparation programmes would do well to bear in mind that reducing inequality between the sexes is not only a laudable social goal, it is also an important economic one. If economic health is linked with the skills of the labour force, we should remember that 'half the brains of our citizens are in female heads'² and we should make more serious attempts to reduce the amount of skill wastage that occurs as a result of stereotyping.

The first transition programme, and evaluations of similar initiatives in Member States, helped to identify the sort of good practice and positive actions needed to tackle the problem of sex stereotyping in education and vocational preparation:

Good practice

– The existing trend towards co-education should be encouraged provided that biased practices are not imported into co-educational schools and the possibility exists for single-sex teaching within the school.

– Staffing policies should ensure more equal sex distribution at all levels of the teaching profession and in staff recruited to 'traditional areas' i.e. women as maths, physics, craft teachers; men in office studies, home economics and catering.

□ Careful attention needs to be paid to the timetabling of curriculum options – traditional 'female' subjects should not be timetabled against traditional 'male' subjects (i.e. requiring students to choose between home economics or woodwork, but not able to take both)

¹ The Community action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women. Supplement 1/82 – Bull. EC.

² Byrne E. M. 'Equality of Education and Training in the Second Level of Education'. 1978.



A knitwear school: is this still the appropriate training to find a job?

Photo J. Heylemans

and efforts should be made to encourage girls and boys to choose non-traditional subjects.

Curriculum materials – text books, films, posters, worksheets and training packages should be examined for sexist images, attitudes or information.

Careers education should actively encourage girls to consider the same range of occupations as boys. 'Preparation for working life' courses should stress the importance of domestic and parenting skills as essential for all adults; boys should be encouraged to undertake community service projects; work experience schemes should provide at least one period of work, or work observation which is 'non-traditional' for girls and boys. Within work experi-

ence or school/industry liaison programmes, students should be able to visit and talk to men and women in non-traditional jobs.

Each educational establishment/vocational preparation scheme should aim to eradicate direct and indirect discrimination and make this aim explicit through a statement of commitment to the development of equal opportunities; and a description of positive actions to be undertaken.

Positive actions

De-stereotyping measures include:

Workshops/seminars for teaching and training staff on sex role stereotyping, discrimination in education and

training and strategies for overcoming these;

Including the issues of sexism and sex discrimination in the normal school curriculum (for boys as well as girls);

Workshops/discussions within local communities with parents groups, youth workers, voluntary agencies on issues of stereotyping and discrimination.

Compensatory measures aimed exclusively at girls:

Special educational and careers guidance counselling for girls;

Provision of single sex teaching, particularly in areas where girls under-achieve or are under-represented (e.g.



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mathematics, physics) or where they are being introduced to, for them, new and non-traditional skills, e.g. technical subjects, basic electronics, computer literacy;

□ Special information materials for girls on a range of topics relevant to life

as an adult: financial matters, legal rights and responsibilities, insurance, training and retraining, employment rights and responsibilities, physical and mental health, recreational activities;

□ Increased provision of women's studies courses, e.g. the history and

philosophy of the Women's Movement, the campaigns for legal, political, educational and social rights, the contribution of women to scientific and technological development, women in the Arts and Humanities;

□ Non-compulsory education and training programmes should develop positive recruitment policies aimed at encouraging girls and women.

Putting these recommendations into practice will not be easy and it remains to be seen how teachers and trainers will tackle some of the difficult issues that will inevitably arise; but one thing is certain, to ignore the existence of sex stereotyping and its effect on girls is a form of indirect discrimination. 'The second series of pilot projects should take advantage of the lesson learned from the first: that to remain neutral is sexist – positive action is needed'¹.

The new programme, which emphasizes the links between the schools and their local communities and on the development of work experience as a part of the general curriculum of compulsory education, will provide opportunities for monitoring different forms of positive action. Some pilot projects are already addressing themselves to the issue by looking more carefully at their recruitment patterns, examining the curricular options they present to girls and encouraging girls to broaden their vocational horizons.

And in this, they can be assured of support from the Commission – for throughout the spectrum of Community programmes in employment, social affairs and education, positive action for girls and women is clearly and firmly on the agenda.

¹ Taken from the report from the Central Animation and Evaluation Team, as above.

Parental leave

A new proposal for a directive

Who is responsible for looking after small children? Should the mother be the only person entitled to leave from work to undertake this task or should both parents have equal rights? This is the crux of the problem which the Commission's proposal for a Directive on parental leave should solve.¹

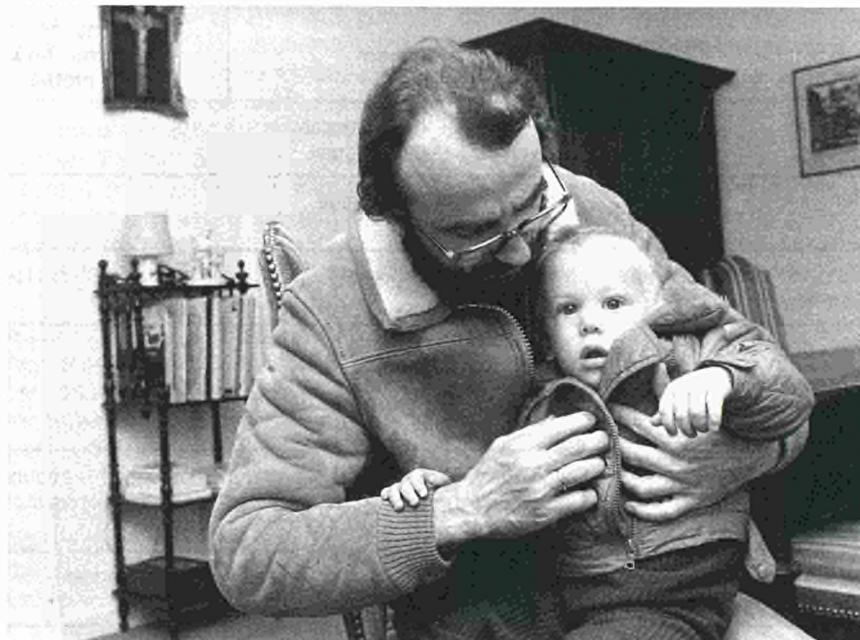


Photo J. Wouters

When a child is born, in the Member States at present the mother has the right to take maternity leave, essentially for the protection of her health. The length of maternity leave varies from 12 weeks in Greece and the Netherlands, to a generous 20 weeks in Italy. In Belgium, Denmark and France, fathers have a statutory right to take paternity leave when the child is born. This amounts to 2 days in Belgium, 3 days in France and one week in Denmark. This leave can enable fathers to be present at a birth, or to cope with other children while the mother rushes to hospital, and to fulfil administration requirements where, for example, births must be registered within a short space of time with the local authorities.

Parental leave is designed to deal with the period following maternity leave, a time still fraught with difficulties for working parents. Women's right to equal treatment in employment in all its aspects is dealt with in the Council Directive concerning the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training and promotion, and working conditions.² However there is a tendency at present

for various forms of leave to look after children to be available only to mothers, which tends to reinforce the attitude that only mothers are capable of looking after children, and that their careers are, therefore, of less importance and more easily interrupted. This attitude is also seen in employers reluctance to employ young women of child-bearing age.

Equal treatment does not imply that mothers should not look after children, only that fathers should have the same rights. The question of whether or not fathers would exercise these rights will largely be a matter of financial consideration.

The following table outlines the situation as it stands at present in the Member States for all periods of leave following the birth of a child.

Following on from the principle that maternity leave is necessarily leave for the mother, parental leave is leave that should be granted to fathers and mothers as it is essentially for the

¹ OJ L 333, 9. 12. 1983.

² Directive 76/207/EEC of 9 February 1976, OJ L 39, 14. 1. 1976, p. 40.

	Maternity leave	Payment	Optional additional maternity leave vor mother	Parental leave
Belgium	14 weeks	14 weeks – 79 % of insurable earnings + maternity grant		public sector – 3 months unpaid and 4 years to bring up a child
Denmark	18 weeks	18 weeks – 90 % average weekly earnings		new law 10 weeks paid leave for mother or father
FR Germany	14 weeks	14 weeks allowance 80 % of earnings	4 months at 80 % of pay	public sector – 3 years unpaid leave for father or mother
France	16 weeks	16 weeks at 90 % of salary + post-natal allowances		2 years unpaid – draft law to provide social security rights + payment of FF 1 000 per month from 3rd child
Greece	12 weeks	12 weeks 50 % of salary + sum for medical costs	reduction of 1-2 hours per day for mothers of small children	draft law – 2 years unpaid, 30 % of salary from 3rd child. Public sector and firms of 200 an over
Ireland	14 weeks	14 weeks at 80 % of salary + maternity grant	4 weeks unpaid	–
Italy	20 weeks	20 weeks at 80 % of earnings		6 months at 30 % earnings (for father only where mother cedes entitlement)
Luxembourg	16 weeks	16 weeks at 100% earnings + maternity grant	1 year unpaid	
Netherlands	12 weeks	12 weeks 100% earnings		
United Kingdom	18 weeks	18 weeks at 22,50 per week-6 weeks maternity pay at 90 % of earnings, maternity grant	22 weeks unpaid	

benefit of the child. The Commission has considered this principle sufficiently important to take action in infringement proceedings before the Court of Justice against the Federal Republic of Germany which provides, after maternity leave, an optional additional period of four months paid leave for the mother only. Other similar forms of leave elsewhere are in the process of examination.

To look at parental leave proper in the Member States, it exists in Belgium and the Federal Republic of Germany in the public sector, in France, Italy and Denmark and is the subject of draft legislation in Greece. In the Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom forms of 'parental leave' exist for mothers only.

The rights and responsibilities associated with parental leave need to be put in context. The Europe of the Ten is not enjoying a period of full employment. There is an increasing tendency for governments to espouse policies to encourage women to stay at home. The European Community is however committed to women's right to work and the ensuring of equal treatment in employment.

Equal treatment is not ensured by reserving entitlement to leave for the care of children for women only. Not only does this mean discrimination against fathers, but also it reinforces traditional attitudes and assumptions on the part of employers and of employees alike.

The directive also covers leave for family reasons, that is to say those

occasions when the worker needs a day's leave to cope with a home emergency, such as a death in the family or the serious illness of a child. This type of leave is already available to many workers in the Member States, sometimes by law, more often by collective agreement. The grounds for leave are usually illness of a child or close relative, and social security cover and pay are maintained.

The Commission has tried in its draft directive to set common minimum standards for the granting of parental leave and leave for family reasons. The main points can be resumed as follows:

Parental leave:

- beneficiaries – working fathers and mothers

grounds for leave – to take sole or principal care of a child, up to the age of 2

length of leave – minimum of 3 months

social security – maintenance of cover, sickness, pensions, etc.

notice – a maximum period of 2 months notice of intention to take leave and intention to return to work

guarantees – return to the same job or an equivalent job

payment – the Member States may choose whether or not to provide a period of paid leave

Leave for family reasons:

beneficiaries: workers

grounds for leave – pressing family reasons

length of leave – a minimum number of days to be laid down by the Member States

social security – maintenance of cover

guarantees – return to same job

payment – assimilation to paid holidays.

It is argued forcefully that a period of economic crisis is not the moment to give workers an excuse for absenteeism, and add further costs to industry. Do these forms of leave involve high costs? As far as leave for family reasons is concerned, it would seem that employers are in general already bearing this cost.

For parental leave, the only Member State with no form of 'additional maternity leave' or parental leave is the Netherlands. Mothers are therefore already benefiting to quite a large extent from leave to look after children.

In those Member States where all fathers have the possibility of taking parental leave (not just public sector workers), take-up by fathers so far is practically non-existent, and will by and large remain so at least until a salary is paid for the period of leave.

On the other hand it is argued that parental leave provides an opportunity for workers, particularly young workers, to get some work experience, if only on a temporary basis, by replacing workers on leave. On the assumption that

society in general is already paying these workers unemployment benefit, it could afford to transfer this benefit to the parent on leave, while the replacement worker receives the usual salary for his temporary job. Cost does inevitably play a role in any changeover of staff, but the benefits to society of providing adequate care and attention for children should outweigh the disadvantages.

For some Member States who are particularly concerned with demographic trends, and the problems of an increasingly ageing population, parental leave forms part of a family policy which will enable working parents to contemplate having children with less anxiety as to their welfare.

In an age where technology and changing employment patterns are forcing increased leisure on workers ill-prepared and unwilling to take it, great benefits could be obtained from ensuring that workers may voluntarily absent themselves from work at a time when their family responsibilities are greatest.

Sarah Evans

Protection for the part-time worker

No one can doubt that the greatest spectre haunting the recession-hit economies, not only of the Community, but of the industrialized world as a whole, is that of unemployment. In recent years, our political leaders have been increasingly asking themselves whether the road to creating fresh jobs and bringing down unemployment, and therefore the key to economic recovery, might not lie in a reduced and radically reorganized working week.

The Council Resolution¹ of 18 December 1979 concerning the reorganization of working time laid down, among other things, guidelines for part-time working.² As a result of this resolution, and as part of the overall Community approach to the problem of restructuring working time³ the Commission sent the Council a communication on part-time work setting out proposed guidelines and fields of action. It also made a number of general recommendations for specific action the Community could take. Accepting that part-time work had now become a reality on the labour market and that 'the different levels of protection afforded part-time workers by national regulations have direct repercussions on the setting up of a common market', the Commission submitted a draft Council Directive on 22 December 1981 concerning 'voluntary part-time work'. An amended draft Directive, presented on 17 December 1982, is still under examination by the Council's experts, however. The question therefore remains wide open.

Part-time working is currently enjoying a boom on the job market. The problem is that it is still largely tied to unskilled and unstable occupations. Evidently then, some form of clear, legally-enforceable regulation was necessary.

Accepting that part-time workers should have the same social rights and duties as those with full-time jobs, the problem becomes how to remove the abuses and discrimination experienced by part-time workers in all fields? Especially when some 90% of all those in part-time jobs are women. If part-time work is to be made a viable option for the future, how are the interests of workers and employers to be reconciled? Can we really harmonize a situation which not only varies dramatically between the 10 Member States, but differs significantly even from sector to sector within individual countries? And what exactly can the Community do about it?

There isn't really scope in the present article to do more than skim the

surface of these problems. In a future issue of *Social Europe*, however, we shall be publishing a more detailed, country-by-country study of the problem.

What sort of protection do part-time workers need? (I). What exactly do we mean by a 'part-time worker' anyway? (A) And how far are they already protected by existing national legislation? (B) How can more people be persuaded to opt for part-time working? (II).

What are the obstacles to part-time work (A), and how can the position of part-time workers be improved? (B)

I. *What protection does the part-time worker need?*

A. *What is a 'part-time worker'?*

The draft Directive of 17 December 1982, amending the draft Directive of 22 December 1981, defines a part-time worker as an employee who agrees with his or her employer to perform work on a regular basis for shorter working hours than the normal hours of work.

A part-time worker, then, is one who chooses to work shorter hours than normal working hours for a full-time worker on a regular basis; i. e., continuously rather than just from time to time.

The most noticeable upsurge in part-time working has been amongst paid office employees. The number of self-employed persons and family helpers working part-time in agriculture is relatively high. Voluntary part-time work is almost unheard-of in manufacturing industry.

¹ C.f. OJ C 2, 4. 1. 1980.

² These guidelines are set out in the Commission Memorandum on the reduction and reorganization of working time (C.f. *Social Europe* No 00, p. 13).

³ The problems of part-time work were highlighted in the EP Resolution of 17 September 1981 (c.f. OJ C 260, 12. 10. 1981, p. 154 et seq.) and by the Economic and Social Committee in its Opinion of 1 June 1978 (c.f. ESC 648/78).

The overwhelming majority (some 90%) of all part-time workers are women. The current expansion of part-time work, however, has brought with it a number of problems related less to the nature of the method of working itself than to the conditions in which it is frequently done. Part-time workers are rarely looked on as long-term employees and are most often used as a labour reserve. In general, they tend not to be unionized or particularly well-organized in defence of their own interests. Which is why the protection offered by existing labour law and social security law is, as things stand at present, inadequate.

B. Social protection of part-time workers

The situation varies widely from country to country.

The problem lies not just in the adequacy of statutory social security provisions, but also in occupational schemes such as company welfare plans. The immediate problem at the workplace may be, for example, that part-time workers are completely excluded from occupational welfare schemes, or that part-timers pay comparatively more in contributions for a comparatively lower level of benefit than their full-time colleagues.

This form of discrimination becomes even more acute when the part-time workers in question are women. And since the vast majority of part-time jobs are held by women, the result is indirect discrimination on grounds of sex (*Social Europe* No 0 'Equal Treatment for men and women in occupational social security schemes').

And the statutory social security provisions applicable to part-time work are particularly tortuous.

In some Member States, for example, the national insurance schemes allow pensioners to earn a small supplementary income. This acts as an incentive for part-time workers to take on low-paid jobs or those taking up only a few hours a week. In many cases, people on an income below a fixed limit

or working less than a certain number of hours are not compelled to pay national insurance contributions. This effectively means that many part-time workers at the end of a full working life will not qualify for a state retirement pension.

Not all pensioners want to give up work completely. But all too frequently, elderly workers find themselves effectively shut out of the job market by the earnings rule which calculates their pension on the basis of their most recent wage. This is a common feature of many occupational schemes in, for example, the United Kingdom.

II. Promoting part-time work

Government policymakers are now coming increasingly to wonder whether the promotion of voluntary part-time work might not be a useful tool of employment policy? Could the wider use of part-time employment provide a much-needed panacea (at least in the short run) for the problems pressing down on the labour market?

Economic managers have long since given up on the aim of maintaining full employment in favour of policies to bring down the number of registered unemployed and hidden unemployment. Part-time working could be a stop-gap solution for a wide range of job-seekers. But only if they are given a firm social basis in the form of improved working conditions and greater legal protection. The over-riding aim should be to put part-timers on the same footing with regard to social rights as full-time employees.

A. Obstacles to social protection for part-time work

Earlier in this article, I referred briefly to some of the obstacles standing in the way of the expansion of part-time work.

The principal factors weighing down on the decision whether or not to opt for part-time work, from both the employer's and worker's point of view, fall broadly into three major categories:

Social security contributions: The methods of collecting contributions for all the main social security benefits and schemes (retirement pension, sickness benefit, unemployment benefit) are either identical or display broad similarities throughout all the Member States. The actual amount of the contribution paid in the different social security systems is determined either on an earnings-related basis calculated as a percentage of the employee's gross wage, with the cost generally borne jointly in varying proportions by employee and employer, or in the form of a flat-rate contribution, with the employer paying the same amount for a full-time worker as for a part-time employee.

In the former case, the ceiling generally set on contributions (contribution assessment ceiling) acts as an obstacle to changing full-time jobs into part-time ones. The ceiling is the same for both full- and part-timers. An employer splitting one job between two part-time employees will therefore find himself paying twice as much in contributions as if he had taken on one full-time worker. This sort of situation normally arises where the ceiling is fixed at a level lower than the earnings of the full-time employee.

It will not take long for an employer paying the same flat-rate contribution for both categories of worker to realize that his part-time workers are costing him more. Faced with the prospect of paying twice the amount in contributions, he will go a long way to avoid replacing one full-time employee with two part-timers.

The contribution/benefit ratio: generally speaking, part-time workers pay proportionately the same social security contributions as full-time employees, but will not necessarily be entitled to draw the same benefits. Some of those who might otherwise opt for part-time working will therefore be deterred by the disproportion between what they pay in stamp and what they get back in benefit. Even where a continuous part-time position is offered, therefore, a worker might refuse to take it

without a guaranteed, adequate retirement pension. This kind of drawback is found even in fully comprehensive social security systems, where the basic benefits may be supplemented by contributions and benefits applicable only to those in full-time gainful employment.

Minimum working hours or minimum wage: In general, liability to pay social security contributions is tied to the number of hours worked or the level of income earned. Many part-time workers, therefore, will find at the end of a full working life that they are simply not entitled to a retirement pension. That is not a situation calculated to promote the attractions of part-time work.

B. *How to promote part-time working*

If we are to remove all these obstacles to part-time work, then national

legislation must be changed to give part-time workers the same rights to social security benefits as their full-time colleagues. That will mean revising the existing contribution conditions, giving them the flexibility to cope with the wide variations in the methods of part-time working (so many hours a day, so many days a week, etc.).

There are a number of possible ways in which these problems could be overcome:¹

- replacing flat-rate contributions with earnings-related ones;
- remove or raise the existing contribution assessment ceilings to a level where they will no longer constitute a problem;
- alternatively, a special ceiling could be set for part-time employment or arrangements could be made to

refund the additional contributions paid by employers as a result of substituting part-time workers for full-timers.

I should like to conclude this stage of the analysis of this problem by quoting the very pertinent words of Article 3 of the amended proposal for a Directive on voluntary part-time work:

'Part-time workers shall be covered by statutory or occupational social security schemes. Their contributions to and benefits from such schemes shall be made on the same basis as for full-time workers, taking into account the hours of work of the part-time workers and/or the remuneration received.'

Dimitrios Kontizas

¹ C. f. Voluntary part-time work – Communication from the Commission to the Council of 17 July 1980 COM (80) 405 final p. 27.

Social Europe will be publishing an outline comparison of social protection in the Member States of the European Communities in a future issue.

European Social Fund: Community financing objectives for priority schemes

Guidelines for the management of the European Social Fund in financial years 1984 to 1986

The European Social Fund was set up by the Treaty establishing the European Economic Community. Since that time, the Council has amended the rules governing its tasks and operation on three separate occasions, in line with opinions put forward by the Commission. The most recent of these amendments was on 17 October 1983.¹ The provisions of the new regulations were outlined in issue No 0 of *Social Europe*. The Council is to review its decision by 31 December 1988 at the latest.

The guidelines for the management of the Fund are one of the linchpins of these provisions. They are laid down by the Commission each year before 1 May, following consultation with the European Social Fund Committee and are applicable for the three financial years following. The guidelines have a threefold purpose. Firstly, to set out the operations corresponding to the objectives of the Community financing priorities defined by the Council – particularly in the fields of employment and vocational training. Secondly, to redress the existing imbalance between applications for Fund assistance and the financial resources available – over 60% for all areas of intervention in 1983. And lastly, to ensure the transparency of Fund management with regard to promoters of actions eligible for assistance from the Fund, the competent national authorities, the budget authority of the European Communities and the Community supervisory authorities.

Concentration of Fund Appropriations

The first guidelines under the new Council Regulation of 17 October 1983 were adopted on 21 December 1983. The first thing to be done was to define the geographical areas in which Fund appropriations were to be concentrated: '40% of all available appropriations for actions other than specific actions (pilot projects) are to be accorded to eligible operations complying with the guidelines for the management of the Fund and aimed at promoting employment in Greenland, Greece, the French Overseas Departments, Ireland, the Mezzogiorno and Northern Ireland. The remaining appropriations shall be concentrated on operations aimed at developing employment in the other areas of high, long-term unemployment and/or industrial and sectoral restructuring'.

As far as concentration of appropriations in other areas was concerned, the Council asked the Commission 'to continue its studies with a view to achieving reliable statistical machinery, taking account *inter alia* of the criterion of gross domestic product per capita, and to present suitable proposals on the subject before 1 July 1984 to enable the Council to act before 31 December 1984'.

In order to maintain a degree of continuity with the previous regional priorities of the Fund, the Commission produced a list of other areas eligible to benefit from the concentration of Fund appropriations for a transitional period. This concentration recognized the aim of giving priority to using the Fund's resources in areas suffering from high unemployment and/or industrial or sectoral restructuring, but not having the overall economic capacity to cope with them. The Commission's list included areas granted priority status because of youth unemployment, areas benefiting from aid under regional aid schemes under Article 92 of the Treaty at 1 January 1984 and eligible for aid under the quota section of the European Regional Development Fund, and areas

undergoing industrial or sectoral restructuring with the help of actual assistance under the non-quota section of the ERDF, or for which the Council or Commission had proposed such assistance.

Priority actions

The guidelines define the operations in concentration zones which meet the Community objectives set by the Council. These are given priority status for financing.

In certain cases, some operations meeting certain Community objectives are classed as priority outside the listed areas. This is particularly so for those relating to the introduction of new technology, or operations carried out in areas where the unemployment rate is exceptionally high compared with the national average. In cases where priority is not subject to a regional limitation, the guidelines expressly state the fact.

Joint aid from several financial instruments and joint operations

This is primarily concerned with operations forming part of integrated programmes receiving aid from more than one Community financial instrument, or operations carried out jointly by several Member States. Here again, priority is not subject to regional limitations.

Vocational training and youth employment

The aim here is to help give young people under 25 appropriate skills to enable them to find a job. The guidelines give priority to three types of

¹ Council Decision 83/516/EEC of 17 October 1983 on the tasks of the European Social Fund. OJ L 289, p. 38;

Council Regulation EEC No 2950/83 of 17 October 1983 on the implementation of Decision 83/516/EEC on the tasks of the European Social Fund. OJ L 289, p. 1;

Council Decision 83/517/EEC of 17 October 1983 on the rules of the Committee of the European Social Fund. OJ L 289, p. 42.

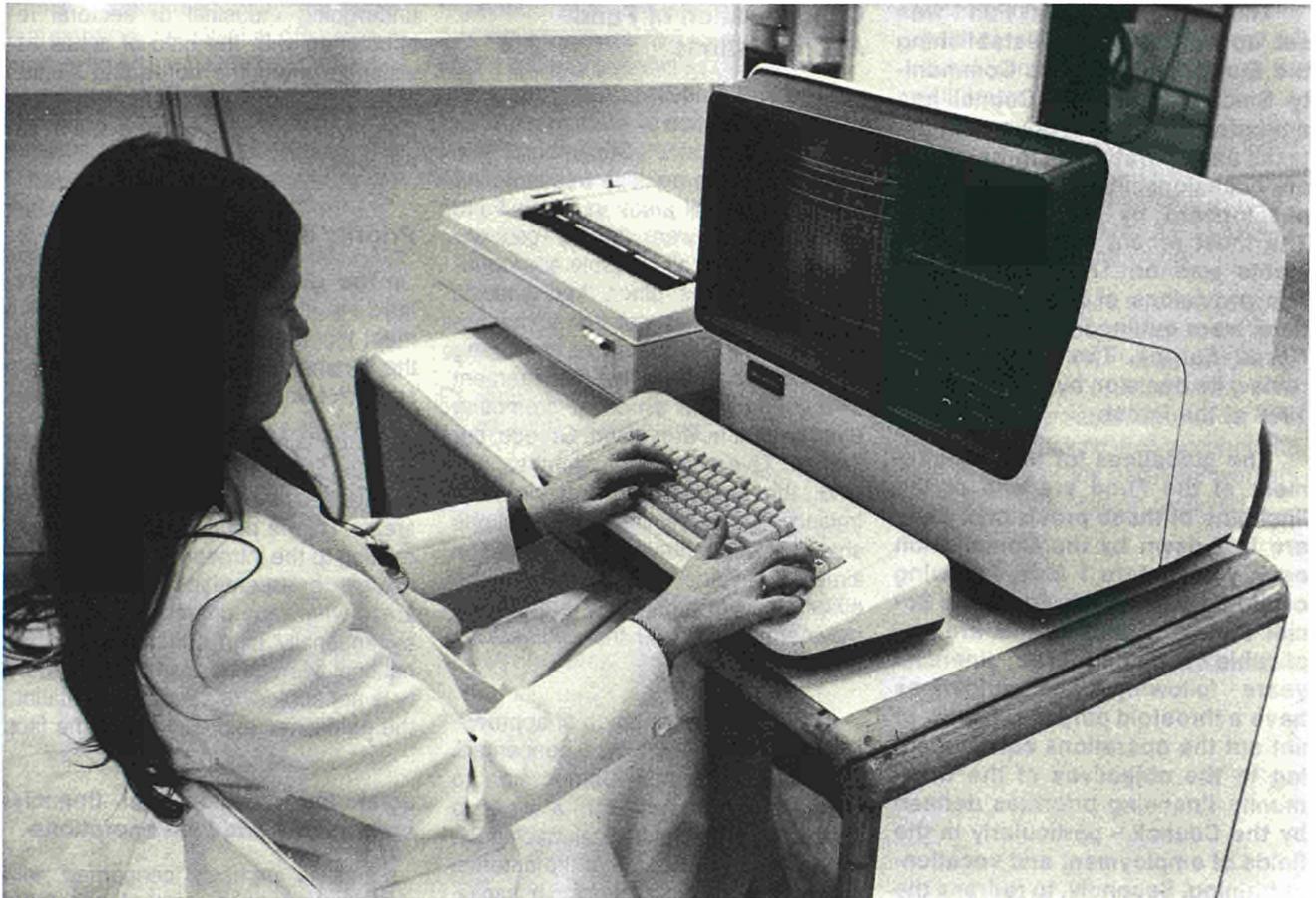


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operation in this category. Firstly, those put into effect immediately after the end of compulsory full-time education consisting of basic vocational training leading to real prospects of stable employment and including work experience under a programme lasting a total of at least six months.

Secondly, operations in favour of young people whose qualifications have through experience proved to be inadequate or inappropriate, and consisting of full-time or part-time vocational training aimed at equipping them with higher skills and qualifications adapted to labour market developments, facilitating the introduction of new technology in particular and lead-

ing to real prospects of stable employment.

And lastly, operations providing vocational training directly linked to securing an employment contract for a duration of more than one year. In this particular case, there is no regional limitation.

Industrial and sectoral reconversion and restructuring – Technological change

The aims here are: to help increase the effectiveness of reconversion and restructuring operations carried out by companies with particular emphasis on the social aspects of reorganization; to

help smaller businesses (including cooperatives) adapt to market requirements, leading ultimately to the creation of fresh jobs; and to strengthen Europe's competitive position in the international marketplace with improved chances of success in the major fields of advanced technology.

Job-creation operations accompanying restructuring or reconversion measures in individual companies or groups of companies therefore get priority status.

Priority is also given to vocational training for employees in the smaller businesses (defined as those employing not more than 500 people) who need retraining following the introduc-



Can such manufacturing industries ignore technological change?

Photo R. Marton

tion of new technology producing substantial changes in management or production techniques. For operations of this type, the regional limitation is scrapped.

Another priority field is that of vocational training leading directly to specific jobs in small and medium-sized businesses (same definition as above) to foster applied research and the development of new products, services or production processes in a variety of fields: information technology, microelectronics, telecommunications, new means of transport, automation of production processes, fibre optics, biotechnology, new forms of energy and protection of the environment.

Vocational training for people to take on the job of instructor in new initiatives to adapt training structures to the needs of the fields listed above is also classed as a priority measure.

Labour market development

Two objectives are set here: getting the unemployed, particularly the long-term unemployed, back to work, and creating new jobs. Five categories of operation are accorded priority status:

Vocational training (which includes preparatory training) for the unemployed, those threatened with unemployment, or the underemployed, carried

out in Greenland, Greece, French Overseas Departments, Ireland, the Mezzogiorno und Northern Ireland. Training given to the long-term unemployed in any other of the listed concentration zones must significantly improve the prospects of stable employment for the trainees.

Recruitment to additional and permanent jobs, or employment-related operations in projects to create additional jobs which fulfil a public need.

Operations involving vocational training and full-time or part-time employment linked with measures to create fresh jobs through a reorganization or reduction of working hours agreed between the two sides of industry.

□ Operations forming part of local initiatives aimed at creating new jobs or helping those disadvantaged in relation to employment to integrate into social and working life. Operations for development agents aimed at promoting local initiatives of this kind are also a priority matter. Both categories of operation are free of regional limitations.

□ Finally, operations, excluding help with paying the salaries of public servants, for persons to take up posts as instructors, vocational guidance or placement experts to further employment in Greenland, Greece, the French Overseas Departments, Ireland, the Mezzogiorno and Northern Ireland. Operations of this kind are not subject to a regional limitation if the aim is to promote the employment of women, migrant workers or the disabled.

Socio-occupational integration of certain categories of persons

The objective here is to help those disadvantaged in relation to employment to integrate into the labour market. There is no regional limitation.

Three principal types of operation are envisaged. Firstly, those designed for unemployed or underemployed women, women threatened with unemployment or simply wishing to return to work. Where vocational training is involved the operations must also include preparation for working life, a basic grounding in techniques and technological innovations, and measures to integrate, or re-integrate, them back into social and working life. None of these is subject to regional limitation.

Secondly, those designed specially for migrant workers and their families, either to help them integrate into the host country through combined vocational and language training, or to maintain their knowledge of their mother tongue and provide vocational training at the same time. In the latter case, those wishing to go back to their country of origin to find work may have the vocational training combined with refresher language courses. This provision only applies to nationals of Member States.

And thirdly, those designed specially for vocational training and the adaptation of workplaces to accommodate disabled people capable of working in the open labour market. There is no regional limitation on priority where the adaptation of workplaces is concerned.

Priority for innovatory actions

In addition to assistance for operations carried out as part of national employment policies, Fund resources can also be applied to specific operations designed to implement innovatory projects or to examine the effectiveness of projects receiving assistance from the Fund, as well as the exchange of experiences.

As far as specific operations of an innovatory character are concerned, the guidelines give priority to those carried out under a programme of action adopted by the Council (listed in the guidelines themselves) and designed to contribute to the development of policy and improvement of practice of the Member States in meeting the Community objectives set in the guidelines. Such operations must offer a possible basis for future Fund intervention under the various national employment policies. The aim in implementing them must be to validate methodically new working hypotheses with a view to wider application, to associate closely the parties involved (including the two sides of industry) in planning and operation, provide for evaluation, and concern 100 people at the most. Priority is not subject to a regional limitation.

Throughout the entire period during which these guidelines remain valid, the Commission will be examining the effectiveness of operations carried out in favour of certain categories of persons, as well as of certain types of expenditure for which Fund assistance is given. It has also kept the right to provide additional assistance to finance these effectiveness checks. This will be included in the assistance granted for the operations. The Commission also intends to encourage exchanges of

experiences relating to the results of certain operations which it has approved.

Approval of applications

On what basis are applications approved or rejected? The guidelines provide that the Commission is to approve applications for assistance by budgetary item, starting with the priority applications.

The overall appropriation of Fund assistance is decided by Council. The appropriations intended for Fund assistance to projects of all kinds in favour of young people under the age of 25 must not be lower in any one year than 75% of all appropriations available. Those intended for specific projects must not be lower than 5%, while 40% of overall appropriations (other than those for specific projects) are to be applied to eligible operations complying with the guidelines for Fund management and aimed at promoting employment in Greenland, Greece, French Overseas Departments, Ireland, the Mezzogiorno and Northern Ireland. Any surplus appropriations are to be concentrated on operations to boost employment in other areas of high and long-term unemployment and/or industrial and sectoral restructuring.

The new budget structure reflects this overall appropriation. It consists of three articles. Article One deals with operations in favour of young people under 25, while Article Two is concerned with adults. Each article is broken down into operations carried out in Greenland, Greece, the French Overseas Departments, Ireland, the Mezzogiorno and Northern Ireland, and those carried out in other zones. Article Three deals with specific projects. Commitment appropriations for 1984 are broken down into 1384.5 million ECU for operations aimed at young people (554 million in the six regions, 830.5 million in the other zones) and 376.5 million ECU for operations in favour of adults (151 million in the six regions, 225.5 million in the other zones).



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'The appropriations intended for Social Fund assistance to projects of all kinds in favour of young people under the age of twenty-five must not be lower in any one year than 75% of all appropriations available.'

When available appropriations are insufficient to finance in full all applications for Fund assistance for operations carried out under national employment policies, a reduction is applied. For applications relating to Greenland,

Greece, the French Overseas Departments, Ireland, the Mezzogiorno and Northern Ireland, the reduction is calculated on a linear basis on the volume of those remaining to be approved for each Member State.

For applications relating to the other areas, the reduction is calculated on the volume of those remaining to be approved for each Member State on the basis of its GDP per capita at current exchange rates and its unemployment rate. Greenland, the French Overseas Departments, the Mezzogiorno and Northern Ireland are discounted in calculating the unemployment rate.

After consulting the Member States, the Commission selects the applications relating to operations or areas to be fully financed, taking account of cases where Community assistance is particularly important to the carrying-out of the operations and the promotion of new operations. One factor taken into account by the Commission in the choice of zones is the existence of particularly severe regional employment imbalances.

The guidelines for the management of the Fund for financial years 1985 to 1987 are the same ones as those adopted on 21 December 1983. However, as a result of the experiences of the management of the Fund during 1984, the Commission might, if necessary, modify the orientations of the Fund.

Pierre Toullier

The European Social Fund: helping to improve the professional qualifications of Greek women

One of the aims of the ESF is 'the promotion within the Community of geographical and professional mobility as well as employment opportunities for workers'. The ESF is one of the financial instruments administered by the European Commission, and it contributes to the funding of training programmes and job-creation schemes.

For this reason, the Fund has recently directed its attention towards encouraging the vocational training of Greek women. This is an important objective because the economic and social structure of Greece is particularly rigid, and has been preventing women from obtaining jobs which have traditionally been occupied by men.

The financial support of the ESF allowed the representatives of the appropriate Greek organizations to meet their Italian counterparts and enabled the Greek delegates to visit pilot training schemes in Bologna and in Sardinia. The latter, as an island on the periphery of the Community, shares many of the same problems as Greece; it can, therefore, serve as a valuable reference point.

The training programmes which have been developed in Sardinia often coincide with areas of economic activity that already exist in Greece, such as crafts and the hotel business, or that could easily be developed such as agro-tourism and the preserving of fruits and vegetables. Two particularly innovative aspects of the present schemes are, firstly, the use of computers and, secondly, the increased level of responsibility offered to women in the management of small businesses.

The visit provided a forum for the exchange of views based on a wide spectrum of common experiences. In addition, the Greek delegates were introduced to the techniques of vocational training in Italy. In the long term, these initial contacts will help to lead to a wider transfer of knowledge and technical assistance from Italian organizations to those in Greece.

During the same visit, the ESF services also organized a meeting in



Wine harvest at Porto Carras (Greece).

Photo J. P. Fizet, Gamma, Paris

Bologna between the Greek delegates and some of their French counterparts. The latter were chosen on the basis that their schemes were operating in underprivileged regions, such as certain agricultural areas of the Rhône-Alpes; or the Northern part of Finistère which has suffered the consequences of being a 'peripheral' department. Such schemes could be initiated in Greece.

During these meetings more detailed discussions took place. The issue of supervision was one topic that was raised; it was agreed that it was necessary to separate the different functions of training staff. In this way, some would be responsible for teaching themselves – or securing the services of qualified personnel – whilst others would act as counsellors to the trainees. In their case, some knowledge of psychology as well as an availability for discussions with trainees would be a prerequisite in order to meet the needs of the women undergoing training.

As far as confronting their new work situation was concerned, the delegates

concurred that the most important task of the training staff was to ensure that the women would be able to overcome the formidable psychological barriers present at the workplace. At the same time, every effort should be made to ensure that the women could decide themselves about the development of their career.

As a result of this exchange of views, the Greek delegation was able to outline several plans of action. This should result in the application of a range of vocational training projects which will open up job opportunities in sectors where, taking into account the Greek context, women are under-represented. In the long term, the Greek delegation hopes to encourage changes both in the mentality and behaviour of Greek women and their families, as well as among those responsible for vocational training. This should encourage further new initiatives. It is likely that, in the future, more Greek projects will be approved for ESF funding.

**Sophie Cheminant
Annamaria de Mohr
Christiane Specht**

A vocational training project in Sardinia: The profession of Tourism Organizer

This training project was carried out at the beginning of the year, in response to the needs created by the recent increased level of tourism in Sardinia.

Only women over the age of 25 with a university degree who are unemployed are eligible. The programme aims to prepare well qualified female personnel who are able to adapt to the new structures of the tourism industry.

The Tourism Organizer receives both practical and theoretical training. Her role is to intervene in the activities of the different sectors of the industry such as hotels, travel agencies as well as appropriate commercial and manufacturing companies. This work has, therefore, an important role in improving and developing tourism in Sardinia.

Since the scheme is jointly financed by the ESF and the Ministry of Labour

(the latter provides grants to the privately-run training schemes from rotation funds), the course is free of charge. The two main aims of the project are to revalue underqualified female labour in Sardinia and to help women find jobs in an area that has been traditionally dominated by men.

A vocational training project in Finistère: The profession of Cook/Canteen Manageress

The training period ran from 1. 7. 1983 to 30. 6. 1984 and prepared candidates for the post of Community Cook/Canteen Manageress. The job is polyvalent because it entails both cooking and administration. For this reason, the course is very attractive because it allows small and medium-sized organizations to make a saving by employing one person for two roles.

The syllabus comprised cooking and culinary techniques, food hygiene,

stock-keeping as well as the improvement and equipment of the alimentary sector.

At the end of the training period, the women are capable of running a canteen of whatever size. Since the training is meeting a real need in the job market, there are numerous vacancies. Although the latter were once mainly filled by men, the programme has allowed women to achieve better professional qualifications and so, assume

more responsibilities through being more technically competent.

A grant from the ESF has helped to improve the administration of the course as well as contributing to reducing the financial burden of the trainees' study fees.

A Community first: An informal social security Council meeting

For the first time ever in the life of the Community, the Ministers for Social Security sat down together around the same table in Athens on 7 November 1983 to discuss social security problems and policies in the Community.

The initiative in arranging this informal meeting of the Ten's social affairs Ministers was taken by the Greek Government, which held the Presidency of the Community for the second half of 1983. There was only one item on the agenda – the heretofore 'untouchable' topic of social security.

1. The meeting based its discussions on the communication of 17 November 1982 from the Commission to the Council 'Social security problems – Points for consideration' (COM-[82] 716 final; c. f. also *Social Europe* No 00, p. 20).

This particular document had already been used as a working base for wide-ranging technical discussions at the thrice-yearly meetings of Directors-General of Social Security at the Commission's offices in Brussels.

One thing the Commission is not setting out to do is to try and harmonize the national social security systems. Rather, its discussion document was produced in response to the wishes of the European Parliament and Economic and Social Committee to raise the debate up from the purely national plane to Community level with an exchange of views and information on the problems facing each of the Member States.

The discussion was to centre on:

- ways of containing growth in social expenditure, particularly spending on health care;
- the potential for reviewing methods of financing social security systems;
- ways of making the social protection system more effective, particularly by eliminating some of the existing, and intolerable, privileged situations.

2. The Ministers gave in-depth consideration to the financial problems facing social security systems during a slump. They noted that national governments were still chiefly preoccupied with the heavy burden placed by social security on public spending. While the part played by the current economic climate (low growth, high unemployment, etc.) could not be denied, other factors also lay at the heart of the problem: aging populations, the slow-down in the birth rate, an improved quality of social care, the spiralling growth of health expenditure.

A number of the Member States had taken drastic steps to remedy the

crisis. In some, certain benefits had been cut, but with only relative success. The root problem still remained. The only way out of the crisis was to radically reform the existing social security systems and set them on an entirely new course.

The Ministers naturally discussed the problem of financing in considerable depth. That apart, however, they also displayed keen interest in a number of other aspects, including:

- how to contain the rising cost of social expenditure;
- how to combat abuses of the system;
- attempts at coordination inside the various national social security administrations;
- the problems of migrant workers;
- regeneration of the state retirement pension system;
- action to be taken in the field of sickness and invalidity insurance.

3. The Ministers also hoped that there would be other meetings of this kind, whether formal or informal, in the future. They emphasized the importance of, and the need for, an ongoing exchange of views and information on the problems shared by all Member States – the high costs of social benefits, aging populations, containment of expenditure, methods of financing, combating abuse and fraud. There was a unanimous feeling that whatever work is done at Community level, it should not be done with the aim of harmonizing the social security systems. They felt it would be a good idea for the Commission to prepare a list of shared problems before opening up the discussion any further at Community level, however.

The Ministers agreed to hold another Council meeting sometime early in 1984. The French Government took the initiative here, and an informal meeting of Social Security Ministers took place on 5 April 1984 in Paris. The Council discussed the points of com-

mon interest raised at Athens, together with topics put forward by the French Government, such as 'population demography and its socioeconomic repercussions for the Community'.

4. The Commission's intention in producing its November 1982 discus-

sion document was to stimulate the widest-ranging debate possible, both within the Member States and at Community level. The Athens Council of 7 November 1983 took up the Commission's challenge. Admittedly, it was an informal meeting only, with each Minister free to speak his own mind on topics

of particular concern to him. But that did not prevent a number of problems of common concern from being raised. Problems deserving of more in-depth consideration and extended discussion.

Dimitrios Kontizas

Illiteracy in the European Community

In its resolution of 13 May 1982,¹ the European Parliament took an uncompromising stance on the problems of illiteracy in the European Community, and on the need for national governments and Community institutions to work together in their respective fields and using the means available to them, to combat this thorn in the flesh of society.

Despite the fact that compulsory education has been the rule in all Member States for several decades (and in some for the past century), there still remains a large proportion of Community citizens who are totally unable to read or write, and many more who can barely do so, or have simply forgotten how.



Photo Luc Prisset, ATD Quart-Monde

We cannot point to any single reason for illiteracy – the causes are as many as they are various. In general, it is difficult to trace the causes, since those who cannot read or write tend to become adept at concealing their disability. This also prevents reliable and significant statistics being compiled on the problem.

The very concept of illiteracy (and the corresponding notion of literacy) is a shifting one which varies with the level of cultural, political, social and economic development of society. The rapid growth and expanding use of new information technologies throughout the Member States, for example, will be a contributory factor in raising the level of education at which a person is considered to be sufficiently literate to get through his daily life effectively and to enable him to develop his personality and his cultural, occupational and social skills and talents. Literacy and illiteracy will take on different meanings, therefore, according to the level of development of a country or group of countries. Which is one reason why the very general definitions of literacy and illiteracy (as well as functional literacy and illiteracy) recommended by Unesco² do not seem to me particularly relevant to the prevailing situation in the Euro-

pean Community. There are, however, no statistics available for the Member States as a whole to back up any particular working definition; all we have are the overall and partial estimates compiled by independent researchers and Unesco.³

At a conservative estimate, the total number of functional illiterates over school-leaving age in all the Member States would be somewhere between 10 and 12 million people out of a total population of some 270 million.

But that population is no more homogeneous than the global one. It is a mixed bag of migrant workers, inhabitants of shanty towns, gypsies, travelling circus people and other itinerants, inhabitants of isolated and underdeveloped rural areas, rejects and dropouts from the school and training systems, those on the very fringes of society regarded virtually as social out-

¹ OJ C 149, 14. 6. 1982, p. 85.

² Revised recommendation concerning the international standardization of statistics on education (Paris, 27 November 1978).

³ Unesco – *Statistical Yearbook 1982* – Table 13; Unesco – *Estimates and Projections of Illiteracy* (Division of Statistics on Education – Office of Statistics – September 1978).

casts because of their personality defects, lack of social skills or economic power.

It cannot be too strongly urged, however, that illiteracy is not a problem that can be tackled in a vacuum. One of the findings of the report on adult illiteracy in the United States¹ compiled for the Ford Foundation by Carman St. John Hunter and David Harman was that a significant proportion of the adult population was seriously disadvantaged not only in terms of their general education, but equally in many other areas of daily life such as employment, housing, food, health care and the public social services in general. Indeed, there seems almost to be an interaction at work between these various minority-creating situations, giving rise to feelings of permanent insecurity and frustration in those affected. According to Persell,² the roots of these particular problems of adult life can be traced back to the selection process at school, by which children are pigeon-holed into various social roles according to parental status and income.

McDermott,³ on the other hand, takes the view that the cultural process of education institutionalizes attitudes of superiority and inferiority on the basis of race, ethnic origin, sex, age and social class. The high proportion of children of ethnic minorities who have never learned to read can therefore be explained in terms of this cultural discontinuity.

There exists, then, both the general problem of how far our school systems are a cause of, and contributory factor in maintaining, illiteracy among the most deprived sections of the population, and a more specific problem of adult illiteracy and semi-literacy. Clearly, schools can and must work effectively to avoid turning out members of society who can neither read nor write; this will mean revising, and in certain cases, radically overhauling not only their curricula, but also their teaching methods and even their educational goals.

Alongside this process, society itself will need to develop towards struc-



Photo Luc Prisset, ATD Quart-Monde

tures whose central ethos is greater social justice, and in which no place exists for misery, despair and the marginalization of people.

A full array of adult literacy programmes to combat illiteracy and help the semi-literate need to be implemented either within the general adult education system or as part of specific occupational training and work integration programmes.

Inability to read and write is a problem inherent in human society; and the first-line response to it must come from central, regional and local government.

A number of the Member States already have literacy programmes running, or sponsor such programmes run by local authorities or voluntary organizations.

These national initiatives to tackle the illiteracy problem should be continued and supported. But more also needs to be done on the technical, administrative and financial fronts to lift these literacy programmes from the fringe position they currently occupy in certain countries and place them squarely in the mainstream of educational resources. Only then will we fully achieve the objectives of an adult training and social development policy

which does not pass by the least favoured and most disadvantaged members of society.

The Community, too, can play an effective part in the fight against illiteracy. Using its strategies and policies in the economic, social, cultural and educational fields, together with Community action as a whole – particularly those measures aimed at combating unemployment and improving the use of Community funds and resources – an attack can be mounted on the structural causes of illiteracy.

But the Community must also take specific action to 'demarginalize' those afflicted with this terrible social handicap.

What must not be allowed to happen is for literacy programmes to become 'one-off' events working in total isolation from the mainstream of education; they must form an integral part of

¹ *Adult illiteracy in the United States* (Ford Foundation, 1979).

² C. H. Persell – *Education and Inequality* (New York, 1977).

³ R. P. McDermott – 'Achieving school failure': An anthropological approach to illiteracy and social stratification (in *Education and Cultural Process* – New York, 1974).

an on-going adult education programme.

If the aim is simply to turn out people capable of reading and writing, without providing the necessary follow-up in the form of adult further education, then the programme will be unbalanced and will find itself on a one-way street to failure.

Illiteracy can have negative, even disastrous, effects on the social and working lives of those suffering from it. Particular attention should be devoted to the possibilities of linking education in basic skills with vocational preparation wherever possible. Thought should be given to helping working or unemployed adults to 'recover' that proficiency in 'the 3 Rs' which they struggled to acquire in what primary education they managed to get, and which they have now simply forgotten.

The current high levels of unemployment, coupled in most Member States with a radical change from traditional patterns of unskilled work towards highly specific, skilled occupations, makes it imperative for all workers to possess the necessary basic literacy skills to give them the widest possible choice in their working lives.

It also provides an opportunity to upgrade those basic literacy skills; it is a chance that we must not let slip by.

The experiences of all nations throughout the world in the teaching of

reading and writing indicates that adults will not seriously apply themselves to learning how to do either unless they are highly motivated to do so.

For some, the strongest motivation possible will be unemployment or the threat of it. Experience in industrial towns and cities has shown that changes of job and periods of unemployment provide unique opportunities for many workers to get precisely that basic training.

The Commission, for its part, is not only pushing ahead with discussions on how to strengthen Community support for the drive against illiteracy in the Member States, it is also in the throes of developing the following lines of action:

- (i) support for projects and studies centred on topics of common concern to Member States. Projects must associate research and action in a suitable manner;
- (ii) promoting and, where necessary, organizing regular exchanges of information and innovatory experiences between Member States;
- (iii) as part of a closer cooperation between the Community and Member States, taking steps to assure better compilation and more widespread use of statistics with a view to monitoring progress made and planning such other initiatives as are shown to

be necessary inspired by a spirit of constructive realism;

- (iv) setting priorities, giving literacy drives the importance they merit when implementing Community actions to be taken as a result of the Council Resolutions of 2 June 1983 concerning vocational training measures relating to new information technologies¹ and 11 July 1983 concerning vocational training policies in the European Community in the 1980s,² and the Resolution of the Council and the Ministers for Education meeting within the Council of 19 September 1983 on measures relating to the introduction of new information technology in education.³
- (v) during the implementation of Council Decision 83/516/EEC of 17 October 1983 on the tasks of the European Social Fund⁴ and Council Regulation (EEC) No 2950/83 of 17 October 1983 on the implementation of that Decision,⁵ giving particular consideration to operations likely to make an effective and coherent contribution to training and eventually finding a job for the illiterate and semi-literate, who have unquestionably been among those bearing the brunt of the recession and the crisis in employment.

Giuseppe Porcasi

¹ OJ C 166, 25. 6. 1983, p. 1.

² OJ C 193, 20. 7. 1983, p. 2.

³ OJ C 256, 24. 9. 1983, p. 1.

⁴ OJ L 289, 22. 10. 1983, p. 38.

⁵ OJ L 289, 22. 10. 1983, p. 1.

Toxicology today

In recent decades the development of science has led to considerable progress in chemistry (including better knowledge of chemical structures and analytical methodology) and medicine, allowing better evaluation of health risk. At the same time the nature of health problems has changed with the disappearance of certain epidemics and the eradication of some diseases. As a result more attention has been drawn to xenobiotic related diseases. With the increased sensitivity of analytical methods, the identification of toxic agents has become possible at much lower concentrations, pointing out previously hidden problems. Thus adverse effects have been detected earlier, and the concept of toxicovigilance developed. The public now seeks a better understanding of the toxic effects produced by agents, better preventive measures and appropriate health protection.

The difficulties associated with the identification of the hazard of chemical substances and the need to review existing toxicological data and develop information on hazardous chemicals, in particular at Community level, resulted in June 1978 in a decision of the Commission to set up an Advisory Committee to examine the toxicity and

ecotoxicity of chemical compounds. It is composed of independent scientists from the 10 Member States, forming one section devoted to toxicological matters and the other to ecotoxicology.

Each mandate covers a period of 3 years. During the first period the Chairman of the Scientific Committee was Professor A. Lafontaine (Belgium) and the vice chairmen, respectively Chairman of the toxicology section Dr. E. M. B. Smith (UK) and Professor F. Korte (FRG), Chairman of the ecotoxicology section.

For the second mandate Professor R. Truhaut (F) has been elected as the Chairman, the vice chairmen are Professor F. Kemper, Chairman of the toxicology section and Professor F. Bro Rasmussen (DK), Chairman of the ecotoxicology section.

The task of this committee is to examine at the request of the Commission all matters relating to the toxicity and exotoxicity of chemicals, whose use could have detrimental effects on human health and the ecosystems.

Concerning toxicological matters the Committee has given opinions on:

- (i) toxicological problems affecting the general population and requir-

ing urgent evaluations with a view to action at community level;

- (ii) the principles and definitions involved in several directives.

The Committee's current work programme includes questions on:

- (i) health problems caused by asbestos in materials and products;
- (ii) toxicological evaluation of compounds in toys;
- (iii) toxicological evaluation of named substances such as dibromoethane.

The Commission plans to publish in the near future an activity report containing the opinions formulated to date by this committee.

The need for such a committee has been demonstrated by increased public concern concerning hazardous chemicals. This has also resulted in a significant growth in public interest in the toxicological evaluations of such chemicals, together with increasing control measures.

To answer to the need for a more coordinated approach to the whole area of toxicology, the Commission is currently establishing a list of priority areas which will require action in the field of toxicology.



Professor Alphonse Lafontaine
 Honorary Director of the Belgian Institute of Hygiene and Epidemiology
 Member of Belgian Higher Council of Hygiene and Public Health
 Professor at the University of Louvain
 Member, Executive Committee of WHO and Member Administrative Council of UNPE



Professor René Truhaut
 Member, L'Institut de France – Academy of Sciences
 Member, Academy of Medicine and the National Academy of Pharmacy
 Honorary Professor of Toxicology and Industrial Hygiene at the Faculty of Biological and Pharmaceutical Sciences, René Descartes University – Paris
 Doctor of Sciences
 Member, French Academy of Agriculture and French Academy of Veterinary Medicine



Doctor Edward M. B. Smith
 Member, Faculty of Occupational Medicine, Royal College of Physicians (London)
 Former Senior Medical Officer, UK Department of Health and Social Security
 Member, British Society of Toxicology
 Member, UK Delegation to the Chemicals Programme of the OECD



Professor Fritz H. Kemper
 Director, Institute of Pharmacology and Toxicology, University of Munster
 Dean of the Medical Faculty, University of Munster
 Scientific Adviser, Federal Health Office (Berlin)
 Member, German Pharmacology Society, German Internal Medicine Society, German Society of Endocrinology



Professor Dr Friedhelm Korte
 Professor, Chair of Ecological Chemistry
 Director of the Chemistry Institute, Technical University of Munich – Weihenstephan
 Director, The Institute of Ecological Chemistry of the Society for Research on Radiation and the Environment (Munich)
 Visiting Professor of Toxicology (Albany Medical College – USA) and Ecotoxicology (Gakushuin University – Tokyo)



Professor Finn Bro-Rasmussen
 President, Laboratory of Environmental Science and Ecology at the Technical University of Denmark
 Former Head, Department of Pesticides and Contaminants at the Danish National Food Institute
 Member, Council of SECOTOX, Society of Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety
 Member, Danish Academy of Technical Sciences

From one Presidency to another, the Scientific advisory Committee to examine the toxicity and ecotoxicity of chemical compounds has provided important specialist knowledge and help to the Commission (details of members can be found in the Annex).

Twenty-five years of the Extractive Industries Safety Commission

The Mines Safety Commission¹ was set up by a decision of the Council of Ministers of the ECSC on 9 and 10 May 1957; its terms of reference were defined by the ECSC Council on 9 July 1957, under the then President, Jean Rey.

Either of these two dates, then, could have been selected as the occasion to celebrate the Commission's silver jubilee. As it turned out, neither was chosen, since the Commission had already staged major celebrations to mark its 20th anniversary in 1979.² Such a short lapse of time did not really justify another major celebration of that kind. But it was felt that something should be done to mark the Commission's first quarter century, even if only within the scope of the present modest article.

Why the need for a Mines Safety Commission?

On 8 August 1956, 262 miners of differing nationalities died in the Bois du Cazier pit disaster at Marcinelle, Belgium.

The accident was triggered off by a simple caging slip; but what should have been no more than a small, almost everyday occurrence, was transformed by a series of tragic mishaps and causes piled one on top of the other, into a disaster. An electric arc sparked off an oil fire; this spread, cutting of two pits and melting cables. The faceworkers in the isolated pits choked to death in the fumes.

Out of 275 underground workers on that fateful shift, only 13 were to return to the surface.

Workers everywhere were profoundly shocked by the tragedy, which gave rise to a spontaneous upsurge in European solidarity.

On 16 August 1957, the High Authority asked the Council of Ministers to give its seal of approval to a European Conference on Safety in Mines. The Council gave the go-ahead on 6 September 1957. The aims of the Conference were to raise the standards of safety in mines as high as possible by formulating safety rules, making sure they were implemented effectively, laying the groundworks for the establishment of a permanent supervisory body which would, at a later stage, be responsible for keeping those rules up to date with technical developments, and finally, to establish some form of permanent contact between colliery rescue service centres.

The Conference was a tripartite affair, and was also attended by observers from the United Kingdom and the International Labour Organization.

The Conference completed its task within the record time of five months, and by February 1957 was ready to present its proposals to the national governments meeting in Council and the High Authority.

The proposals were given a highly favourable reception, and played a key role in the revision of mining regulations in the wake of the Marcinelle disaster.

The Commission held its inaugural meeting on 26 September 1957, a bare 13 months after the Marcinelle tragedy.

The Commission

The Commission has terms of reference and standing rules.

It is a tripartite body. Each Member State appoints two government representatives, one workers' representative and one employers' representative to it.

The Chairman of the Commission is always a Member of the Commission of the European Communities.³

The post of Secretary is always held by an official of the Commission's Departments.⁴

The government representatives on the Commission comprise its Select Committee, which is responsible for preparing the Commission's plenary sessions.

It has an operating budget.

Some of the earliest work undertaken by the Commission back in 1957 naturally enough reveals an immediate concern with the kind of matters which lay behind the Marcinelle disaster. Working groups of experts were set up to study such matters as fires and mine fires, problems caused by electrification of mines, and hoisting and trawling cables.

From its very inception, the Commission had been made responsible for coordinating the tasks of, and har-

¹ As it then was.

² C.f. Publication EUR 6360 of 1979 of the Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

³ Originally, a Member of the High Authority.

⁴ A list of past Chairmen and Secretaries of the Commission since 1957 can be found in the Appendix.



Photo J. Heylemans

monizing the equipment used by, rescue teams operating in the Community coalfields. Other groups were set up to examine the parts played by sociological and psychological factors grouped together under the umbrella term of 'human factors'. What these groups were in fact doing was trying to identify and find remedies for the non-technical causes of accidents.

But to attempt to promote safety at work without the support of accident statistics is, at best, building on shifting sand. From the very outset, therefore, one of the Commission's prime concerns has been to compile and collate data and statistics on accidents at work throughout the Community. These statistics are published each year with the *Commission's Annual Report*.¹

In the wake of the tragic accident at the Luisenthal colliery on 7 February 1962, when 299 miners died in a dust explosion, the mining community began to question the value of existing safeguards against the dangers of inflammable dust, which were now shown to be seriously deficient. As technology progressed, so the safety precautions needed updating. As a move in that direction, the Working Group on Explosive Dusts was set up.

Widening the Commission's powers

The Council of Ministers has widened the Commission's terms of reference on two separate occasions. The first of these was on 11 March 1965, when the Commission's remit was ex-

tended to health matters. At this time, however, 'health' was more or less restricted to meaning the problem of dust in coalmines. Environment and noise were only added at a later date. All these matters are dealt with by a Working Group on Health. The second change, which had more far-reaching implications, came on 27 June 1974, when the Council extended the Commission's responsibility to cover the extractive industries in general. This brought under its wing metal mines, oil rigs (off-shore or inland) and quarries. The Council Decision states:

'Extractive industries means activities of exploration, extraction prop-

¹ Apart from those for the steel industry, these are the only 'Community' accident statistics to date.

erly so-called and the preparation of material extracted for sale (crushing, sorting, washing), but not the processing of material extracted.'

One direct result of this was the decision to set up a Working Group of specialists in oil extraction and gas recovery through off-shore or land drilling operations.

Even before this, however, a study of recent accident statistics had shown the need for work on safety aspects of mechanization, ventilation and fire-damp.

Altogether, eleven Working Groups were set up.

There is no hard-and-fast rule limiting the number of these groups to eleven; but for self-evident reasons (administration, budgetary constraints, lack of experts available), the Commission is reluctant to create more. Fortunately, the Commission is blessed with extremely flexible operating rules; a group which has completed the task assigned to it can be put into cold storage until next needed. Conversely, certain experts may have to be called in to study one particular or urgent problem.

Functions and duties of the working groups

A working group which receives a remit from the Commission to study a particular question has considerable latitude to organize its work to complete the task set for it in the fullest manner and after marshalling all the facts available, taking full account of technical progress in the field under scrutiny.

It can call on the collaboration of government services, as well as the two sides of industry, and can ask for assistance from experts with recognized qualifications from testing laboratories, institutes or universities. Overall, the number of people actively involved in the Commission's work is probably not much below 300.

Each working group is chaired by a member of the Select Committee. This

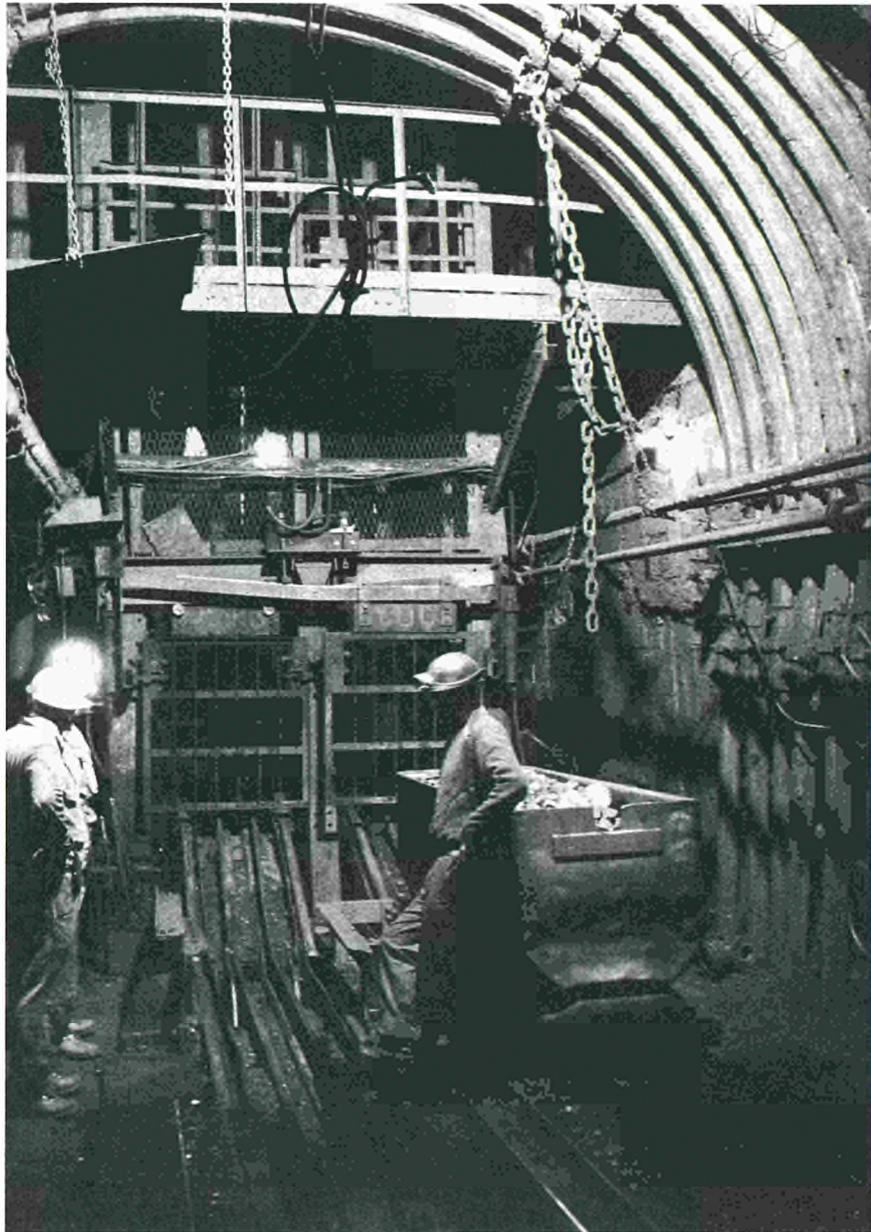


Photo J. Heylemans

ensures effective two-way communication between the Commission and its working groups.

I should like to go on now to give a brief overview of the work undertaken by each of the groups in turn.¹

Activities of the working groups

Since its very inception, the Working Group on Electricity has been deal-

ing with the problems of network protection, instantaneous circuit-breaking, and safety in potentially combustible environments. It has already reported on non-oil-cooled transformers and isolaters. More recently, an initiative taken by the Group resulted in a key

¹ A more detailed account of the work of these groups can be found in the Annual Reports published by the Commission (21 to date).

Council Directive on 'the approximation of the laws of the Member States concerning electrical equipment for use in potentially explosive atmospheres in mines susceptible to fire-damp'.¹ This directive constitutes the linchpin of the common market in electrical equipment for use in mining.

The core concern of the Working Group on Fires, Mine Fires and Rescue Operations, has always been with means of combating fires (open combustion) and mine fires (closed combustion), which may be caused by temperature rises in the masses of coal.

This Group also coordinates rescue methods and techniques between the various Community coalfields; it promotes the standardization of equipment and enables equipment and manpower to be transferred between coalfields to deal with major disasters.

One of the key factors in the general safety of mines is the dilution of methane gas (fire-damp) released when coal is mined. The only way this can be done is with plentiful, properly directed ventilation. The Working Group on Ventilation and Fire-Damp studies these problems, concentrating particularly on accidents caused by inadequate ventilation. Out of the considerable volume of work produced by the Group, perhaps its most notable achievements are the regulations on fire-damp dangers during the digging and abandonment of cul-de-sacs and other old workings, and its proposals for reducing the risk of fire-damp explosions caused by tunneling and walling machinery. Two other significant contributions to safety in mines were the Group's studies on outbursts of fire-damp,² and those on the ventilation network when one branch of that network is the seat of a fire.

Dust explosions have been the cause of pit deaths for generations; they still constitute a major hazard for underground workers even today. And it is a danger which seems to have developed in intensity alongside the

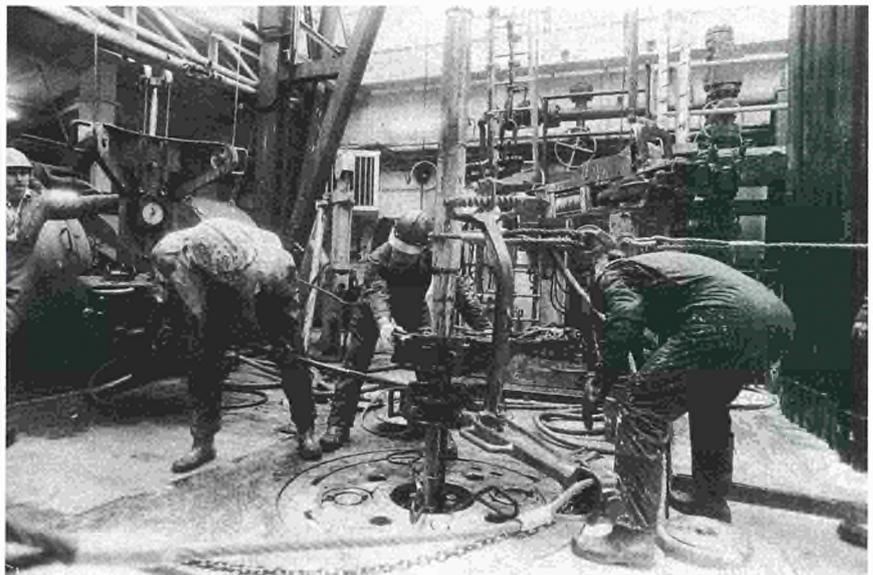


Photo M. Deville · Copyright Photo News, Bruxelles

Ekofisk: A mine of black gold in the North Sea. Since the occurrence of catastrophies on the drilling rigs, safety measures have been noticeably increased.

changed technology of coal-mining. The explosions at Luisenthal and the Sachsen pit in 1962 brought home vividly to engineers and designers that what may have been considered safe at the turn of the century no longer provided adequate protection. Rock-dust barriers have therefore been replaced by water curtains located at varying points according to tunnel layout.

The combined use of water curtains and treating tunnels with saline slurry is the most effective way so far found of controlling explosions.

But the problem is a long way from being finally solved, and research is being proposed into ways of taking faster action as soon as an explosion occurs.

The initial task set for the Working Group on Control of Walls and Soil Stability was to find ways of reducing accidents caused by cave-ins and falls of rubble. Modern propping techniques, and particularly the widespread use of walking props, have helped reduce the overall number of accidents. But other methods have also been studied and recommended for use, such as roof bolting, broaching and

resin injection. Packing the face edges with a variety of different materials has had the twin benefit of assisting ventilation flow and consolidating the tunnels.

The group has also examined the problem of slagheap stability in response to fears raised in the wake of disasters caused by the creeping of spoil-tips.

Mechanization is the focal subject for another group of experts, which has been giving detailed attention to the safety aspects of belt conveying and mine locomotives.

The Working Group on Hoisting and Trailing Cables, and Winding Engines has been conducting a long-term study of non-destructive methods of cable inspection. The rapid increase in working depths and maximum hoisting capacities have brought with them new headaches for cable and equipment manufacturers. One complication is the recent tendency to lower bulky machinery to the face ready to work immedi-

¹ OJ L 59, 2. 3. 1982.

² A sudden outburst of a coal/hydrocarbon gas mixture produced by the abrupt slip in the coal-face.

ately, in an evident attempt to save time on a long and tricky dismantling and reassembly procedure. This has necessitated a complete review of drive mechanisms and cage access in highly mechanized pits.

The extension of the Commission's area of responsibility to the extractive industries as a whole, and particularly to oil-rigs, has put a wide variety of questions on the agenda of the Working Group on Oil and Gas, including matters as diverse as well-head safety Installations on off-shore drilling rigs, equipment, and control of wells.

Amongst the safety proposals put forward by the Group are revised methods of rescuing workers in the event of accidents on drilling rigs, as well as arrangements for evacuating rigs in an emergency.

A survey plan to produce comprehensive accident statistics for the oil industry has also been drawn up and will be implemented starting this year. This will give the petrol companies the opportunity to work with the Commission in producing an industry-wide picture of the safety situation throughout the Community.

Two major events have recently been organized in Luxembourg in a bid to expand the field of information available on this new area of responsibility now included in the Commission's traditional (one might almost say historic) concerns. The first, in 1980, was devoted to the technical and human aspects of deep-sea diving.¹ The other, in April 1983, was an international symposium on health and safety in the oil and gas-extracting industries.

More recently, the group has been taking a closer look at drilling on land, coming to the conclusion that its recommendations for off-shore rigs were equally applicable to land-based wells, with the appropriate modifications.

The use of diesel engines at the coal face poses long-standing problems for safety and health in tunnels. Safety considerations dictate that certain precautions are needed to avoid

the risk of fire from overheated engines and machinery, and to prevent their use in the potentially-explosive atmospheres of mines with a high percentage of fire-damp.

The group's work on hygiene in mines has been largely concerned with reducing harmful emissions of exhaust fumes (carbon monoxide, nitrous fumes, sulphur oxides) and ensuring their removal by regular and sufficient exhaust ventilation.

The work of the Group on Statistics is principally concerned with assisting the Commission's secretariat to compile common accident statistics. At the start of the Commission's life, this chiefly meant figures on pit accidents. In future, however, the Group will be dealing with accident statistics across the entire spectrum of the extractive industries, starting with those on oil and gas drilling rigs.

The Working Group on Health has, since 1965, been tackling the problem of combatting coal miner's pneumoconiosis.

Since 1957 the Commission has been actively encouraging research under its research programmes set up under Article 55 of the ECSC Treaty. This has led to a number of significant discoveries which the Commission has done all within its powers to pass on for the benefit of the mining community. The group has therefore been able to put out a general summary of all the available methods of dust control, ranging from injecting seams with water, damping down dust from cutting operations, and protection of major dust points.

More recently, the Commission approved an opinion submitted by the Group on comparative dust controls throughout the Community coalfields as part of a large-scale Community research projekt. The research has now been concluded, and underground workers throughout the Community now enjoy a uniform degree of protection from pneumoconiosis caused by coal dust.

Another report recently submitted by the Working Group dealt with the protection of face-workers from noise emissions in underground workings. The Commission adopted its findings as an information report. The document analyses sources of noise in mines, describes the characteristics particular to mining, and proposes an acceptable level of exposure not to exceed the 'dose' of 90 decibels on the 'A' scale noise level (dBA). The report does stress, however, that this 'safe' level should be reduced as new developments are made in engineering controls to quieten machines at source or in personal protection methods. The report also contains noise measurement provisions and recommendations for medical supervision.

The Working Group on Human Factors in a Safety Policy has had a life marked by two periods of intense activity separated by a fairly lengthy period of dormancy.

The Group was first brought together to study problems related to working hours and payment by results for face-workers. The Commission issued proposals (now generally applied) for regulating working hours according to how 'hot' the pit is.

The issue of payment by results has lost much of its immediacy over the years with the changes in underground working methods, the mechanization of coal handling and the changing systems of wage payments.

The group is now more concerned with the sociological and psychological aspects of shift-work in mines, with particular emphasis on the behaviour and reaction of workers to safety requirements.

Safety drives

Both the Extractive Industries Commission and the Commission of the European Communities have long recognized the value of safety drives

¹ In cooperation with the European Diving Technology Committee (EDTC).

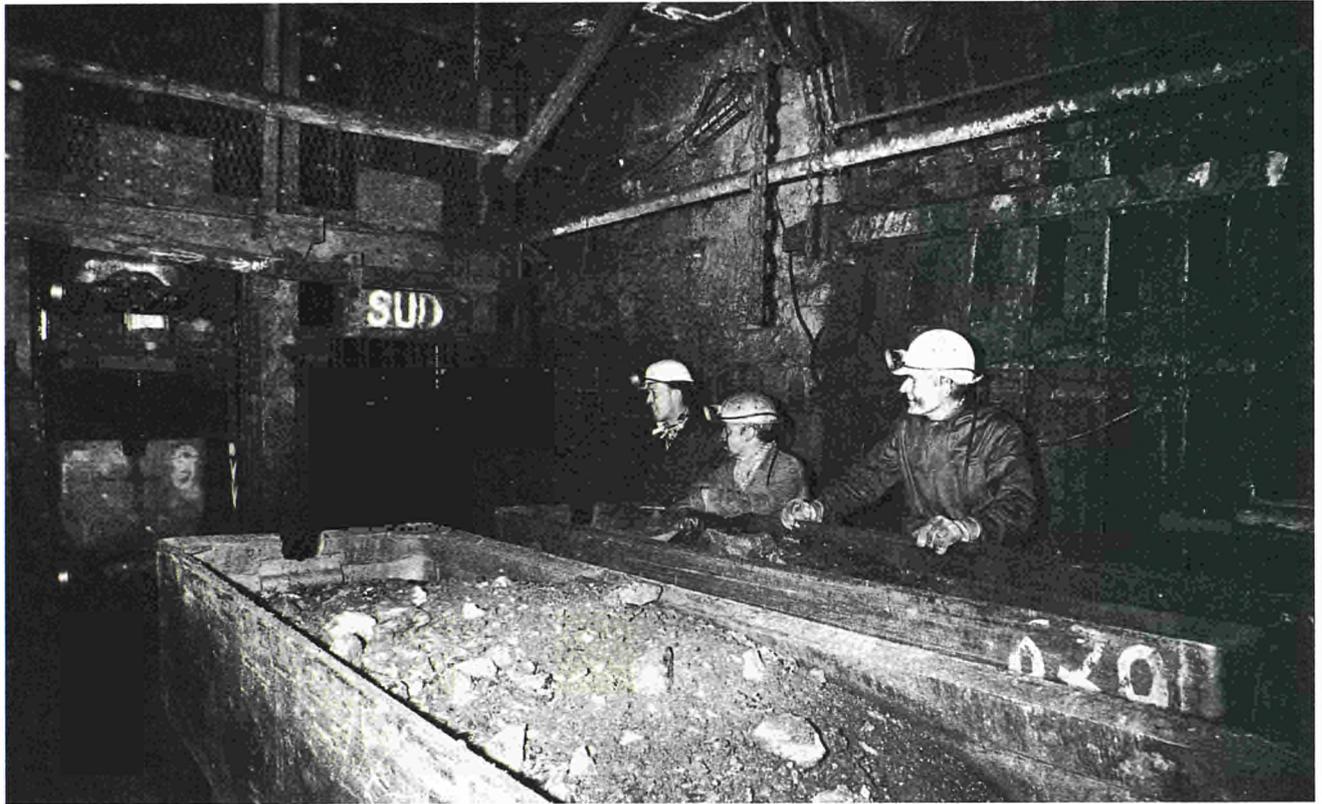


Photo Yves Smets · Copyright Photo News, Bruxelles

targeted at specific groups of workers, run along precise and well-defined themes. They play an invaluable educational role, and help to create a constructive attitude towards working together for industrial safety. They are also a tangible way of bringing Community actions to the notice of those affected by them.

The Commission has now funded more than 20 such safety campaigns over the years and has built up considerable experience in the most effective way of getting the safety message across, as well as developing a safety 'philosophy'. In 1981, the Commission produced a report on implementing safety drives in the extractive industries containing much interesting information on the results of the campaigns, the methods used, and the groups at which the campaigns were aimed. It also contains valuable details of future campaigns.

Pierre Lemoine

Biographical notes on Pierre Lemoine



Pierre Lemoine was born on 21 October 1928 at Vezon near Tournai (Belgium).

Secondary education – Athenee royal Antwerp (Antwerp grammar school).

1942 – awarded mining-engineering diploma by the Polytechnic Faculty of Mons.

1942–1962 – engineer in the Borinage colliery owned by the Société Générale de Belgique; promoted to manager of underground workings.

1962 – recruited by the High Authority of the ECSC in Luxembourg. Made responsible for industrial safety and hygiene; appointed Head of Industrial Safety and Hygiene Service in 1968.

1981 – appointed Head of the Industrial Safety Division of the Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Education.

In 1980 he was appointed by the EC Commission to the post of Secretary of the Mines and Extractive Industries Health and Safety Commission. He held this post until his retirement at the end of 1983.

The extractive industries in Europe

Despite a steady decline in output since about 1958, the Community as a whole still manages to produce around 250 million tonnes of coal a year – 125 million in the United Kingdom, 95 million in the Federal Republic of Germany, 18 million in France and 6 million in Belgium.

The average total of underground workers on a year-to-year basis is around 350 000 (United Kingdom 178 000; Federal Republic of Germany 125 000; France 29 000; Belgium 16 000). A further 170 000 surface workers make up the total labour force.

The output from open-cast coal mining stands at around 16 million tpa (United Kingdom 90%; France 10%), with that of lignite (or 'brown coal') at around 128 million tpa (principally from the Federal Republic 95%; France 3%; Belgium 2%). Approximately 9 000 people are employed in open-cast mining, and a further 20 000 in the lignite sector.

Community output of iron ore has suffered as result of the availability of cheaper, higher grade imported ores. Even so, the Community still manages to produce some 35 million tpa iron ore (90% in France; 5% in Federal Germany; the rest from a number of smaller independent producers). The total labour force (underground and surface workers) comprises some 8 000 people.

Of the wide variety of other minerals extracted from underground workings, the most important are potash and bauxite.

The output of non-ferrous minerals remains relatively low in most of the Member States, with only 13 000 underground workers in all (Italy and France 30%; Ireland and United Kingdom 12%, Federal Germany 8%).

20 000 people are employed in the Community's potash and pyrites mines (50% in Federal Germany; 20% in Italy).

The total output from all quarrying operations (mostly – but not entirely – open-cast working) stands at around 1 billion tpa. The quarrying industry employs a workforce of 200 000 (Federal Germany 32%; Italy and France 19%; Belgium 6%; Ireland 1%).

Drilling operations bring in around 80 million tpa liquid hydrocarbons and more than 37 billion cubic metres of various gases each year. Almost 20 000 workers are engaged in offshore drilling operations. The Community's inland oilfields produce some 7.5 million tonnes of oil and 126 million cubic metres of natural gas, providing jobs for some 12 000 people.

To varying degrees, then, the Commission acts as a watchdog over the safety of some 830 000 workers in the Community – 63% in underground coal mines, 6% in the other energy industries, 1% in iron ore mines, 1.5% in non-ferrous mineral underground workings, 2.5% in salt and potash mines and 25% in underground or open-cast quarrying.

Breaking this down into percentage of the total workforce employed in each Member State, the United Kingdom heads the list with 38%, followed closely by the Federal Republic of Germany in second place with 36%. Three quarters of the workers with whom the Commission is concerned, therefore, work in these two countries alone. In descending order, the rest of this 'League table' is: France 14%; Italy 6%; Belgium 5%; and Ireland and the Netherlands 0.5% each.

Chairmen of the Commission

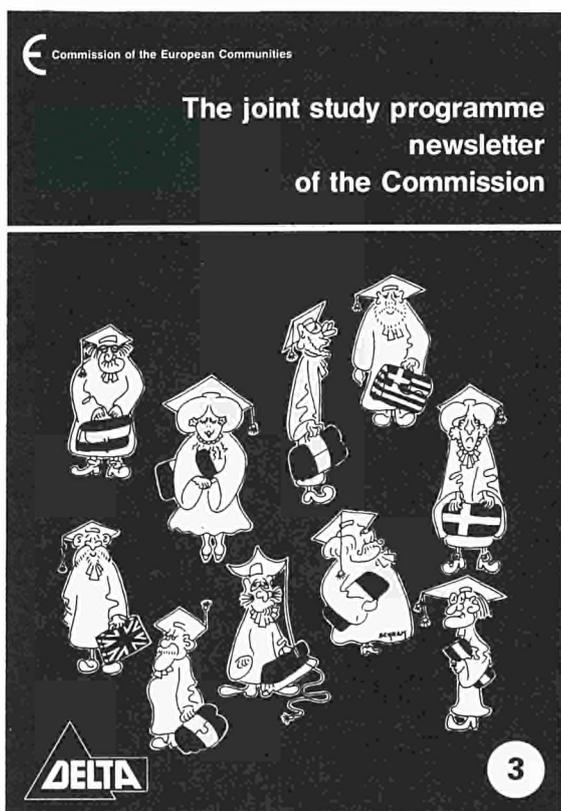
Messrs	Léon Daum	1957–58
	Paul Finet	1959–64
	Albert Coppé	1965–67
	Lionello Levi-Sandri	1967–70
	Albert Coppé	1970–73
	Patrick Hillery	1973–76
	Henk Vredeling	1976–80
	Ivor Richard	1980–84

Secretaries of the Commission

Messrs	Marcel Gerlache	1957–66
	Matteo Convenevo	1966–69
	Jules Leclercq	1970–80
	Pierre Lemoine	1980–83

COOPERATION BETWEEN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

DELTA: THE JOINT STUDY PROGRAMMES NEWSLETTER



The promotion of more intensive cooperation between the higher education institutions of the European Community has been an important policy objective of the Commission of the European Communities since 1976. Cooperation takes many forms, whether in the fields of teaching and research or within important related areas such as student admissions and guidance, academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study abroad, and foreign language teaching.

For all those interested and involved in initiating cooperation and in making such cooperation work, the Commission of the European Communities has launched a newsletter entitled *Delta*. Scheduled to appear two times a year in all seven working languages of the Community, *Delta* will be one of the most authoritative channels of information on higher education cooperation. It will concentrate on:

- official announcements from the European Commission on its programmes and activities for the promotion of cooperation between higher education institutions in the EEC. In particular, systematic coverage will be given to the Commission's programme of grants for the preparation and development of Joint Study Programmes and to the related Short Study Visit scheme;
- reports from the Commission on initiatives and developments affecting higher education, particularly those resulting from action taken by the European Community institutions. There will therefore be regular coverage of relevant developments in the Council of Ministers, the European Parliament, and the European Court of Justice;
- case studies and analysis on key issues affecting higher education cooperation, such as financial developments in higher education in particular Member States;
- case studies on particular forms of collaboration, notably Joint Study Programmes financed by the European Commission;
- contributions from Joint Study Programme directors and other readers seeking to share their experience with their counterparts in other Member States or to identify partners with whom to develop further cooperative ventures.

The newsletter is obtainable by annual subscription from the sales offices for the official publications of the European Communities. The price for the annual subscription for 1985 will be BFR 300. A free sample copy of the newsletter may be obtained on request from the Office for Cooperation in Education (which assists the Commission in the publication of the newsletter).

51 rue de la Concorde,
B - 1050 Brussels
(Tel.: (32) (2) 512 17 34).

Part Two

Analyses, debates, studies

Worksharing for young people

(A study of recent experiences in the United Kingdom, FR of Germany and the Netherlands)

As part of the general follow-up to the Council resolution concerning the promotion of employment for young people, the Commission had a survey conducted on innovative experiments in worksharing for young people.

All the initiatives examined have one thing in common: they are all carried out by large companies. Their differences lie in the imprint left on them by national economic circumstances. The number of such initiatives peaked rapidly in the United Kingdom; despite widespread publicity, there seems little likelihood of further development in this field. The Federal Republic of Germany seems particularly concerned not to see its investments in apprenticeships simply disappearing down the drain, and the idea seems likely to find increasing favour outside the confines of the chemical industry. In the Netherlands, job-splitting gained widespread popularity in the wake of the November 1982 national incomes agreement, but remains too recent a phenomenon to be analysed in any depth. To all appearances, employers in other Member States seem not to have embarked on similar ventures.

B. CASEY

(Wissenschaftszentrum – Berlin)

The principal conclusions arrived at by the author of the study are set out below.

The origins of the various schemes have the common feature that they are all in some way a response to the problem of high levels of youth unemployment, and thus they all have a certain 'altruistic' component, even those which are entirely management initiated. On the other hand, some of this altruism is matched by considerations of self interest. It goes without saying that a high level of youth unemployment, as well as being a likely contributor to social conflict and disruption, might well have a disastrous long term impact on the attitude and capacity to work of young persons, on whom employers will want to draw in any future upturn of business activity, and thus that efforts to mitigate the problem will generally be supported and even initiated by employers themselves. However, at least in certain of the cases of 'worksharing' arrangements which we have studied, more immediate rationality prevails.

Some of the experiments can be clearly interpreted as reactions to the situation of economic uncertainty that individual enterprises are facing. Part-time employees constitute a readily available reserve of trained labour which an enterprise can draw upon should an upturn materialize. Furthermore, with respect to many of the German experiments, the offer of part-time contracts combined with prospects for a subsequent transfer to full-time employment serves as a way of preserving what might have been a not insubstantial investment in training, and one that is cheaper than (as might previously have been the practice) temporarily 'carrying' the persons concerned on a full-time basis until suitable vacancies arise.

In Great Britain the existence of a minimum earnings level with respect to social insurance contributions, below which many young part-timers fall, means that enterprises there can enjoy quite substantial labour cost savings by engaging in such 'worksharing' actions.

More generally, most commentators acknowledge a higher level of productivity and lower level of absenteeism amongst part-time workers, and such advantages are reinforced by those arrangements found in both Great Britain and FR of Germany, which have a 'job sharing' element and oblige one part-timer to provide cover for his 'partner'. In addition, where either permanent employment or a transfer to full-time working is not guaranteed, or where some other process of selection occurs at the moment of transfer, the period of part-time employment serves as an extension of any period of 'trial' employment. The young persons concerned are consequently less likely to question the manner in which they are employed and are more likely to increase the intensity of their effort and to accept requests to work in excess of contractual hours. Such 'abuses' are particularly likely to occur where trade union involvement in the construction and regulation of the experiments is lacking, and it will be interesting to see if such issues come to the fore in the Netherlands where the newly introduced working time arrangements have been the outcome of collective bargaining.

It is not only because they increase employers' disposition over the use of labour resources that the experiments in Great Britain and Germany have not been greeted with any great enthusiasm by the trade unions, but also because they perceive them as efforts to undermine their demands for a redistribution of employment opportunities based upon a more general reduction of working time, with or without wage compensation. If, as we would suggest, the successful formulation and operationalization on a wide scale of 'worksharing' provisions for young persons can only occur with trade union involvement, then such suspicions must be alleviated. It should be noted that the potentially far-reaching arrangements recently drawn up in the Netherlands were couched not as an alternative to, but rather as an element of a much more wide-reaching strategy of working time reduction.



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Although the target group for the experiments undertaken in FR of Germany is newly graduating apprentices, whilst in Great Britain and the Netherlands it is primarily school leavers, and thus, *prima facie*, the sort of jobs performed by the part-timers are very different in the two groups of countries, there also exists an over-riding similarity. In both cases the jobs concerned are largely those where the training component is relatively low. The experiments in Great Britain and the Netherlands affect young persons in semi-skilled production or low grade clerical occupations, those in FR of Germany persons in skilled manual or white collar occupations, but whose training has largely been completed.

Ceteris paribus, filling a given number of full-time positions by a larger number of part-timers involves an increase in expenditure on the provision

of inductive and skill training and a reduction in the period over which such investments can be amortized, this being an important reason why, in general, part-time employment is heavily concentrated amongst unskilled occupations. Both in Great Britain and the Netherlands school leavers recruited into apprenticeship jobs (where the training investment is higher) are in most cases excluded from participation in part-time arrangements, and where in the latter country this is not so, special provisions exist whereby the young persons undertake a part of the off-the-job-training in their own time. Similarly in Great Britain, in those cases where the young part-timers are following a more or less substantial course of professional education, attendance is largely outside paid working time.

The question of how part-time working might be coordinated with the

provisions of training, so that programmes for 'work sharing' for young people do not contribute further to a segmentation of the youth labour market between those destined for more and for less skilled occupations is one that deserves considerably more attention. At a more particular level, this might involve a reconceptualization of the structure of apprenticeship programmes, and especially the mix between the on- and off-the-job components. At a more general level, the relationship between 'worksharing' proposals and proposals for the promotion of systems of 'alternating training' must be systematically examined. The fact that, within the deliberations of the Commission and other Community organs the two subjects have become separated from one another, could well mean that the potential of both strategies is unnecessarily restricted. The issue of who finances the off-the-jobs element of

such training, and whether some allowance/wage be paid to participants for time so spent, would have to be taken up in this context. Its resolution would, *inter alia*, have implications for the sensitive question of 'wage compensation'

tion to working life also appreciated, it seems that the form of part-time work young people prefer involves schedules in the 30–35 hour per week range rather than the half-time (20 hour) range. Thus, to the extent that an involuntary element is likely to be

market consequences of part-time arrangements for young persons are greater when this duration is longer, and when the schemes involve in practice more than simply bringing forward by a few months a certain number of

Women and income tax – discrimination?

Study on the implementation of equal treatment by revising income tax systems which appear to have an indirect adverse affect on women's employment, their right to work and their promotion in employment.¹

One of the actions to be undertaken by the Commission in its New Community Action Programme on the Promotion of Equal Opportunities for Women (see *Social Europe*, special issue, 1983) was a comparative analysis of income systems.

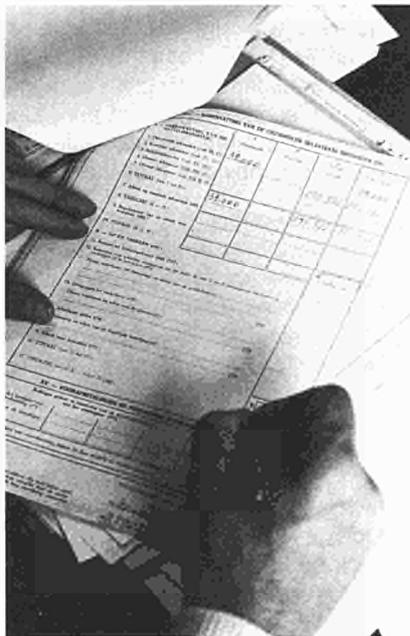
Under Community and national law, women have the right to equal pay and to equal treatment in employment. When we look at the income tax systems, is equal treatment the rule? In general a married woman is taxed with her husband and at a different rate from that applied to her before her marriage. The real effects of the difference in tax treatment upon the woman depend primarily on factors such as the level of her income compared to her husband, and the number of dependents.

The questions which this study was intended to cover were:

- do income-tax systems discourage women from marrying?
- do income-tax systems discourage married women from working or returning to work after a break in career?

The aim of this study was to analyse the income-tax systems in the 10 Member States from this very specific point of view and then to compare the different systems for the purpose of recommending the system that was neutral in its effects on women's work.

In so far as the present situation is concerned, the Member States systems fall into two main groups, those who use the individual as the tax unit and those who use the family. Within the systems that use the family as the unit are several variants, such as the splitting and family quotient systems.



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The Member States of the Community can be generally classified as follows:

Aggregation

Belgium and the United Kingdom;

Splitting

FR of Germany and Ireland;

Family quotient

France and Luxembourg;

Separate taxation

Denmark, Italy, Greece and the Netherlands.

Within these general systems, some Member States offer other options, for example in Belgium, Ireland and Great Britain couples can opt for separate taxation under certain circumstances, although this is not often advantageous financially for the couple.

The purpose of this study is to analyse the effects of these different systems upon a married woman's earnings, compared to the situation of a single woman or a married man.

Taking aggregation of incomes first, in this case the incomes of the couple are added together and a progressive rate of tax applied. In most cases the wife's earnings are less than those of her husband and regarded as the second income. In simply adding this income to that of the husband, the effect is that the second income starts paying tax at the rate applied to the last pound or franc of the first income. Particularly when the second income is small, this can have a powerful effect on the married woman's decision to remain at work, or to seek work. This effect is enhanced by the existence of children and the lack of allowances or tax reductions that take account of the additional costs born by the household in which both partners work.

Some Member States have attempted to take into account the difference in capacity to pay taxes between one and two earner families.

One method is the splitting system, under which the incomes of the married couple are added together and divided by two. On this amount the tax rate is applied and the resulting sum multiplied by two. While reducing tax paid by a married couple where the incomes are unequal and alleviating the effects of a sliding scale of tax rates, the wife's work still suffers from the effects of aggregation, in that the second income

¹ Study by D. Meulders, T. Haustraete, T. L. Six and B. Vanden Abeele.

is still subjected to the higher tax rates. The other disincentive to the married woman is the great benefit the splitting system gives to the one earner family, as the income is still split in two regardless of whether both partners are earning. For example in France a man who marries saves about 50 % in tax on an income of FF 87 000 if his wife remains at home.

The family quotient system is a variant of the splitting system, but instead of dividing by two, different figures are used depending mainly upon the numbers of children.

Under the separate taxation system, the married woman's earnings are taxed in the same manner as anyone else and her marital status and family circumstances make no difference to her tax assessment. Within this system allowance is sometimes made for reduced contributive capacity where a married couple have only one income. In this case, Italy and Greece grant tax

reductions to the married man whose wife has no income. With regard to allowances, deducted from income, or tax reductions for dependent children, these are variously granted to the person who cares for the child, are divided between both partners (Italy) or are granted as direct subsidies to persons taking care of the child (France, FR of Germany, Denmark, United Kingdom and the Netherlands).

Detailed calculations are shown in the form of graphs for each country, showing for five difference income categories, for married and unmarried couples with no or two dependent children

- the percentage of additional tax which a two earner unmarried couple would pay upon marriage;
- the percentage of additional tax a single woman pays upon marriage.

This study therefore concludes that only under a system of separate tax-

ation will the tax treatment of married women's income have no disincentive or negative impact on the supply of female labour and on women's position in the job market.

Recommendations are also made with regard to the tax systems in general:

- that there should be special help for single parent families;
- that professional expenses, deductible from income, should include expenses for child care and domestic help for the working wife?
- that a wife assisting her husband in his profession should be able to receive appropriate payment;
- that separate taxation should also include the return of separate declarations for tax and the individual responsibility this implies.

Sarah Evans

The social impact of new technologies in banking

In 1982, more than 1.7 million of the Community's total working population were employed in banking. Despite a sharp fall from 1980 to 1981, banking has been one of the few sectors in these recession-hit times to have enjoyed a satisfactory level of year-to-year growth, compared with the rate of job losses in manufacturing industry.

It was also one of the first sectors to welcome the widespread introduction of computer technology and one in which the boundaries of information technology have been pushed back at an increasing pace in recent years. Many of these developments are evident even to the most casual glance of the uninitiated user of retail banking services: cashpoints, automatic bank tellers, computerized debit cards, point-of-sale bank terminals... And the recent development of 'home telebanking' through the viewdata service seems to herald the fact that the microchip revolution in banking is only just catching its second wind.

The impact of post-industrial technology on employment, and its contribution to social change, are two of the most hotly-debated topics around. This study on how the introduction of new technologies is likely to affect banking was conducted by Professor Kirchner at the request of the Commission. It could not have appeared at a more timely moment. Not only does it provide us with valuable insights into the banking sector, it is also destined to fuel the general public debate on microelectronic technology. It is a wide-ranging survey taking in all the Member States; this gives it a truly European dimension, while at the same time enabling us to take stock of developments and trends on a national basis.¹ Professor Kirchner analyses how far the new technologies have become an established feature of banking today, what kind of technologies prevail, how strong a foothold they have, and the likely face of banking in

1990. The report concludes with an assessment of the social implications of computerization in the major areas of jobs, skills, health and safety, and the reorganization of working time.

The spread of new technologies

Running alongside the more general microelectronic revolution which affects banking in much the same ways as other service sectors and manufacturing industry, another upheaval is taking place in the specific working methods of banks. This is being ushered in by emergent technologies applicable only to banking services, and generally known as EFT (or electronic funds transfer). The term covers a multitude of equipment, which the report describes and evaluates.

While no two Member States are currently at the same stage of development, it seems more than likely that by 1990 the automatic tellers, multi-purpose debit cards, electronic banking terminals and clearing-house automated payment systems now changing the face of banking services will have become commonplace. As yet, however, point-of-sale bank terminals and home telebanking are still very much at the experimental stage. Tentative experiments with electronic funds transfer at the point of sale (EFT/POS) terminals of various types (on-line, off-line, using magnetic strip or memory cards) have been set in motion in a number of countries. Perhaps the largest network of this kind up and running at the moment are the EFT/POS terminals at filling stations in Belgium. 'Banking through the TV set' is another area in which the first wary steps are now being taken to provide armchair banking services via the Videotex system. The Federal Republic of Germany is the clear leader here with its Bildschirmtext (viewdata) system. However, the fact of making interactive videotex available is not itself a sign of rapid expansion in home telebanking services, which are unlikely to come into widespread use much before 1990. One factor which must never be forgotten in any discus-

sion of new technologies, however, is the crucial one of software development. The more sophisticated and comprehensive an applications program needs to be, the more it will cost to develop. Inability or unwillingness to part with the cash could easily check the spread of the new technologies.

The employment problem

Any attempt to quantify the impact new technologies are likely to have on employment is fraught with danger. Even the most tentative figures are likely to be pounced upon, bandied around left and right, and subjected to exhaustive analysis. (As was eloquently demonstrated by the prediction in the NORA-MINC report on the computerization of society that 30 % of the jobs in the banking sector would be shed over the next decade.)

In the chapter dealing with employment, Professor Kirchner chooses to forgo the risky business of tying himself down to a single figure. Instead, he puts forward six alternative scenarios for the next seven years, each containing a number of variables. The report evaluates the theoretical impacts of the different technologies, distinguishing between the categories of jobs likely to disappear, those likely to expand, and the foreseeable rate of job losses, taking account of the various factors influencing the rate at which new technologies are taken up (competitiveness, consumer reactions, union resistance, central, regional and local government attitudes) and factors affecting the employment situation (diversification of banking activities towards new financial services, productivity and demand). The report concludes that the rate of employment growth in the European banking sector could vary, on a year-to-year basis, from +3.5 % to -7.5 % between 1982 and 1990. Professor Kirchner also predicts that women, who make up a large

¹ The study includes an appendix containing a country by country comparative table, plus a bibliography.



Photo J. Goessens

proportion of the total workforce in banking, have most to fear from the introduction of new technologies. This is because the greatest threat is to low-level jobs (normally held by women) while the newly-created jobs will call for qualified personnel with data-processing skills.

Other social consequences

One common trend already observed in many of the Member States is that while the number of unskilled and semi-skilled employees is tending to contract, many more jobs are being created for qualified staff. In the 10 years from 1972 to 1982 the number of

those on the lower end of the salary scale in FR of Germany declined from 28.6% to 13.6%, while the number of those higher up the scale more than doubled – from 13% to 26.5%. The same trend was observable in France, where between 1970 and 1982, the number of managers increased by 80%, while 20% of the clerical and allied jobs disappeared. Over the same period the number of supervisory staff doubled. The same trend is observable, though less pronounced, in Italy.

The nature and content of jobs in banking will also be affected. The introduction of new technologies will bring with it increased competition for

customers. Banks are likely to expand the range of advisory services they now offer, leading to an enlargement of the jobs performed by bank employees. In contrast, the administrative work, particularly the 'back-room' work, runs the risk of being downgraded by the microchip revolution into simple clerical drudgery. Parallel with this comes the finding that increasing numbers of university graduates are carving out careers for themselves in banking, and that the traditional career pattern for bank employees ('rising through the ranks') is coming under increasing pressure as a result. Only Ireland so far seems to have escaped this particular development.



"Administrative work in the back-room" . . .

Photo Y. Smets · Copyright Photo News, Bruxelles

The advent of the cashless society is also likely to have a significant impact on working hours. In business generally, the introduction of new technologies offers a golden opportunity to reorganize working time along the lines of greater social flexibility.

Perhaps the most striking finding is that nowhere in the Community do bank employees work more than a 40-hour week. Most, in fact, work far shorter hours than that (Belgium 37 hours, Denmark 38½, United Kingdom 35, France 37). The figures for part-time working vary widely from country to country – 24% of bank employees in Denmark work on a part-time basis, against only 8% in the Netherlands, 7% in the United Kingdom and a bare 2% in Belgium. Despite that, however, part-time working seems to be gaining in popularity in all Member States.

The effect of new technologies on bank business hours has proved another bone of contention. On the one

hand, electronic bank terminals have lightened the out-of-hours work load of bank employees, resulting in a 'saving' of time which can be used to extend normal business hours; the alternative view is that the use of round-the-clock cash dispensers could have entirely the opposite effect. Generally speaking, European banks seem to be moving towards extending normal business hours, either by staying open longer during the week or by introducing Saturday-morning opening – a development which is running into fierce union opposition. The situation could change again, however, as EFT/POS terminals and home telebanking become more popular.

The study also looks at the questions of workers' health, security (the dangers of computer fraud and tampering with customers' accounts) and the attitudes of bank customers to the advent of the cashless (or less-cash) society.

Cooperation from management and unions

In keeping with the principles of its sectoral policy, the Commission took the greatest pains to make sure that the views of both management and unions were represented in this survey. To that end, a number of meetings were arranged between the research team, professional associations in the banking sector (such as the Savings Bank Group of the EEC, and the Association of Cooperative Savings and Credit Institutions of the EEC), and EURO-FIET (the European Regional Organization of the International Federation of Commercial, Clerical, Professional and Technical Employees). This helped raise the debate of the social consequences of introducing new technologies into the banking sector to a European level. The Commission is now planning to stage a discussion seminar based on this study some time during 1984.

Brigitte Favarel

The automobile industry:

Industrial adjustment and changes in the structure of employment

In 1981, the Commission laid down a framework for analysis and action in one of the key sectors of the European economy – the automobile industry.¹ It also decided to launch a series of studies on the changes currently under way in the pattern of working. These studies, on the theme of industrial adjustment and the structure of employment² were to be conducted by a multinational team of researchers.³ The job of coordinating and analysing their work was entrusted to the Wissenschaftszentrum Berlin.

The starting point of the study is an analysis of changes in the growth pattern of employment in the automobile industry and trends in labour relations in seven countries over the period 1970-81. The countries studied were the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Italy, the United Kingdom, Sweden, the United States and Japan. The authors of the studies then progress to a consideration of developments in labour relations during the 1980s and attempt to identify the major factors for change in employment in the car industry. They conclude with an examination through seven case-studies of the problems industrial adjustment is creating for plant-level personnel management.

Development of employment 1970-81

As the tables in Annex I show, total employment in the automobile industry remained virtually static throughout the 1970s, allowing for violent, short-term swings following the oil crises of 1973/74 and 1979/80, plus the significant transfers between major manufacturing regions.

Employment in the car industry rose in Sweden, Japan and the Federal Republic of Germany, remained stable in France, and declined in Italy, the United Kingdom and the United States. A country-by-country analysis points up a number of inter-related reasons for this.

In Japan, employment was buoyed up by an impressive expansion of output and export-led growth. Sweden achieved an even more substantial rise in employment, attributable to four main factors: an increase in the value and quality of its products; a rise in the volume of components sold abroad; the introduction of a shorter working week; and temporary employment support measures. Employment growth in the Federal Republic of Germany was made possible by maintaining existing production levels, increasing prices, and cutting working hours. France was able to avoid layoffs largely by increasing output, both in terms of absolute volume and output per man or output per man-hour. The other side of the picture is shown by the United Kingdom, where falling output led to a contraction of the total labour force. The link between employment and output was no less marked in the United States, but strong cyclical fluctuations were also a contributory factor. The drastic shedding of jobs in Italy at the turn of the decade was due to the industry's sluggish response to the changes in consumer demand and failure to modernize its outdated production technology. In a bid to lower tension over job losses, Italy cut the working week and increased productivity in terms of output per man-hour. It proved unable, however, to combine these measures with a strategy focused on

prestige models. Instead, it tried (or was forced) simply to push up volume – but with less success than either Japan or France. The failure to maintain a steady production flow combined with powerful external pressures on employment to aggravate the industry's structural problems – particularly after 1976. Italy slipped deeper and deeper into crisis, touching rock bottom in 1981 when a close to 11% drop in output led to almost 25% of the workforce being laid off.

A comparison of industrial performance in the different countries seems to indicate that employment support measures will only be successful in the long-term where they are backed up by an appropriate product strategy. It is also established beyond doubt that a country's export performance plays a very large part in deciding whether jobs are created or lost.

Changes in employment in the 1980s

Changes in the structure of employment are largely determined by three factors: the saturation of traditional

¹ COM (81) 317 and COM (83) 633.

² *Industrial Adjustment and the Structure of Employment in the Automobile Industry and Workforce Restructuring, Manpower Management and Industrial Relations in the World Automobile Industry (vol. I: Report; vol. II: Case Studies)*, Wolfgang Streek and Andreas Hoff, International Institute of Management, Berlin, 1983.

³ Dr Wolfgang Streek and Dr Andreas Hoff, International Institute of Management, Berlin; Mr Michael Freyssenet and Ms Elsie Charron, Centre de sociologie urbaine, Paris; Dr Francis Pave, Centre de sociologie des organisations, Paris; Mr. Serafino Negrelli, Fondazione Regionale, Pietro Seveso, Milano; Prof. Ada Becchi, University of Venice; Prof. Kazutoshi Koshiro, Yokohama National University; Mr Klas Levinson, Mr Peter Enstrom, Mr William Peterson, Mr Jan Forslin, Mr Bertil Forsberg, Arbetslivscentrum, Stockholm; Dr David Marsden, Dr Stephen Wood, Mr Anthony Manwaring, London School of Economics and Political Science, London; Dr Arthur Francis, Mr Graham Winch, Imperial College of Science and Technology, London; Prof. Harry C. Katz, Mr Ron Karl, Sloan School of Management, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Mass.



Yesterday's car industry . . .

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markets leading to a long-term decline in employment; an influx of more highly qualified workers onto the labour market; and the reorganization of working conditions.

Looking at the discernible general trends and company projections, the authors conclude that car-making in the industrialized nations has now become what they term a 'saturation industry'. Unlike steel or textiles, the automobile industry is unlikely to collapse virtually overnight for sound technological reasons which prevent production being re-located from traditional markets to the Third World. It will, therefore, continue to be one of the leading industrial employers. The automobile industry has enjoyed a long period of expansion. One of the structural prob-

lems it will now have to come to terms with is how to adapt to stagnating demand, an unpredictable market and an unprecedented range of consumer requirements. Another problem for car manufacturers is that they are finding their traditional markets saturated at a time when they are in the throes of modernizing their production technology. That can only lead to a long-term decline in employment.

What we are likely to see in the future is fewer jobs being replaced as natural wastage claims its victims, a cutback in new recruitment and a general raising of the level of skills required. The least-favoured categories of worker – unskilled manual workers, women, migrants, older workers – will bear the brunt of this development. In

contrast, jobs in industry for young people are likely to increase – partly under the stimulus of demand for new types of skill, and partly in response to government job-creation initiatives.

The automobile market of the future is likely to be dominated by three principal needs: greater productivity as price-competition heats up; improved quality to protect, if not increase, market share; and greater flexibility in adjusting to market fluctuations. This will have major repercussions on how work is organized:

- capital-intensive new manufacturing systems need to be kept operating 24-hours a day throughout the year, as nearly as possible; since shift working systems are already highly

developed in the automobile industry, manufacturers will be looking for ways to eliminate production shut-downs; this will demand both greater flexibility and more sophisticated skills from a larger proportion of operators. The 'machine-minders' will have to be able to carry out minor running repairs on their own initiative and without help. They will also be required to lend a hand in emergency repair work. The traditional distinctions between skilled and semi-skilled workers – and the lines of demarcation between the various maintenance services – will tend to become blurred as a result;

- production will need to be organized on a more flexible basis to cope with quantitative and qualitative fluctuations in demand;
- as the technological revolution picks up speed, workers will need regular re-training and will have to be ready to adapt to continually-changing working conditions.

Controlling changes in employment and selecting an industrial relations strategy

The researchers considered that the choice of an industrial relations strategy was a key factor in achieving controlled changes in employment structure and the restructuring of industry.

Towards the end of the 1970s and early 1980s, the validity of 'institutionalized cooperation' was called increasingly into question. Over a period of time, it was gradually ousted in favour of a neo-liberalist model based on economic factors and market forces.

The two models are now being fused to a certain extent by current attempts to replace industry bargaining by plant-level negotiations. They differ in two important respects, however: the role played by the unions, and the operation of the company labour market.

The economic liberal approach wants to see a clear distinction made between the role of management (whose job it is to organize production) and that of the union (mainly pay bargaining). Successful industrial adjustment will only be achieved if economic forces (free market – competition – productivity – flexibility) are allowed free play, and the role of institutionalized industrial relations played down to a minimum. Finally, the broader labour market should be restored to its proper function to enable manufacturers to adjust their employment structures rapidly in response to variations in production. This contrasts sharply with the 'cooperation' approach in which unions play an important – and varied – role in the management and decision-making structure of the company, and where the emphasis is on an internal labour market policy with considerable security of employment and a policy of continuous re-training.

The management view of the most fitting industrial relations strategy is determined by five principal factors: the depth of the current recession in industry; the inflexibility of existing institutional machinery in employment matters; worker co-determination fights and statutory protection of the union's right to a say in decision-making; the company's market segment; and the company's property rights.

The unions see the problem in a different light. Many unions seem to want to use the recession as an excuse for confrontation with management – provided they can be certain of not losing any of their bargaining power. Whenever possible, the unions will seek to preserve the status quo by bringing pressure to bear on the government to bring in protectionist legislation. This sort of attitude, however, can be defended only in those countries where the great majority of vehicles produced are for the home market. Where the protectionist option does not really apply, unions will probably be more prepared to meet management half way and accept a greater share of the responsibility for getting the industry back into a competitive position.

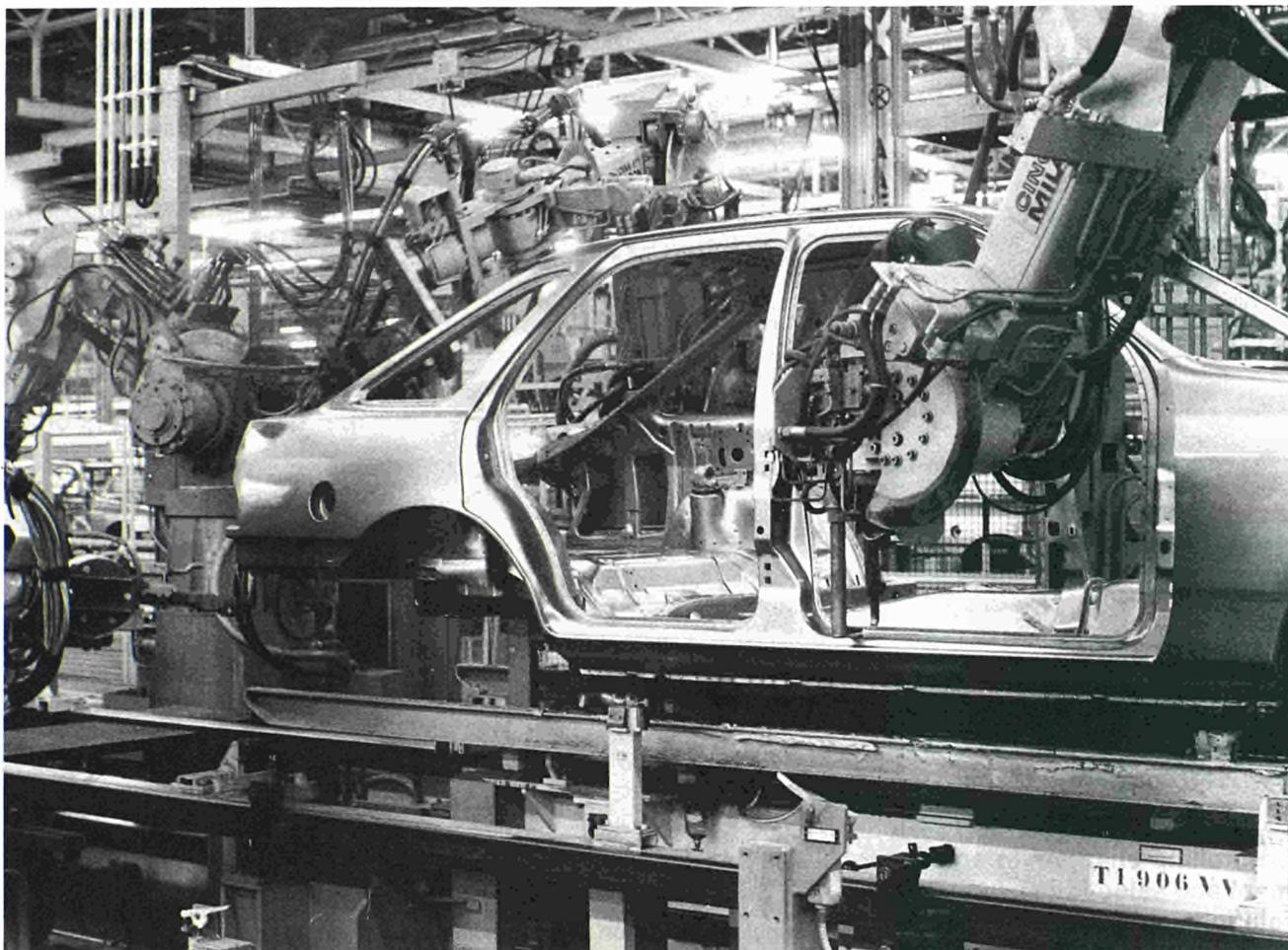
Two other factors are likely to influence the union's choice in favour of cooperation rather than confrontation on the industrial relations front: the existence of a tradition of institutionalized industrial democracy of joint decision-taking, and a single union for the entire industry. The resolution of conflicts of interest at plant-level is not made any easier when two or more unions are involved.

Controlling the change in employment structure; a model for restructuring the workforce

Looking closely at the situation at plant level, it becomes clear that personnel management policies may be based on either an internal or external model of workforce restructuring.

In the external model, changes to the labour force are made principally through a policy of selective recruitment and dismissal, helped by relatively few external constraints (statutory restrictions or collective agreements on hiring, restrictions on casual work), and the control of internal ones (demarcation, 'reserved' jobs). Personnel management is virtually a production function, but one which nevertheless implies an awareness of the need to import new skills from outside when necessary. In the internal model, attempts to make changes in the workforce run up against a virtually monolithic labour situation. Since external constraints make it difficult, if not impossible, to restructure the existing workforce in that way, the company is faced with two imperatives: firstly, to achieve a high degree of flexibility in working methods, and secondly, to raise the level of skills through a policy of in-plant training, promotion and re-deployment. In this case, manpower planning has to become an integral part of management responsibilities.

The seven, country-by-country case studies seem to establish that the future role of personnel management and manpower planning will be dictated to a great extent by external constraints, the skills available on the external labour market, the cost of in-



Today's car industry

Photo F. Cornil

house training and the economic incentives and attitudes of the workforce. In certain circumstances, companies could find a strategy of external workforce restructuring more in their interests than an internal one.

There would also appear to be a very strong connection between an internal model of manpower restructuring and planning, the existence of organized machinery for consultation and worker participation at plant- and workshop-level, decentralized and flexible working arrangements, and agreement between management and workers on production and productivity targets. Where any one of these elements exists, it is quite likely the others will also be found.

Internal restructuring is not without its costs in financial and organizational terms. Decision-making may become a drawn-out affair, welfare and training costs may be high, workers may demand higher wages for improved skills, etc. All those considerations, however, may be far outweighed by increased productivity, fewer strikes and stoppages, and improved product quality enabling the manufacturer to raise prices. This is not such a gamble as it seems if the carmakers in countries such as Sweden and the Federal Republic of Germany, where 'cooperative participation' is most developed, have (or have had to) concentrate their strategies on prestige models – the benefits from which far outweigh the costs of reaching agreement. Both

countries have, generally-speaking, notched up success both on their home and export markets.

The position of companies operating in markets where cost competition is a key factor may be as different again. They may find another strategy more appropriate, since industrial disputes may be, if not actually inevitable, at least accepted with something like resignation.

Successfully restructuring the workforce

As things stand at the moment, carmakers have no alternative but to attempt to integrate their product, manpower and industrial relations policies

into an overall corporate strategy. Difficult though it is to lay down hard-and-fast rules on personnel management and industrial relations policies, the authors take the view that those decision-makers who are looking for solid, and continuous backing from their workers in successfully riding out the process of industrial adjustment –

rather than simply beating them into submission with the threat of redundancy – must opt for the internal model of workforce restructuring and protect – or even strengthen – the existing machinery of worker participation.

Rather than trying to get rid of the institutional constraints, which employ-

ers find barring their access to the external labour market, a better approach might be to look for a less confrontational way of putting the industry back on its feet by inducing employers to plan the use of their manpower on a more long-term basis.

Georges Kintzele

Table I – Employment in the automobile industry of seven countries¹

1000

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
USA	799.0	845.5	874.8	976.5	907.7	792.4	881.0	938.0	977.1	982.8	773.8	723.2
Japan	580.0	574.8	607.2	634.4	614.8	601.2	622.3	629.4	637.8	651.3	682.8	704.3
EUR	1 899.5	1 929.6	1 918.5	2 007.5	1 944.6	1 844.2	1 897.0	1 968.5	2 000.1	2 008.9	1 963.3	1 796.9
D	605.7	630.4	608.8	625.4	610.6	566.3	587.2	625.4	650.2	673.3	684.1	670.0
F	476.4	484.1	519.0	528.5	505.3	507.4	534.3	535.3	534.1	523.5	503.0	505.2 ²
I	(258.8)	(266.6)	254.1	290.1	273.9	252.6	267.2	285.2	282.2	289.3	285.1	213.3
S	46.2	46.6	48.9	53.5	58.2	60.8	62.1	60.6	62.3	66.1	67.1	60.7
UK	512.4	501.9	487.7	510.0	496.6	457.1	446.2	462.0	471.3	456.7	424.0	347.7
Total	3 278.5	3 349.9	3 400.5	3 618.4	3 467.1	3 237.8	3 400.3	3 535.9	3 615.0	3 643.0	3 419.9	3 224.4

¹ The D, F and I series are not strictly comparable over time.

In Italy, components production was not included before 1972. On the basis of available information, the 1970 and 1971 figures were adjusted by 70 000. The French data for 1970-73 were adjusted by assuming that the proportion of the employment figures derived by the original and by the revised method in 1974 also applies to the years before.

² October.

Sources: Country reports. UK: Department of Employment, June each year (1978-81 estimated figures); USA: SIC 371 (roughly corresponding to NACE 35, but not including all suppliers); S: Industri, SCB 1970-81; F: Insee.

Table II – Development of employment (1970 = 100)

	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
USA	106	109	122	114	99	110	117	122	123	97	91
Japan	99	105	109	106	104	107	109	110	112	118	121
EUR	102	101	106	102	97	100	104	105	106	103	95
D	104	101	103	101	94	97	103	107	111	113	111
F	102	109	111	106	107	112	112	112	110	106	106
I	103	98	112	106	98	103	110	109	112	110	82
S	101	106	116	126	132	134	131	135	143	145	131
UK	98	95	100	97	89	87	90	92	89	83	68
Total	102	104	110	106	99	104	108	110	111	104	98

Source: Table I.

Table III – Shares in total employment of seven countries

%

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
USA	24.4	25.2	25.7	27.0	26.2	24.5	25.9	26.5	27.0	27.0	22.6	22.4
Japan	17.7	17.2	17.9	17.5	17.7	18.6	18.3	17.8	17.6	17.9	20.0	21.8
EUR	57.9	57.6	56.4	55.5	56.1	57.0	55.8	55.7	55.3	55.1	57.4	55.7
D	18.5	18.8	17.9	17.3	17.6	17.5	17.3	17.7	18.0	18.5	20.0	20.8
F	14.5	14.5	15.3	14.6	14.6	15.7	15.7	15.1	14.8	14.4	14.7	15.7
I	7.9	8.0	7.5	8.0	7.9	7.8	7.9	8.1	7.8	7.9	8.3	6.6
S	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.0	1.9
UK	15.6	15.0	14.3	14.1	14.3	14.1	13.1	13.1	13.0	12.5	12.4	10.8
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Table I.

Table IV – Output of automobile industries, in number of automobiles produced

1 000

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
USA	8 284	10 672	11 311	12 682	10 071	8 989	11 498	12 703	12 899	11 480	8 011	7 933	6 984
Japan	5 289	5 811	6 294	7 083	6 552	6 942	7 841	8 515	8 935	9 636	11 043	11 180	10 737
EUR	10 549	10 989	11 280	11 666	10 253	9 521	10 936	11 197	11 264	11 359	10 513	9 848	10 170
D	3 842	3 983	3 816	3 949	3 100	3 186	3 868	4 104	4 186	4 250	3 879	3 897	4 063
F	2 504	2 747	3 017	3 218	3 075	2 861	3 403	3 508	3 508	3 613	3 378	3 019	3 149
I	1 842	1 800	1 827	1 957	1 773	1 459	1 591	1 584	1 657	1 631	1 610	1 434	1 453
S	310	317	351	378	368	367	368	287	306	355	298	314	349
UK	2 051	2 142	2 269	2 164	1 937	1 648	1 706	1 714	1 607	1 510	1 348	1 184	1 156
Total	24 122	27 472	28 885	31 431	26 876	25 452	30 275	32 415	33 098	32 475	29 567	28 961	27 891

Source: VDA (always latest figures).

Table V – Development of output (1970 = 100)

	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
USA	129	137	153	122	109	139	153	156	139	97	96	84
Japan	110	119	134	124	131	148	161	169	182	209	211	203
EUR	104	107	111	97	90	104	106	107	108	100	93	96
D	104	99	103	81	83	101	107	109	111	101	101	106
F	110	120	129	123	114	136	140	140	144	135	121	126
I	98	99	106	96	79	86	86	90	89	87	78	79
S	102	113	122	119	118	119	93	99	115	96	101	113
UK	104	111	106	94	80	83	84	78	74	66	58	56
Total	114	120	130	111	106	126	134	137	135	123	120	116

Source: Table IV.

Table VI – Shares in total output of seven countries

%

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
USA	34.3	38.8	39.2	40.3	37.5	35.3	38.0	39.2	39.0	35.4	27.1	27.4	25.0
Japan	21.9	21.2	21.8	22.5	24.4	27.3	25.9	26.3	27.0	29.7	37.3	38.6	38.5
EUR	43.7	40.0	39.1	37.1	38.1	37.4	36.1	34.5	34.0	35.0	35.6	34.0	36.5
D	15.9	14.5	13.2	12.6	11.5	12.5	12.8	12.7	12.6	13.1	13.1	13.5	14.6
F	10.4	10.0	10.4	10.2	11.4	11.2	11.2	10.8	10.6	11.1	11.4	10.4	11.3
I	7.6	6.6	6.3	6.2	6.6	5.7	5.3	4.9	5.0	5.0	5.4	5.0	5.2
S	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.2	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.3
UK	8.5	7.8	7.9	6.9	7.2	6.5	5.6	5.3	4.9	4.6	4.6	4.1	4.1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Table IV.

National round tables on social security

Social security problems rate high on the list of concerns in every country of the European Community without exception. They have been put under the microscope and examined with varying degrees of intensity, on all sides. As yet, however, no one has succeeded in coming up with a solution acceptable all round. The question of what should be done about social welfare has as many different answers as there are people concerned with it. To get those answers all you have to do is ask. And that was precisely what the Commission set out to do when it took the initiative calling for the organization of a series of round tables on social security.

The Commission's aim in publishing its communication to the Council on social security problems (set out as a series of points for consideration)¹ was to stimulate a wide-ranging discussion, both at national and Community level, on the strains being imposed on the social security schemes by the present crisis in business and industry affecting particularly, but not only, the Community. This discussion document was also passed on to the other Community institutions, where the European Parliament immediately adopted preliminary positions, and the ESC set up a working party, on the basis of it. An informal Social Security Council was held in Athens in November 1983, where the main item on the agenda was the Commission document.

However, the Commission thought that it would be even more useful if this semi-official step taken at Community level were to be backed up by sounding out national opinion through 'round tables' in each Member State. These would be attended by representatives from government, the two sides of industry, institutions responsible for administering social security, etc. In other words, they would provide a forum for all those having a voice – frequently an important voice – in social welfare policy-making.

To organize the round tables, the Commission called on the help of a group of independent experts in the coordination of social protection (i. e. social security and health policies).

Plans were made to stage the round tables in two phases, beginning on 17 May 1983 and concluding on 9 December 1983. The discussions and conclusions of most of them are scheduled for publication in report form during the first quarter of 1984.

The discussion on health care expenditure brought out the suggestion that patients might contribute to financing in a more direct way, with physicians playing an intermediary role.

The growing importance of the problems brought about by aging popu-

lations and those living on or near the poverty line was also raised on a number of occasions.

In contrast, most of the round tables tended to skirt around the issue of where the money comes from to pay for the welfare state, and, with more reason, on what adjustments could be made to financing methods an increasing the effectiveness of social protection systems.

II. The second series of round tables was held in the 'northern' countries of the Community – Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom. These meetings highlighted a number of preliminary issues which the Commission Memorandum had perhaps tended to gloss over.

* Preliminary issues

Should we be looking for the root causes of the present situation in the current economic crisis, or do they rather stem from broader structural deficiencies? Some of the points raised in connection with this were: the enormous growth of over-treatment; the massive influx of women workers onto the labour market; the development of new forms of working (part-time work), and the repercussions from the development of the nuclear family (where many of the services previously taken care of by members of the extended family were now thrown onto society as a whole).

Is enough allowance made for specific national characteristics? Demographic considerations in Ireland; the immense simplicity of the Danish system; the extent of social protection in the Netherlands; the control of health expenditure in the United Kingdom. All these are inescapable political realities; and all diverge from the Community 'average' profile.

Can social insurance issues be treated in isolation from the related ques-

¹ Doc. COM (82) 716 final. *Social Europe* No 00, p. 20.

tions of taxation and national assistance, when in certain countries all three were clearly interrelated? Can discussions on social welfare be divorced from ethical and political considerations?

The preliminary results and impressions of those round tables are well worth a brief examination even before the official reports appear, however.

I. Five round tables were held between 17 May and 8 June 1983 at Athens, Paris, Louvain (Leuven), Luxembourg and Rome.

A number of important points were raised.

*** Context of the discussions**

All those taking part agreed that the time was ripe for this type of discussion, and felt the Commission should be congratulated on its initiative. All the Member States were currently faced with great difficulties in their social security systems, even those who – like Greece – were still trying to build theirs up to the level of the other Member States.

The discussions were frank and free of rhetoric; perhaps because the participants were there in their purely personal capacities (although how far a member of an organization can distance himself from the official line is not certain), or perhaps because of the total lack (deliberate) of media coverage.

And yet, each meeting was attended by more or less equal contingents of the traditional protagonists – employers, workers, officials from Ministries and other social security administrations, and other interest groups: chambers of commerce and industry, representatives of smaller businesses, etc.

*** Emerging themes**

Excepting Greece – where the central problem is still to build up the welfare state to the most comprehensive level possible, (and its corollary: finding the economic and financial

means to do it) the principal area of concern is how to maintain the present levels of old age and health benefits. For obvious reasons, the problem of financing tended to be glossed over.

During the discussions on old-age pensions, which generally tend to be financed by flat-rate or graduated contributions ('the contract between generations'), the possibility was raised of a return to financing from capital.

These preliminary issues set the tone for the subsequent discussions around the points raised in the Commission's memorandum. They also brought forth a number of other comments. Unfortunately, only the broadest idea of these can be given within the scope of this article.

*** Containment of expenditure**

One of the principal strains on the welfare state was the rising number of jobless. Action to reduce unemployment must be given top priority (either through stimulating a business recovery or by redistributing the work available). If cost control in the social services is not to mean a drop in the standard of protection, then greater selectivity must be exercised over who should benefit.

Health expenditure

Treatment must be directed at the cause of the sickness, not simply to relieve the symptoms. The public must be educated and made aware of its responsibilities. This might involve a radical review of methods of treatment and a reorganization of the systems. Given the high level of expenditure on health care, governments should expect to see a tangible return on their investment in terms of improved public health in general. Failing which, the entire policy might have to be reviewed.

Indexation

In general, this topic tended to be skimmed over, despite the fact that

adjustments have been made in all countries to the machinery for revaluing benefits.

Old-age insurance

There is no clear-cut solution to the problem of aging populations. The demographic impact will not become significant until after the year 2000. The growth of complementary (private) pension schemes seemed to indicate that people were prepared to pay more to secure a good pension (confirmed by opinion polls).

*** Financing**

This was a hotly-debated topic. Should the system be funded through contributions or taxation? How should the cost be apportioned between the two methods of financing? How do we distinguish between the responsibilities of insurance and those of the social protection of the population as a whole? And if we move away from the system of employee's contributions (in order not to penalize those in work), what will be the social and economic repercussions of widening the chargeable base to include value added tax? And what about the use of direct taxation? Or indirect taxation?

The round tables also broached the problem of how to increase the public's sense of financial responsibility for social care: whether by decentralizing the system, moving away from anonymous taxes on use, etc. It was suggested that new forms of work (such as job-splitting and part-time work) might generate fresh welfare and tax revenue (but only on condition that they also enjoyed the corresponding benefits).

*** Effectiveness of social protection**

Much was said about the problems of poverty and those not covered by state welfare provisions. But considerable emphasis was also placed on ways of making the system more flexible; giving it a more human face, and reduc-



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ing discrimination in all areas. It was thought that scope could be found here for national, as well as Community, action.

Without wishing to overstate the role played by the round tables in the discussion opened up by the Commission on the future of our social security systems, we must nevertheless recognise that they did fulfil a very useful

purpose. They provided the opportunity for 200 people to get together – in groups of 20 – over a very short period to discuss common problems for five hours at a time.

The same intensity of dialogue, if carried out under the Community consultation procedure set up in 1975, would have taken three years to achieve.

What remains to be done now, is to make use of that rich dialogue and the discussion underpinning it. It has to be translated into practical guidelines and concrete actions. And that will be high on the agenda of forthcoming meetings of the Community's Social Security Ministers – whether formal or informal.

Richard Draperle

One-parent families and poverty in the EEC

This study was undertaken in 1982 in the nine EEC countries (excluding Greece) in the wake of the 1979/80 national reports on poverty and policies to combat poverty in Member States, most of which had identified one-parent families as high on the list of population groups threatened by poverty. As the study was intended as a complement to the information (on such families provided in the national reports, its basic object was defined as 'identifying the number and composition of one-parent families, their living conditions, the attitudes towards them, and the policies adopted to help and support them'. A one-parent family was defined as one consisting of at least one dependant, unmarried child living with a lone parent, and the study was thus concerned with a *de facto* and not a *de jure* situation, the decisive factor being that the lone parent had the sole responsibility – financially and educationally – for the child/children whose age limit, for the purpose of the study, was set at 18.

Three categories of one-parent families were investigated, those where

- one of the spouses had died,
- the married couple was permanently separated,
- an unmarried woman had given birth to a child.

Findings

There were approximately 4 million one-parent families in the EEC (not including Greece) in 1982, equivalent to 10% of all families with children ranging from a high percentage (12%) group of countries: Denmark, Luxembourg and the UK to low percentage Ireland (5.6%) whilst the percentages for the other five Member States (9–11%) clustered around the EEC average.

The widow/widower group was found to make up the majority of one-parent families in Belgium, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands whereas in the other four countries, the divorced or separated accounted for nearly two-thirds of the number of one-parent families. The percentage of unmarried mothers was low (under 10%) in all countries except Denmark (23%) and the United Kingdom (18%).

Since women constitute the majority of single parents, their earned income is determined, on the one hand, by women's general involvement within the national labour market and by the general relationship between wages for men and women, and on the other hand by the educational level of single women and the availability and cost of child care during working hours (particularly in cases of single parents with children below school age).

Th UK was the only Member State where the employment rate of single mothers was the same as for married women with children. A considerable proportion (half in the UK and one-third in Denmark and the FR of Germany) of single mothers were found to be working part-time but in all countries the frequency of part-time working was much less for single mothers than for married women with children.

There is scant information on the income of single parents in some Member States but the impression is that in all EEC countries, the frequency of low incomes is higher among one-parent families than among those with two parents, and a large proportion of one-parent families are poor.

Differences in attitudes towards different forms of marital status have contributed to the fact that social policy arrangements for one-parent families are, in most EEC countries, neither uniform nor comprehensive. Denmark, France and the UK were the only countries where social benefits (excluding widows pensions) were the same for all categories of single parents. However, in all Member States, one-parent families do have the possibility of obtaining social assistance and quite a considerable proportion seemed to resort to this. Widows pensions are included in all social security systems – in most Member States, except Belgium, Denmark and France, such pensions depend on the dead husband's insurance position which of course varies according to his period of employment and earnings.

All one-parent families are included in the general child allowance legislation of all countries. Most single parents have only one child, but since a lower allowance was being paid for the first child in Belgium, Luxembourg and the FR of Germany and none at all in France (for the first child), those legislations tended to work to the disadvantage of such parents. It is to be noted, however, that Denmark, France and the UK did grant an increased child allowance to one-parent families and that Italy and Ireland gave a special family allowance to unmarried mothers.

Private maintenance contributions by the child's father are of great importance to divorced, separated or unmarried mothers and in the first two cases alimony is often payable. These contributions constitute a statutory right in all countries but mothers were found to have great difficulties in obtaining payment. In Denmark, France and Germany mothers have the right to an allowance disbursement from the authorities equivalent to the unpaid contributions – the authorities seeking to recover the amount afterwards from the father.

In most countries child care, when the single parent was at work or seeking employment, presented great dif-



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difficulties. Whilst there was good provision for children in kindergartens supported by public funds in Denmark, the UK, Germany and France (where they are free of charge), more serious problems were encountered with regard to day-nurseries for younger children. Private day care facilities do exist practically everywhere but, except in Denmark, these are expensive. Whenever such facilities could not be utilized, either on account of the scarcity of places or the high cost, relatives, usually grandparents, helped with looking after the child but when such help was not available single parents had no alternative but to turn to social assistance or philanthropic organizations.

The divorced and separated who were compelled to move from the 'fam-

ily home' were found to have serious housing problems, none so serious, however, as the young unmarried mothers who had no such previous 'family home'. Widows sometimes found themselves unable to continue living in their home on account of the cost of maintenance and for all categories of one-parent families, expenditure on housing was found to be high in relation to their income.

Historically, attitudes towards single parents have varied greatly, according to whether they are widowed, separated, divorced or unmarried. Governments have always feared that legal recognition and social policy support in cases of divorce, separation or birth out of wedlock might be interpreted as undermining the family and marriage.

Until recent decades, the largest group of single parents in all countries was made up of widows with children and they have always been surrounded by special consideration and social policy support. In contrast divorced and separated mothers have occupied a lower social position and only in recent years have social policy arrangements been made for them. Unmarried mothers with children are a relatively new phenomenon of our society and although progress has been made in most Member States regarding social policy arrangements for them, their legal position is still weak in several Member States and the benefits they can get from the State still inadequate.

France L'aiguille

Notes

(a) This report was prepared for the Commission by Laurits Lauritsen and Steen Scheuer under the direction of Henning Friis – all of Copenhagen.

(b) The problem of the poverty of one-parent families was identified in the round of consultations undertaken in 1983 by the Commission as one of the themes requiring priority action in a future Community programme to combat poverty. The initia-

tives to be proposed by the Commission in the framework of a second poverty programme will consequently be more particularly addressed to this specific population group.

Employment and the social integration of the handicapped

A survey conducted by the Sociology Department of the Law Faculty of the Free University of Brussels

On average, 1 in 10 of the total population in each of the Member States is in some way handicapped. But not all that 10% by any means suffers from the same, or even the same type, of handicap: it ranges from those who have simply lost touch with the external world, to those who cannot get around without the help of a wheelchair, and others who, as far as can be told from external appearances are 'no different from you and me'. This huge diversity of 'handicaps' leads the authors of this study to ask two questions: firstly, is it even feasible for all the disabled to be integrated back into working life; and secondly (supposing the answer to that question to be 'yes'), does it necessarily solve the problems?

The chief concern of this study is to show that, while the ability to hold down a job may be an essential factor in social integration in societies still largely founded on the work ethic, it is by no means the only one. Their research also shows that helping the handicapped to adjust to a normal working life is something that must not be seen as an end in itself, it must form part of a more general attempt to integrate them into society as a whole.

A new approach to social integration

In the majority of the countries in the survey, perceptible changes are shown to have been occurring in the definition of what is meant by the social integration of the handicapped. This questioning of preconceived attitudes, however, must be seen in the context of a more general, deeper-reaching process of social adjustment, two key features of which are the new technological revolution and the prevailing recession. Business, community and political leaders are beginning to ask themselves not only what their ends should be, but also what are the best means of achieving them. Even with all the vast financial resources poured into the welfare state, a significant minority of our populations still live virtually from day-to-day and hand-to-mouth. The

key to the problem is who should get what; politically and technically, the choice seems to be between 'everyone' and 'those who really need it'.

Added to this is the desire expressed by many to see benefits more closely tailored to individual needs and behaviour. This has led them to question the ethos of the 'institutionalizing' structures of the welfare state, such as old people's homes and psychiatric hospitals – and also centres for the handicapped.

As yet, however, the social services have taken little account of these emergent aspirations. One conclusion arrived at by the authors of the study from their analysis of how the welfare services work, is that a virtual chasm exists separating those providing the service from those using it. They also found that while consumers were fairly heavily dependent on the administrative agencies, they had no say in setting the objectives of the service and no control over how it is run. A noticeable levelling of welfare standards is also taking place.

More than assistance: Integration

The social integration of the handicapped all too often falls into the same depressing pattern.

The first question to ask before making any attempt to formulate a policy of social rehabilitation is, 'what are the needs to be met?' followed by, 'how do we go about meeting them?'. That immediately raises the problem of how to identify needs. Which in its turn demands that we first define what sort of handicap we are talking about. It may be defined legally – in which case it will interpret the needs of an entire sub-population. It may be operational – when it will reflect a degree of dependence not found in the former definition. In either case, the choice of definition will largely determine the type of policy put into effect.

Some assistance schemes, whose aims are to ensure 'the survival and maintenance, of persons incapable of taking care of their own essential needs', treat the handicapped person



Handicapped people in a 'protected' workshop.

Photo Cornil

as no more than a passive object. More recently, however, schemes have tended to take greater account of the handicapped person's own desires to be more completely integrated into his own social environment.

This has produced a more liberal interpretation of what is meant by 'handicap'. It has also led to attempts to graft a social purpose onto the assistance offered. The authors show how essential it is to assess a handicapped person's disability in terms of his or her own lifestyle. The greater flexibility of this approach will provide a boost not only for social integration, but also for dealing with the needs of the handicapped on a more personal basis.

**Vocational training:
The key to successful
industrial rehabilitation**

In a society which defines and classifies people according to the job they do, a normal working life becomes crucial to the handicapped person. Having a job to go to is not simply a way of passing the time it gives the disabled worker a way of defining himself in relation to an accepted social group and building himself a social identity.

For many handicapped people, access to occupational training is the first step towards 'equality of opportunity'. While the vocational training systems of the Member States may be open to the handicapped in theory, the practice tells a very different story. The first part of this survey (together with the appendices on France and Italy) describes and analyses the work preparation facilities for handicapped people in the Member States of the European Communities.

The selection process for 'ordinary' training is a two-stage affair. Direct selection takes place where the educational structures are simply not appropriate for handicapped people – difficult access to buildings, work stations not adapted to handicapped workers, instructors not trained in the special requirements of the handicapped, inade-

quate support – and on the basis of the individual aptitudes of the handicapped themselves. But there also exists a process of indirect selection based on the jobs available to the labour market.

The authors have pinpointed what they see as two priority needs with relation to current vocational training opportunities. Firstly, they feel that ordinary training facilities, and teaching methods, need restructuring from the ground up so as to extend access to a greater number of handicapped persons. Secondly, a radical review is needed of the dead-end type of work for which the disabled are trained and the production technologies used. This is a criticism which has frequently been voiced in the past. They also feel it is time to do away with the segregation which sheltered employment facilities create. In most of the Member States, attempts are being made to take fresh initiatives in training the handicapped for normal working conditions. All these experiments have certain features in common, although the details of the schemes stretch across a very broad spectrum indeed, from tailoring work preparation classes to individual needs (after an observation period enabling a skilled assessment to be made of their aptitudes and characters) through training/work experience schemes, to integrated training/work experience schemes along the lines of the United Kingdom's Outset project.

Moving onto a more conceptual plane, the study identifies two distinct models within the training system generally. The first model places the handicapped worker on an equal footing with others in the labour market: it is ultimately based on the economic value of work. It presupposes a selection process amongst handicapped workers which excludes the moderately and severely mentally handicapped. The second model seeks to establish the greatest possible equilibrium between the handicapped person and his social environment by a greater emphasis on individual needs. The underlying philosophy is that of the social value of labour, and enables the motor and

mental abilities of the handicapped worker to be brought to terms with each other.

This latter point is clearly illustrated in the example offered by some of the reception centres for the severely mentally handicapped in France, the Netherlands and Denmark. The goal of these units is to guide the handicapped in acquiring the skills of ordinary, day-to-day living; this is coupled with manual activities aimed at developing their sensory and motor reactions. It is vocational training with a therapeutic goal aimed ultimately at finding work for the handicapped person in a normal work environment – even if for only a few hours a day.

**Work: The be-all and
end-all of integration?**

Generally speaking, the purpose of vocational training is to fit the trainee for work of some nature, whether for productive employment in a sheltered or open workplace, or some form of 'alternative' activity.

For many handicapped people, the first stage of their integration into society comes by way of sheltered employment. But why do we need sheltered employment facilities in the first place? There are a number of different answers to that particular question. Firstly, for many of the seriously or severely disabled, there is quite simply no other alternative. It gives the handicapped worker a temporary occupation until he can find ordinary work suited to him. But it is also needed because of the great reluctance of many companies to recruit handicapped employees.

Over and above the purely economic difficulties they face (difficulties in keeping going despite government financial assistance, frequently not very productive – although there are exceptions to this), sheltered employment units are too frequently the dinosaurs of industry. They leave handicapped workers with little room to improve and upgrade their occupational skills, and offer little hope of their ever

being able to adapt to a normal work environment. In France, barely 2 to 3% of workers ever leave the 'Centres d'aide par le travail' (CAT – industrial rehabilitation centres) or 'ateliers protégés' (sheltered workshops).

The study also gives us a country-by-country description of the channels through which the handicapped worker is given access to open working environments. Generally speaking, it appears that policies based on providing incentives to employers to take on handicapped workers, or fining those who fail to employ their full quota of handicapped people, are not particularly helpful. Financial incentives alone are not enough; they need to be coupled with measures aimed at increasing the social acceptance of the disabled.

The authors also point to alternative experiments being run, in Germany and Italy in particular, with the combined aim of helping the handicapped to adjust both to working and social life.

Wanted: An overall approach to integration

The current experiments taking place with the industrial rehabilitation of the disabled are clearly moving in a direction where the idea of simply providing the handicapped with a technical qualification is seen to fall far short of the aim of helping them fully adjust to life in society.

But one of the chief obstacles to assessing these policies is that their effectiveness depends on what meaning we give to the word 'integration'. Do

we mean integration into society in the sense that the handicapped person is able to join in the greatest possible variety of social activities? Or do we mean providing them with the framework for an integrated life in the sense of adapting their immediate environment to their physical and mental aptitudes? Or again, are we really talking about forming an integrated personality; by which we mean achieving the greatest degree of harmony possible between their physical skills and intellectual faculties?

As the authors of the study stress in their conclusion 'any policy of integration is bound to come up against these three facets of the problem; but the importance attached to each will depend very much on the value systems of the social and welfare workers themselves'.

On-the-job training: The Italian experience

In the view of the authors of this study, Italy emerges as the clear leader in the field of the successful socio-occupational integration of the handicapped. Its high level of general concern is reflected not only in its enlightened social legislation, but also in the attitudes of the social and welfare workers.

Handicapped people are normally prepared for the real world of work by on-the-job training in either public or private sector firms, or in commercially-run cooperatives. Not all the regions are at the same stage of development

as regards their training schemes, however, although certain particularly important initiatives are worthy of note – such as the employment of handicapped workers in restoring historic books and documents in Milan.

The work experience training schemes run by the country's co-operatives are worth a closer look. In some of them, handicapped workers are trained by employees in the cooperative's own production procedures; others work closely with, or are even set up by, occupational training centres.

Agricultural cooperatives seem to be amongst the most promising areas of development. The authors note in the study that in certain cooperatives (such as the Aquilina Centre in the Romagna) specific tasks are reserved for handicapped workers. While at present these schemes mostly cater for the slightly to moderately physically and mentally handicapped, there is no reason why agricultural training of this nature could not be opened up to a wider section of the handicapped population.

The principal problems with work experience schemes generally stem from old-fashioned ideas and outdated production technology; in some cases, tasks are simply too narrowly specialized. Nevertheless, they do represent, for the handicapped person, an invaluable contact with the world of productive work, which is not only an essential step towards their future integration into the workplace, but also a vital factor in their integration into the community at large.

The staggering of holidays in the European Community

The absurdity, and indeed the gravity, of the tourism situation in Europe, due to the over-concentration of holidays into a very limited number of peak periods in the year, is one that is immediately obvious to anyone who chooses, or who is obliged by external constraints, to take his holidays during such peak periods. He is disadvantaged from almost every point of view. Prices are higher during the so-called high seasons. Popular resorts are crowded, leading to unacceptable physical conditions and to a deteriorating environment. Transport of all forms is crowded, and travel by road especially becomes nightmarish and dangerous. What should, after a year of work and stress, become a period for gentle relaxation and change of scene, is often in fact merely a continuation of stress in

another location, due to the crowds, the queues, the noise and the hassle.

On common sense grounds alone, and without even considering the economic and social benefits, there is a very strong case for a much wider spread of the load across the year, so as to take the pressures off the various installations and services concerned with providing the necessary facilities for tourism. It makes little sense, by any criterion of judgment, to have expensive investments over-utilized for a few months of the year, and for them to stand idle during the rest of the year. We are all familiar with the 'dead' resorts in coastal areas, in the mountains, and in other popular tourist areas, outside the main tourist season. Hotels with their shutters presenting a hideous

and neglected appearance; restaurants and cafés closed; services of all kinds suspended until the following spring; travel facilities much reduced or even suspended. Such under-utilization of course means that overhead costs have to be recouped over a very short period of the year, instead of being spread out over 12 months, with the inevitable consequences for the tourist of much higher prices for peak season usage. It is nothing short of a major scandal that tourists are exploited in this way. But, what can be done about it?

The reasons for the over-concentration of holidays into certain periods of the year are easy to identify, but extremely difficult to overcome. Serious constraints are imposed by the patterns of school holidays in the various

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Member States, as well as by the holiday arrangements in industry, commerce and the public services. In other cases, availability for holidays is dependent upon the constraints imposed by the timing of the spouse's holidays. It has been established that some 40% of all persons taking holidays are free of these constraints, and therefore free to take their holidays when they like: but in practice even these people opt to join the crowds and to go on holiday during peak periods! Perhaps they are attracted by the long summer days, by the sun or snow, or the absence of rain and other inclement weather. But this is a myth not borne out by climatic records and statistics, which do not justify the overwhelming pre-eminence of August over July or September.

The problem then is on the one hand one of imposed external constraints, and on the other of personal preference. People need to be enabled to take their holidays over a much longer period of the year, by a staggering of the periods when holidays may be taken, and they then need to be persuaded that it is in their best interests to consider taking some or all of their holidays at other than the traditional peak periods.

The problem of the concentration of holiday activity into certain peak periods is one that has been considered by the Commission at various times in recent years, and in a number of different contexts. The Education Committee¹ has discussed the problem without coming to any positive conclusions. Research studies have been carried out on the economic effects of the staggering of holidays, and also on the general problem of how to achieve a better staggering of holidays by means of concerted action by the Member States of the European Community. The matter was also examined in the context of a study on the future prospects for European tourism, and is now seen as one of the key issues in the development of a Community policy for tourism. The study recently com-



British tourists at Ostend.

Photo 'Le Soir', Bruxelles

pleted for the Commission by the Bureau International du Tourisme Social, Brussels, has analysed the problem in depth, and puts forward some guidelines for action at Community level. It analyses the principal characteristics of tourism in the European Community geographical area, and attempts to evaluate the reasons for the concentration of tourism activity – both in terms of time and of space – into a small number of peak periods in the year. It looks at the economic and social effects of such a concentration, particularly as regards employment, transport utilization, hotel and other facilities, and price structures and differentials.

It seems clear that it is not possible for the problem to be solved at the level of each individual Member State, although some have introduced staggering on a regional or zone basis, in order to spread departure and return dates for holidays over a rather longer period, but still restricted to the main summer period of June to September. Some countries see serious problems in introducing staggering, due to the interlocking of school and higher education timetables, the varying degrees of autonomy and independence as far as the

fixing of holiday periods is concerned, and climatic constraints in the abnormally hot or abnormally cold regions of the Community.

The report by the BITS stresses the need for a coordinated supranational approach to the solution of the problem, possibly through the medium of the European Community, and suggests a two-phase programme of action (1984-86 and 1987-88) by the Commission in collaboration with the Member States.

The Commission proposes to have the question discussed once again in the Education Committee, where there has been no consideration of the subject since the inconclusive discussions which were held in 1978. A policy discussion document on the subject is in course of preparation by the services of the Commission, which will analyse the main issues, and put forward a number of suggestions for a possible amelioration – if not for a solution – of the problem. This paper will form the basis for policy discussions in both the Education Committee and the Commission's inter-service group on the development of a Community tourism policy.

Ronald Martin

¹ Part of the Community's Council of Ministers.

Occupational cancer: How to identify it. How to prevent it.

Can cancer really be described as an occupational disease? Or, as it is sometimes dubbed 'the 20th Century sickness'? Whether or not, no investigation into the causes of cancer can afford to ignore the occupational factor. Merely to speculate on the possible causes of cancer is to recognize the sheer enormity and complexity of the subject. And today, many people are beginning to voice doubts as to exactly how many of the identified cases of cancer may in fact be attributable to the type of work done by the sufferer.

And it is not only the members of the medical and scientific community who are beginning to think along these lines. In many Member States, their concerns are shared by those directly exposed to occupational risks, on both the union and employers' sides. Employers also face the additional risk that tighter controls might make them less competitive. With all these factors in mind, the European Community has since 1978, been taking steps to raise the level of protection and prevention at work. In its first action programme on health and safety at work,¹ two particular actions were directed specifically at carcinogens.

One of the actions was aimed at promoting the protection, and safeguarding the health, of workers by fixing exposure limits, setting out sampling and measuring procedures and laying down standards, for workplace hygiene. The other recommended that notices be drawn up dealing with the risks attaching to certain dangerous substances such as carcinogens, together with codes of practice on how to handle them safely.

In 1980 the first step was taken towards an overall approach to the protection of workers, with a directive² on information and medical supervision of workers exposed to certain dangerous substances. It foresaw the limitation of exposure to some of the most dangerous substances, which the Commission also dealt with by special directives.^{3, 4}

Clearly, while these measures represent a worthwhile start in protecting workers from certain risks, they cannot by any means cover the wide range of hazardous chemicals in use across the entire spectrum of industry today. Not to mention that today's new development may be tomorrow's new disease. That is the reason why the Commission decided to launch a second action programme on safety and health at work, which will continue its earlier initiatives on hazardous substances. That programme has recently been adopted by the Council.⁵

What causes cancer?

Cancer is not a specific disease with a universal cause. In cancers new cells proliferate without control to form a mass of tissue (a neoplasm or tumour) which compresses, invades and/or destroys the cells of normal tissue and may spread (or metastasize) throughout the whole body.

The prospects for effective treatment of cancer are much better today than they were 20 years ago even. However, we are still a long way from having a truly effective treatment for most cancers. Research, therefore, should place more emphasis on prevention.

Unfortunately, scientists are as yet unable to agree on a single explanation for why malignant cells proliferate in such an uncontrolled manner or why tumours develop. While it is highly likely that any one cancer may have a number of contributory causes, it is

also clear that certain specific causes precipitate certain types of cancer. Medical science is also baffled by why, in a given group of people all exposed to the same environmental conditions, some will develop cancers and others will not. Our understanding of cancer is patchy at best; although, on some things we are on surer ground. We know, for instance, that most cancers seem to develop after the age of 40. Sex and age are also important factors in the growth of malignant tumours.

The geographical distribution of various types of cancer is also significant. What may be common in one region may be relatively unheard-of in another. Stomach cancer, for example, has a higher-than-average incidence in Japan, but is rarely encountered in the USA.

External causes seem to be at the root of most of the known cancers. By external causes, I mean carcinogenic agents in the air, water or contained in our food, certain ways of living and working, a metabolic change brought about by illness or a change of diet. Inherited constitution also plays a part. A predisposition to cancer (which may run in the family) may be triggered off by any of the factors just mentioned, which may also act synergistically to cause cancer.

Therein lies the difficulty in identifying the 'sole cause' of cancer.

A 20th Century sickness?

The great majority of deaths at the turn of the century were due to infectious diseases such as tuberculosis, pneumonia, bronchitis, diarrhoea or dysentery. In England and Wales, for example, 35% of all recorded deaths in 1901 were attributed to these causes. That is now largely a thing of the past thanks to antibiotics and other newly-developed drugs. The main killers of late-20th Century industrialized man are firstly cardiovascular disease, and secondly cancer. In England and Wales 21.1% of all deaths were due to these two causes, against a mere 5% in 1901. In addition to that, it was estimated that 1 in 4 of the population had had a cancer of some description.

One explanation frequently put forward for the rising number of deaths from cancer is that more people now live to the age at which cancer is likely to develop. However, a study by the United Kingdom Office of Population, Censuses and Surveys failed to establish any definite link between the two. Even allowing for the differences linked to longevity, cancer is on the increase in absolute terms.

Cancer: Individual sickness or occupational disease?

Leaving the theoretical question of the historic rise in the incidence of cancer to one side for a moment; the fact remains that we have yet to firmly identify the factors which cause cancer. One

¹ OJ C 165, 11. 7. 1978.

² OJ L 327, 3. 12. 1980.

³ Vinyl chloride monomer (Directive OJ L 197, 22. 7. 1978).

⁴ On 19. 9. 1983 the Council adopted a directive (OJ L 263, 19. 9. 1983) concerning the protection of workers against the risks linked to occupational exposure to asbestos.

⁵ OJ C 67, 8. 3. 1984, p. 2.

starting point might be to quantify the incidence of the principal types of cancer occurring. Taking as an example the incidence of lung cancer in England and Wales, we find that 3 times more men are now dying each year from lung cancer than 25 years ago. The proportion is likely to be much the same in other European countries. No doubt that may in part be attributed to increased cigarette smoking; but is that alone a sufficient explanation of the trend? The United Kingdom's Cancer Registry Statistics reveal very different patterns as between the urban and rural populations. According to the figures, the city-dweller runs a greater risk of developing lung cancer than his country cousin; not particularly because he smokes more cigarettes, but because his environment is more polluted. What the figures do not tell us, however, is in what proportions his lung cancer is due to car exhaust fumes, industrial pollution and self-inflicted exposure to carcinogenic substances. Some forms of cancer are so directly linked to certain types of job that they are considered occupational diseases and therefore eligible for compensation payments. In a list of such 'prescribed diseases' we find: skin cancer caused by soot, tars and mineral oils (recognized in 1921); lung cancer caused by nickel; bladder cancer caused by certain aromatic amines (auramine) (1953); mesothelioma caused by asbestos; adenocarcinoma caused by wood dust, etc. The example of lung cancer I quoted above shows the almost insurmountable difficulty in assessing what proportion of all cancers is due to occupational factors; it is also the reason attempts to put hard figures to it have produced estimates ranging from 2–5% up to 20–40%.

Identifying carcinogens

The problem facing us is that of knowing how to identify a particular substance as one likely to cause cancer, and what criteria to apply to the results of existing research. The criteria vary according to whether we look at the disease generally as being part of the price exacted by industrialization and the competitive ethic, or whether we examine it in terms of the effects on the individual and the society in which he lives. The view we finally take will naturally have serious implications for the way in which we estimate the risks and our view of how to prevent them. The European chemical industry emphasizes the dangers to the industry of over-estimating the risk. The union movement, on the other hand, particularly in its statements through the European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC), stress the danger to workers and their working environment of under-estimating that risk.

Epidemiological studies

Epidemiological studies carried out to date have established that certain chemical and physical substances used in industrial production processes do cause cancer.

These studies have compared the incidence of a certain type of cancer in a defined group of the general population with that in a control group or the population as a whole. The first such study, produced by the London surgeon Percival Pott in 1775, showed a high incidence of testicular cancer in chimney-sweeps. The foundations of modern epidemiological studies, however, were really laid towards the end of the 1940s by Case's studies of bladder cancer in industrial workers, and Doll and Hill's work implicating cigarette smoke and asbestos in cancer of the lung. During the 1970s, attempts were made to link angiosarcomas to exposure to vinyl chloride monomer (VCM). Three cases of this

very rare disease were diagnosed among workers who had long periods of contact with VCM in a Louisville (Kentucky) factory in which it was used. The publication of the findings caused an uproar; VCM was widely used in manufacturing processes throughout the plastics industry. One of the researchers involved stressed that the research would have taken years to complete, but for the extremely low incidence of this type of cancer in the population as a whole (about 2 cases for every 10 000 to 40 000 deaths). A slightly higher-than-average incidence of lung cancer would not have been particularly remarkable, and a causal link with VCM could certainly not have been established as quickly. This very clearly shows the sort of difficulties which epidemiological studies are up against. Since cancer does not develop until up to 40 years after exposure to the carcinogenic agent, epidemiological studies, of necessity, have to be long-term. They also have to be carried out on a sufficiently large population exposed to the carcinogenic substance. The value of epidemiological studies can also be reduced or negated for a number of reasons: one of the two criteria just mentioned may not have been fulfilled; there may be no reports available on previous exposure; the target group may be handling too many substances to enable the carcinogen to be identified with any degree of certainty. Yet another drawback of such studies is that the situation may continue unchanged for decades.

A further argument against epidemiological studies alone is the ethical objection to using groups of people as human guinea pigs.

Long-term animal experiments

All mammals have certain physiological and biochemical characteristics in common. That is one of the main reasons why we are able to assume that any substance which induces the growth of abnormal cells in certain animals will have the same effect in Man.

Long-term experiments are normally carried out on two particular species of animal: rats and mice. They are exposed to high (but not lethal) doses of a test substance, and regularly compared with a control group not exposed to the presumed carcinogen. Depending on the parameters of the test, sub-groups may also be formed, broken down by sex or degree of exposure. This latter method is crucial when testing for a dose/effect relationship. The number of tumours developing in the control group is taken as the reference index. Where a significant number of tumours develop, or develop more quickly, in the test group than among controls, the test is said to be 'positive'. The present article is not really the place for a discussion of the ethics of animal experimentation. There is, however, an argument of a very different order against using animals for this type of testing; and that is the difficulty of transferring the results of animal experiments to other species. Beta-Naphthylamine, for example, is powerfully carcinogenic in dogs, but not at all in mice.

Generally speaking, however, a correlation does exist between the effects of carcinogenic substances in animals and Man: and that is, that all substances (except arsenic) which are carcinogenic in Man also produce cancers in animals.

Another problem arises with attempts to determine the 'safe' dose of substances: i. e. what level the animal can be exposed to without developing tumours. This problem is of direct relevance to the worker's everyday life, as, for instance, in the case where no known substitute exists for a proven carcinogenic substance

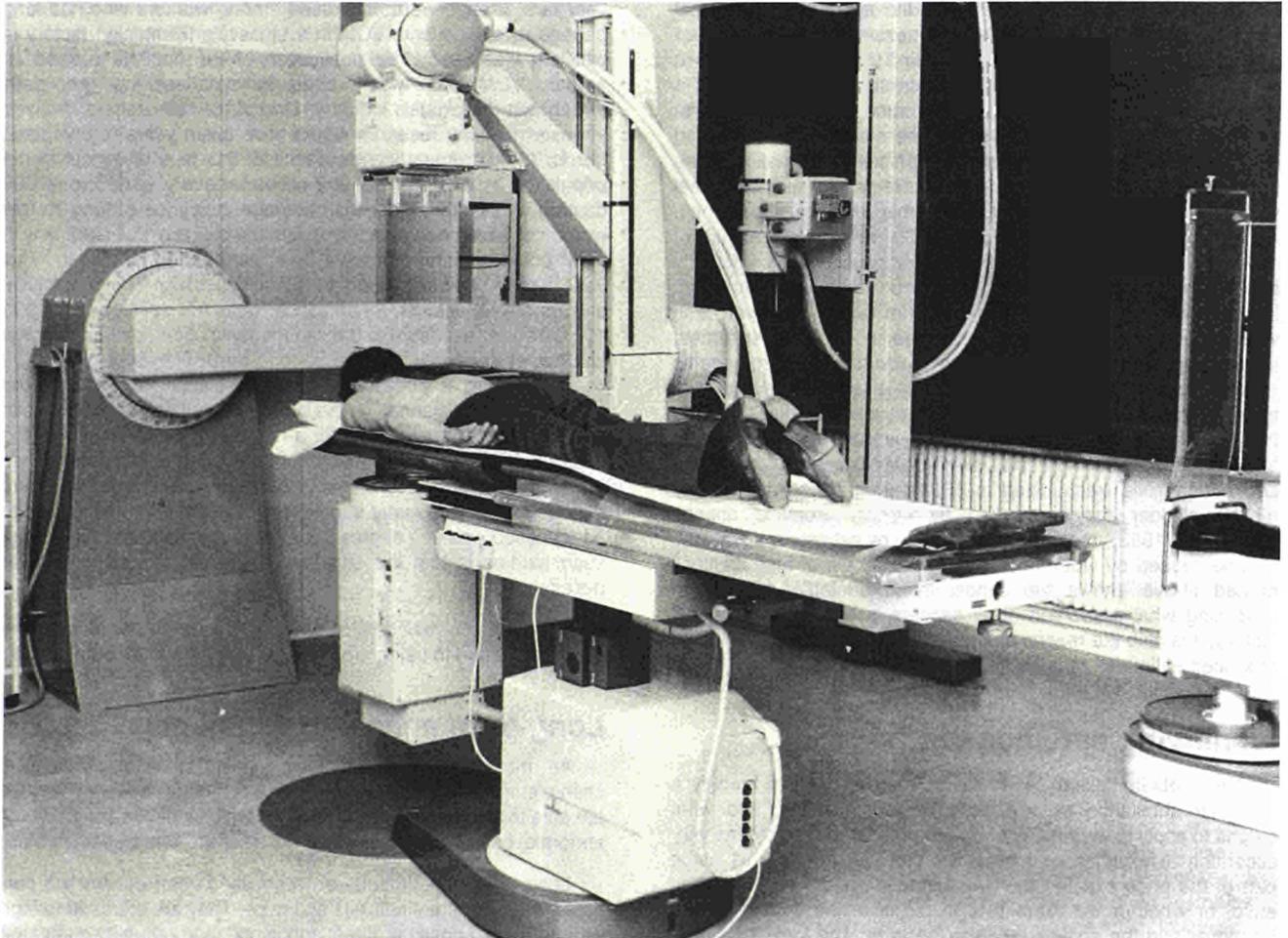


Photo: P. Hannaert

essential to a production process. It has for example, been shown that a single exposure to high doses will precipitate cancer within a very short time, whereas repeated exposure over a longer period also induced tumours, but not until much later in life.

In order to make the findings from animal experiments a valid and genuine basis for comparison, the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) has classified the substances tested by it into groups. Substances are classified according to their observable carcinogenic effect rather than their degree of carcinogenicity. So a substance classed as 'limited proof' will not necessarily be any less dangerous than one classed under 'sufficient proof'. The only difference lies in the weight of the evidence.

Short-term tests

Short-term testing has become increasingly popular among researchers in recent years. It is based on the theory that carcinogens affect and change the structure and functioning of DNA,¹ either by preventing it from regenerating and replicating, or

simply by destroying it. The most usual method is by bacteria or cell cultures taken from various mammals. Short-term tests are of interest on two fronts: they are quick and easy to perform, and they are inexpensive. The drawback, however, is that a single such test (called a 'mutagenicity test') cannot count as definite evidence, since the model it is based on is too simple compared to the complexity of the human organism. Normally, a series of such tests will have to be performed. Unfortunately, no minimum series of tests can be prescribed which will detect all genetically active substances. A wealth of data does exist, however, linking the results of in vitro mutagenicity tests to the incidence of cancers in animals. So any positive finding from a mutagenicity test must be viewed as at least a sign that the substance may cause cancer in humans.

Ultimately, however, the only really reliable test of whether a particular substance causes cancer in humans is one in which humans have taken part. The obstacles to this are not just the time

¹ Deoxyribonucleic acid.

and cost, but also the difficulty of establishing a causal relationship between a disease and its presumptive cause. Mutagenicity testing may not be all one would wish it, but it must still be taken into account.

Developing European research

There still exists a huge body of substances used in manufacturing processes upon which no research whatever has yet been done, either as to their effects alone or when reacting with other chemicals. None of the published lists of dangerous industrial materials are by any means complete. Each year, hundreds of new chemicals are brought into production processes, with no prior knowledge either of their effects on health or how they may react with other substances already in use. Clearly, research is needed to provide answers to these pressing questions. The European Communities have a valuable role to play here, both in supporting and initiating wide-ranging research programmes. Research undertaken by the Community would also remove the problem of duplication of research at national level.

It is no less clear that the incidence of occupational cancers among industrial workers can be brought down quite considerably by either reducing the use made of acknowledged carcinogenic substances in industry, or removing them from the production process altogether.

Both these objectives are contained in programme 2 of the European Communities' action programme.

Action by international organizations

Two international agencies are particularly concerned with occupational cancers and the substances likely to precipitate them. They are the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC).

The IARC publishes a Monograph Series of technical guides evaluating the dangers of various chemicals. These are a major source of reference for all those concerned with the risks of occupational cancer.

In 1974, the ILO adopted Convention No 139 and Recommendation No 147 on the prevention and control of occupational risks caused by cancer-inducing substances and agents. The recommendation incorporates the principles set out in the Convention, but also goes further to lay down general provisions, preventive steps, and rules on the health supervision, education and information of workers at risk.

In 1977, the ILO also published a document entitled 'Occupational cancer: Prevention and control', listing:

- groups of carcinogenic substances and agents, together with measures relating to them;
- complex industrial materials whose use exposes workers to a high degree of risk from cancer;
- production processes exposing workers to a high risk of cancer.

This list was updated in 1983.

Extract from the Encyclopaedia of Occupational Health and Safety. Third edition. International Labour Organization. Geneva.

Table 1 – Occupations and cancer

Industry	Occupation	Site	Reported or suspected causative agent
(a) Occupations recognized to present a carcinogenic risk			
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	vineyard workers using arsenical insecticides	lung, skin	arsenic
Extractive	arsenic mining iron-ore mining asbestos mining	lung, skin lung lung, pleural and peritoneal mesothelioma	arsenic causative agent not identified asbestos
	uranium mining	lung	radon
Asbestos production industry	insulated material production (pipes, sheeting, textile, clothes, masks, asbestos cement manufacts)	lung, pleural and peritoneal mesothelioma	asbestos
Petroleum industry	wax pressmen	scrotum	polycyclic hydrocarbons
Metal industry	copper smelting	lung	arsenic
	chromate producing	lung	chromium
	chromium plating	lung	chromium
	ferrochromium producing	lung	chromium
	steel production nickel refining	lung nasal sinuses, lung	benzo(a)pyrene nickel
Shipbuilding, motor vehicles and transport	shipyard and dockyard workers	lung, pleural and peritoneal mesothelioma	asbestos
Chemical industry	BCME and CMME products and users	lung (oat cell carcinoma)	BCME, CMME
	vinyl chloride producers isopropyl alcohol manufacturing (strong acid process) workers	liver angiosarcoma paranasal sinuses	vinyl chloride monomer causative agent not identified
	Pigment chromate producing dye manufacturers and users auramine manufacture	lung bladder bladder	chromium benzidine, 2-naphthylamine, 4-aminodiphenyl auramine (together with the other aromatic amines used in the process)
Pesticides and herbicides production industry	arsenical insecticides production and packaging	lung	arsenic
Gas industry	coke plant workers gas workers	lung lung, bladder, scrotum	benzo(a)pyrene coal carbonisation products, β-naphthylamine
	gas-retort house workers	bladder	α/β-naphthylamine

OCCUPATIONAL CANCER: HOW TO IDENTIFY IT. HOW TO PREVENT IT.

Industry	Occupation	Site	Reported or suspected causative agent
Rubber industry	rubber manufacture	lymphatic and haematopoietic system (leukaemia)	benzene
	calendering, tyre curing, tyre building	bladder lymphatic and haematopoietic system (leukaemia)	aromatic amines benzene
	millers, mixers synthetic latex producers, tyre curing, calender operatives, reclaim, cable makers	bladder bladder	aromatic amines aromatic amines
Construction industry	insulators and pipe coverers	lung, pleural and peritoneal mesothelioma	asbestos
Leather industry	boot and shoe manufacturers, repairers	nose, marrow (leukaemia)	leather dust, benzene
Wood pulp and paper industry	furniture and cabinet makers	nose (adenocarcinoma)	wood dust
Other	roofers, asphalt workers	lung	BAP
(b) Occupations reported to present a cancer excess, but for which the assessment of the carcinogenic risk is not definitive			
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	fishermen	skin, lip	pitch, ultraviolet radiation
	farmers	lymphatic and haematopoietic system (leukaemia, lymphoma)	undefined
	basal bark spraying	lymphatic and haematopoietic system (lymphoma), soft tissue sarcomas	phenoxyacetic acids, chlorophenols (presumably contaminated with PCDF, PCDD, and polychlorinated benzodioxins)
	railway embankment spraying	lymphatic and haematopoietic system (lymphoma), lung cancer	phenoxyacetic acids, amitrol, monuron, durion
	pesticides appliers	lung	hexachlorocyclohexane combined and other pesticides
Extractive	zinc-lead mining coal talc	lung stomach lung, pleura	radiations coal dust talc (contaminated with asbestos?)
	asbestos mining	gastrointestinal tract	asbestos
Asbestos production industry	insulation material production (pipes, sheeting, textiles, clothes, masks, asbestos cement manufacts)	larynx, gastrointestinal tract	asbestos

Industry	Occupation	Site	Reported or suspected causative agent
Petroleum industry	oil refining boilermakers, painters, welders, oilfield workers	oesophagus, stomach, lung lung	polycyclic hydrocarbons polycyclic hydrocarbons
	petrochemical plant workers petroleum refining	brain, stomach marrow (leukaemia)	polycyclic hydrocarbons benzene
Metal industry	aluminium production beryllium refining smelters	lung lung respiratory and digestive system	benzo(a)pyrene beryllium lead
	nickel refining battery plant workers, cadmium alloy producers, electroplating workers	larynx prostate, kidney	nickel cadmium
	cadmium smelters	prostate, lung	cadmium
Shipbuilding, motor vehicles and transport	filling station, bus and truck drivers, operators of excavating machines	marrow (leukaemia)	petroleum products and combustion residues containing benzene
	hauliers	lung	polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons
	shipyard and dockyard workers	larynx, digestive system	asbestos
Chemical industry	acrylonitrile production vinylidene chloride producers	lung, colon lung	acrylonitrile vinylidene chloride (mixed exposure to VC and acrylonitrile) undefined
	isopropyl alcohol manufacturing (strong acid process) workers	larynx	
	polychloroprene producers dimethylsulphate producers epichlorohydrin producers	lung lung lung, lymphatic and haematopoietic system (leukaemia)	chloroprene dimethylsulphate epichlorohydrin
	ethylene oxide producers	lymphatic and haematopoietic system (leukaemia), stomach	ethylene oxide
	ethylene dibromide producers	digestive system	ethylene dibromide
	flame retardant and plasticizer users	skin (melanoma)	polychlorinated biphenyls
	styrene and polystyrene producers	lymphatic and haematopoietic system (leukaemia)	styrene
	<i>ortho</i> - and <i>para</i> -toluidine producers benzoylchloride producers magenta producers	bladder lung bladder	<i>ortho/para</i> -toluidine benzoylchloride aniline, <i>o</i> -toluidine
Pesticides and herbicides production industry	tetrachlorodibenzodioxin producers and those exposed after accidents	lung, stomach	DCDD and TCDD dichloridibenzodioxin, trichlorodibenzodioxin

OCCUPATIONAL CANCER: HOW TO IDENTIFY IT. HOW TO PREVENT IT.

Industry	Occupation	Site	Reported or suspected causative agent
Rubber industry	rubber manufacturing	lymphopoietic system, stomach, brain, pancreas	undefined
	processors, composers, cementing synthetic plant general service	stomach	undefined
		lymphatic and haematopoietic system (leukaemia), lymphatic and haemopoietic tissue	undefined
	synthetic latex producers and tyre curing	lung	undefined
	calender operatives and reclaim	prostate, lung	undefined
	compounding, mixing and calendering	prostate	undefined
	styrene butadiene rubber producers	lymphatic and haematopoietic system (lymphomas)	styrene
	pliofilm producers	lymphatic and haematopoietic system (leukaemia)	benzene
	rubber compounding, extruding, milling	stomach	undefined
	tyre assembly	skin brain	mineral extender oil undefined
Construction industry	insulators and pipe coverers	larynx, gastrointestinal tract	asbestos
Printing industry	rotogravure workers, binders printing pressmen	marrow (leukaemia) buccal cavity, rectum, pancreas, lung, prostate, kidney	benzene oil mist, solvents, dyes, cadmium, lead
	newspaper pressmen	buccal cavity	oil mist, solvents, dyes, cadmium, lead
	commercial pressmen	pancreas, rectum	oil mist, solvents, dyes, cadmium, lead
	compositors machine room workers	multiple myeloma lung	solvents oil mist
Leather industry	tanners and processors	bladder, nasal, lung	leather dust, other chemicals, chromium
	leather workers, unspecified	nose, larynx, lung, bladder, lymphatic and haematopoietic system (lymphomas)	undefined
	boot and shoe manufacturers and repairers	buccal cavity	undefined
	other leather goods manufacturers	marrow (leukaemia)	benzene
Textile industry	cotton and wool textile workers	mouth, pharynx	cotton and wool dust

Industry	Occupation	Site	Reported or suspected causative agent
Wood pulp and paper industry	lumbermen and sawmill workers pulp and papermill workers carpenters, joiners wood workers, unspecified	nose, Hodgkins lymphoma lymphopoietic tissue nose, Hodgkins lymphomas	wood dust, chlorophenols undefined wood dust, solvents undefined
Other	radium dial workers laundry and dry cleaners roofers, asphalt workers	breast lung, skin, cervix uteri mouth, pharynx, larynx, oesophagus, stomach	radon tritetrachloroethylene and carbon tetrachloride benzo (a) pyrene, other pitch volatile agents
See also table 3 of the article CARCINOGENIC SUBSTANCES.			

Part Three

Employment policy in the Member States

- **Developments at a glance**
- **Overall measures**

- **Employment maintenance**
- **Aid to the unemployed**
- **Training and education**
- **Job creation**
- **Special categories of workers**
- **Working time**

- **Placement**

Industry	Occupation	Site	Reported or suspected causative agent
Wood pulp and paper mill	Lumbermen and sawmill workers	nose, Hodgkin's lymphoma	wood dust, chlorophenols
Other	carpenters, joiners	lung, pleural effusion, lymphoma	wood dust, solvents
Other	textile mill workers	lung, pleural effusion	wool dust, solvents
Other	dry cleaning workers	lung, pleural effusion	carbon tetrachloride and other solvents
Other	Other	lung, pleural effusion	benzo(a)pyrene, other pitch

- See also table 1 of the article GARCINOCENIC SUBSTANCES
- Employment maintenance
 - Aid to the unemployed
 - Training and education
 - Job creation
 - Special categories of workers
 - Working time
 - Placement

Responding to the wishes expressed by the Member States' delegations in the Council to be mutually informed of the developments of national policies on employment, the Commission proposed the creation of a mutual information system called MISEP. This system operates thanks to the contributions of national correspondents from public administrations or organizations, and a representative of the Commission, whose names are given below. It enables a quarterly presentation of the changes occurring and actions accomplished in employment policies followed in each Member States to be made to the authorities directly concerned in the other Member States.

'Social Europe' presents a selection of the information exchanged through MISEP in each issue. The Commission accepts no responsibility for the use of this information, which comes from official national sources. It is presented as a summary, on a regular basis to enlighten the reader on the evolution of various aspects linked to national employment policies.

MISEP correspondents:	
Belgium	Alfons Verlinden, Ministère de l'Emploi et du Travail
Denmark	Soren Hess, Arbejdsministeriet
Germany	Magda Kugler Dabrowski Bundesministerium für Arbeit und Sozialordnung Lutz Vogt, Bundesanstalt für Arbeit
Greece	Evangelia Hadziantoniou Ypourgion Ergasias Angelos Zisimopoulos O.A.E.D.
France	Denise Annandale, Agence nationale pour l'Emploi Claire Aubin, Ministère de l'Emploi
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 Sirett Department of Employment
European Commission	Andrew Chapman, DG V/A/1

Developments at a glance

Belgium

Attention focuses on the impact of indexation and the reduction of working time on the volume of employment. The first result of the approach of requiring employer-union agreements for a 5 % reduction in working time to be compensated by 3 % additional jobs is estimated to have generated between 26 000 and 40 000 new hirings so far. 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 schoolleavers continue part-time education. A law was passed in July to give loans to the totally unemployed to set up on their own.

Denmark

The government's 1983-84 programme emphasizes the need to free private enterprise from constraints so that it can raise profitability and hence the number of jobs. Government funds will be channelled to helping industry, especially smaller firms, to innovate and export. New bills are foreseen on adult vocational training, holiday payments, jobs for conscripts and equality of opportunity.

France

The National Employment Agency has been restructured following the appointment of a new director general. Particular attention is being paid to computerizing its services, notably for job-seekers (GIDE). The pilot approach to helping the long-term unemployed will be available to all concerned from 1985. 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.

Germany

The government is making a determined thrust to encourage specific categories of unemployed foreigners to return home. Particular efforts are being made to increase the supply of training places by a special programme and improving legal conditions for employers – especially in smaller firms – making greater efforts to take on trainees. An exemplary recent Hamburg initiative of a semi-public job creation company is outlined. A brief survey is made of youth unemployment and the range of measures taken to combat it.

Greece

The government has recently toughened up the rules on collective dismissals, giving worker representatives considerable influence. The Minister for Labour has taken a number of decisions during the summer to set aside funds to create jobs. New employment offices have come into operation with a view in particular to improving the match of labour supply and demand.

Ireland

The government has established a cabinet task force on employment and a national planning board to bring about planned economic recovery. The industrial training authority – AnCo – is helping small firm start-ups and development especially through training including that of the unemployed. Another state body, YEA, has launched a scheme with a private bank to help young people set up their own business, whereas the YEA Community and Youth Enterprise Programme seeks to encourage and assist local enterprise initiatives. The Young Scientists and Technologists Employment Scheme, introduced on a pilot basis in October 1982, has been extended to January 1984.

Italy

The new government under Prime Minister Craxi has set out the overall approach to its employment policy as well as its basic tenets regarding specific employment measures. The same statement provides for a special Mezzogiorno project and modifications of labour law which are needed. 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 'nomitative' and 'numerical' employment.

Luxembourg

Grand Ducal ruling of 25 August 1983 set out the conditions for and the ways and means of granting three special measures aimed at maintaining employment and the general competitiveness of the economy as outlined in the law of 8 April 1982. The measures provide aid for geographical mobility for job-seekers, a lump sum for re-employment and aid for hiring the long-term unemployed and job-seekers who are particularly difficult to place. These aids came into force on 1 September 1983. The same ruling also defined the criteria for establishing what 'suitable work' is.

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 local authorities on the nature and conditions of jobs they can provide the unemployed with. And a campaign has been launched aimed at schoolleavers to get them to do something about work with the motto 'Ga nu al aan 't werk voor werk'.

The government is pressing ahead with 32-hour working week part-time jobs, insisting on a 30% quota for most departmental posts falling vacant. And then there is the progress of START, the temporary work agency.

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.

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.

European Community

An agreement on the future orientations of the European Social Fund was reached in June; it foresees in particular that at least 75% of the appropriations will be devoted to promoting employment of young people. The June resolution on vocational training policies has been termed the 'Youth Guarantee'. Various experts' groups are operating within the 1982-85 equal opportunities for women programme.

The Commission is preparing proposals for guidelines and a Community action programme on local, small-scale employment creation as well as a draft recommendation of the Council on the reduction and reorganization of working time.

Overall measures

Belgium: Employment Fund – first results (Royal Decree No 181)

The wish of the government has been that the additional wage restraint in 1983 be fully devoted to reductions in working time which create employment. This wage restraint follows the prolongation of the lump sum indexation system for the two new wage adjustments to the price index and the

introduction of an index smoothed out over four months for all adjustments in the future.

This policy of work sharing has been brought in through agreements with the social partners. At the beginning the government had recommended that wage moderation of about 3% (at the end of the year) should be earmarked to reducing working time by 5% and compensatory hirings of 3% in large enterprises. A separate policy

was foreseen for small and medium-sized enterprises.

After the breakdown of national negotiations, negotiations took place in 'parity commissions' and, where these also broke down, directly in enterprises.

Negotiations started up on the basis of a governmental recommendation which foresaw a 5% reduction in working time and a 3% compensatory hiring. By mid-July only a few collective

agreements had in fact achieved this aim. Most of the collective agreements reached in the paritary commissions foresee reductions of working time and compensatory hirings below these amounts. Some industries foresee hirings without any reductions in working time. Prominent here are industries which either already have short working time or are subject to special conditions. In a number of other industries a reduction of working time might be agreed to, but rather than envisaging compensatory hirings, reductions in short-time working and redundancies are foreseen.

The compensatory hirings foreseen in agreements by industry vary considerably from one industry to another, the percentages decided on and the practical ways and means for their application being very different in their natures. They concern more than one million persons. By taking account of a whole series of elements such as the inexact knowledge of the total number of workers covered by each paritary commission, whether or not each agreement is applied by small and medium-sized enterprises and the possibility foreseen in some agreements for a range of hirings, estimates of total numbers hired vary between 18 000 workers minimum and 30 000 maximum for 78 collective agreements by industry.

Collective agreements have been filed for some 950 enterprises. For many enterprises, two or more collective agreements have been reached applying to the wage-earners, the salary earners or to one or other of the plants. The firms concerned employ more than half a million workers. The hoped for compensatory hirings can be estimated at between 8 000 and 10 000 workers. Some 180 could be considered as enterprises in trouble with a high level of short-time working or experiencing exceptionally unfavourable economic conditions.

Thus all in all, by mid-July the total number of hirings foreseen within the framework of industry and enterprise agreements was estimated to range between 26 000 and 40 000 persons.

Denmark: Government declaration and bills proposed for 1983/84

The government intends to implement a programme for growth and modernization embracing five main elements:

- promotion of investments, production and employment;
 - strengthening of savings and capital procurement;
 - a tax reform;
 - introduction of new expenditure policy principles;
- and
- a modernization of the public sector.

Since this government took office there has been a marked change for the better in the economic climate in Denmark. This improvement should be maintained with a view to increasing production and employment in the private sector of the economy. It is the government's position that the only realistic and solid basis for growth in industrial investment lies in creating conditions which increase investment incentives.

The Danish Minister for Labour, proposes to introduce the following bills, among others, in the 1983/84 parliamentary year:

- Bill on adult vocational training Vocational training courses for semi-skilled workers, further and advanced training courses for skilled workers, retraining courses and courses for special categories of workers have so far been run under powers conferred partly by the Act on Training of Semi-skilled Workers and Re-training, etc., and partly by the annual Finance Acts and various administrative rules and regulations. These training activities are administered by councils, boards or committees with varying composition and powers. The considerable growth in these activities in recent years, including the introduction of various new programmes, has made it desirable to

consolidate the legal basis in one statute which covers all types of adult vocational training activities.

- Bill on jobs to conscripts On the basis of the report submitted by the committee on job guarantees for conscripts, the government proposes to reduce the employment problems of conscripts on terminating military service by introducing legislation in this field.
- It is possible that a bill will be introduced concerning the amendment of the Act on equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, etc.

The European Commission has started proceedings against Denmark before the European Court of Justice alleging that the Danish Act on equal treatment narrows down the principle of equal treatment compared with the EEC directive in this field.

By Law No 117 of 28 March 1984, the Danish legislation that had been found to be in contradiction with the Community directive had to be amended.

The Minister for Labour will report to the Folketing on the working time policy issue.

France: The National Employment Agency's reorganization

Mr Vanderpotte was appointed Director General of ANPE (the National Employment Agency) by decree of the Council of Ministers taken on 30 April, 1983. He replaces Mr Delpy who has taken up another appointment.

From 1 September, 1983, the Director General brought in a new structure of the general management enabling ANPE's development to be focused on the following three concepts: its computerization, professionalization and decentralization.

To carry through this modernization of the establishment, the number of deputies to the director general was increased to five. To the two existing posts of deputy in charge of programmes and in charge of the Establishment's administration were added:

- a deputy in charge of training and social affairs, this function having been detached from that of the administration of the Establishment;
- a deputy in charge of relations with industrial groupings entrusted with deciphering the recruitment and personnel management strategies of certain groups to enable ANPE to design and implement action pro-

grammes geared to the specific needs of these groups;

- a deputy in charge of the general inspectorate.

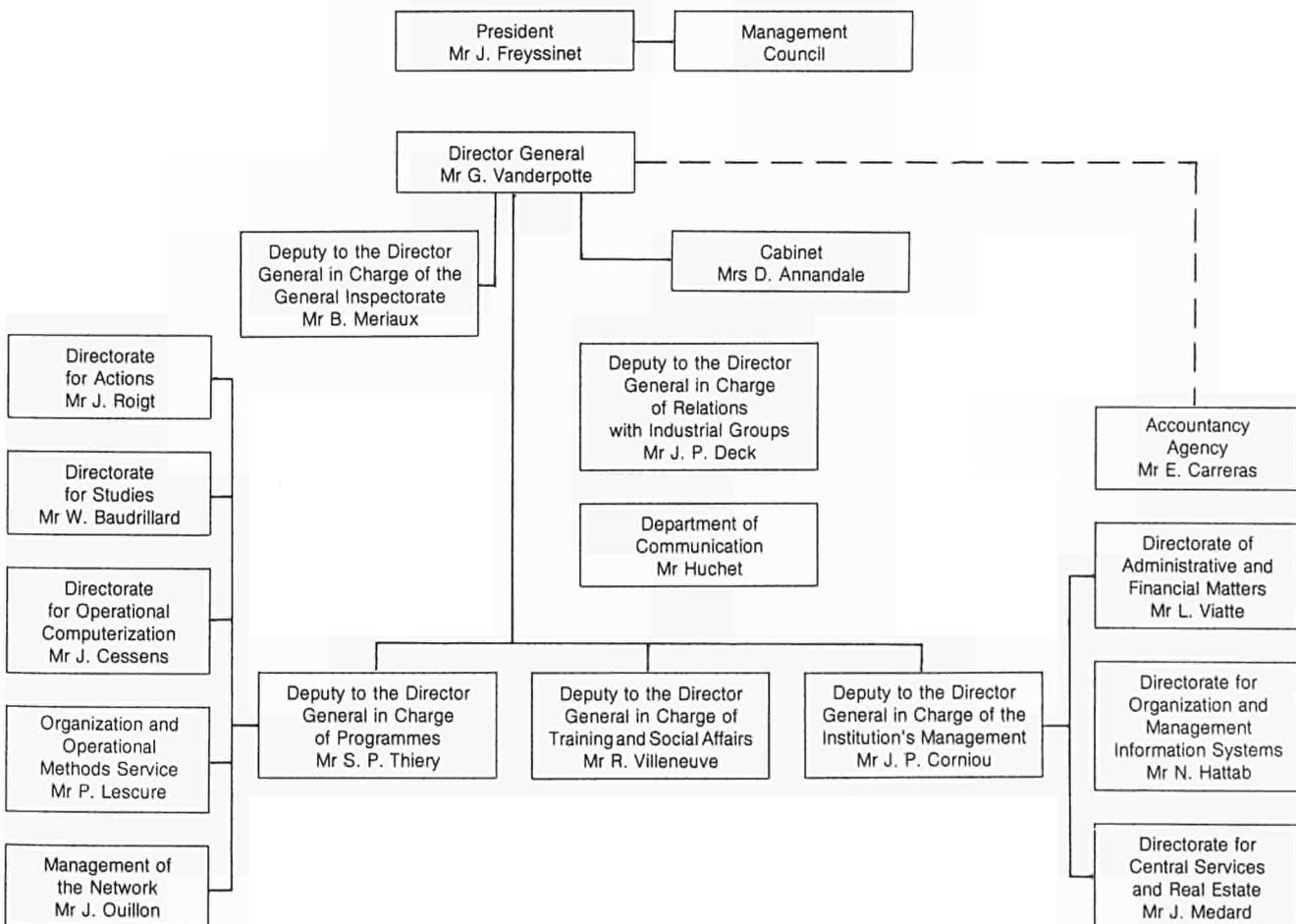
Furthermore, as regards the restructuring of services, two matters should be emphasized:

- splitting up responsibilities as regards computerization. Since computerization in operations and management is complex and urgent, teams needed to be finalized to ensure the best results.
- bringing together in a directorate of the network those services which dealt with negotiating objectives on

the regional and 'départemental' levels ('Mission Synthèse'), the follow-up team in the field (the former division for 'animating' the network) and the former technical division of the units, which manages the physical and financial resources allocated to the network.

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.

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

Financial resources for manpower regulations (millions of 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	1035.4	991.9
of which structural schemes	207.6	210.4	391.9

¹ Situation at the beginning of 1983.

break-down of resources for the major schemes for the last three years.

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 break-down 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.

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



A tannery at Eupen/Malmedy.

Photo P. H. Versele · Copyright Photo News, Bruxelles

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.

Italy: The new government programme, August 1983

The new Italian government under Prime Minister Craxi stated that, as regards employment policy, interventions are foreseen in the industry, handicrafts, commerce and agriculture sectors of the economy. Furthermore, specific measures are being introduced to support small firms' and handicraft firms' cooperative and associative initiatives concerning industrial areas, technological development, standardization of products and exports.

An intervention policy to identify geographic basins experiencing difficulties is also foreseen, which would enable and facilitate the mobility of production factors by encouraging reconversions into activities having a more advanced technological content.

Specific employment measures will be taken in the belief that

- jobs can be found within the public sector where there are gaps as regards technical staff and workers and within local administrations;
- jobs for young people can be found both in the public and in the private sector through public sponsorship of training-work contracts, regulations on part-time work contracts, and revision of the legislation on apprenticeships;
- jobs could also be created for the self-employed by giving incentives to and helping people who had previously been employed to start up a new activity either on their own or in a cooperative.

A special project for the Mezzogiorno will be launched to create skilled

employment concerning soil protection, the development and utilization of water resources, the technological development in agriculture and agro-business, technical assistance to small companies and their associations, the conservation and development for tourism of the historical cultural heritage, restoring houses, civil protection and specialized services in tourism.

The coordinated and organized adoption of the aforementioned initiatives presupposes setting up labour agencies in at least some areas.

Modifications of the labour law are foreseen to allow for flexibility and adaptability in labour relations. These are in particular:

- measures intended to revise the legislation on obligatory employment and on 'nominative demand' as well as other measures intended to allow for greater working time flexibility;
- overcoming the improper use which is being made of the wage compensation fund (CIG) and modifying the institute in the framework of a more general placement reform, by fixing the time limits and the procedure of a progressive reduction in payment.

Furthermore, interventions are foreseen in social security matters with a revision of the sickness benefit.

Employment maintenance

Greece: Collective dismissals

Law No 1387/83 was recently passed by Parliament. Inspired by Directive 75/129 of the European Commission, it revised the legal framework for collective dismissals in favour of employees.

Henceforth, the right of the employer to resort to collective dismissals is considerably restrained: before taking any step he is obliged to consult with employee representatives with a view

to finding a solution which would avoid a collective dismissal. The employer has also to follow a special procedure through the competent authorities before receiving their agreement to such dismissals which he decides on in consultation with the representatives.

Contrary to the existing situation, this law applies to all enterprises with more than 20 employees. The law allows employers with between 20 and 50 employees to dismiss up to five persons. Employers with more than 50 employees may dismiss up to 3%. The exact proportion is defined every six months according to the conditions prevailing on the labour market. The total number of persons dismissed may not, however, exceed 30.

Luxembourg: Flat rate aid for re-employment (RGD of 25 August, 1983)

This aid is reserved for workers dismissed for economic reasons, for wage-earners threatened with losing their jobs and for workers who moved for economic reasons to another enterprise in accordance with a collective agreement.

Granting the aid is subjected to two cumulative conditions:

- the original industry from which the worker comes must have been declared as being in crisis by the government in council on the advice of the conjunctural committee;
- the industry into which the worker is placed must be characterized by a structural manpower deficit. These industries are determined by the council of the government on the proposal of the national employment commission.

The aid is given for a maximum period of 12 months from the placement and guarantees the worker placed 87.5% of his previous remuneration, with an upward limit on this being fixed at 300% of the minimum social wage (LFR 71.741 on 1 May, 1983). The right to the payment of a first instalment is

acquired after six months of work and to a second after the job has been held for 12 months.

Aid to the unemployed

France: Unemployment compensation – Ending of 'income guarantee' for workers of 60 years of age or more who are made redundant

Income guarantees were set up in 1972 for wage-earners made redundant who were over 60 years of age 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 29 000 million francs 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 2200 francs per month. For workers with wages under the social security ceiling, (7 410 francs per month), the pension paid for the old age insurance is equivalent to 70% of the wages of the past 10 years.

Luxembourg: 'Suitable work' defined (RGD of 25 August 1983)

The modified law of 30 June 1976 dealing with the creation of an employment fund and regulating the granting of full unemployment allowances states that an unemployed person aspiring to an unemployment allowance should be 'fit for work, available for work and prepared to accept any suitable employment'.

The Grand Ducal Ruling of 25 August 1983 is aimed at setting out the criteria for assessing suitable employment and at conferring on the notion a socially just content which fits the constraints of the employment market. It should be noted that the assessment of the job offered to a job-seeker should

be made bearing in mind the mobility and re-employment aids on which he can draw (see above). The assessment criteria decided on are as follows:

- the level of remuneration
- vocational skill
- physical and mental skills
- daily travel
- the family situation
- the system ('régime') of work
- working conditions

Some of these criteria are relatively restrictive in order to limit the number of cases of refusing work.

As regards the level of remuneration, a job is considered suitable which is paid at a level equal to that of the unemployment allowance which the job-seeker can claim.

Vocational skill is interpreted broadly: related vocations are suitable; even manual work can be assigned to a job-seeker who has been mainly carrying out white collar work if he has the vocational skills and his chances of subsequently getting another job are not considerably impaired by this.

As regards daily commuting, to be considered suitable the job must not involve daily travelling in excess of 2½ hours per working day. The job-seeker cannot refuse to use any private means of transport available to him, provided that his level of remuneration, conceivably taking aids to geographical mobility into account, allows him to do so.

The family situation of the job-seeker must be particularly serious if it is to be taken into consideration as constituting an impediment.

Similarly, the job-seeker must put forward very serious circumstances to refuse an assigned job because of a particular system of work.

The text also sets out the conditions under which an assigned job can be refused in the case of the promise of another job; the job-seeker is required

to present written proof that he will be hired within two weeks by another employer.

And finally, the unemployed person can be dispensed from having to be checked for a maximum of 25 days per year. During this period he does not receive an allowance.

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 com-

mittee need no longer be reported by the individual entitled to the benefit. The same applies for activities in the area for 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 vocational 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 set-up' 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.

Training and education

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

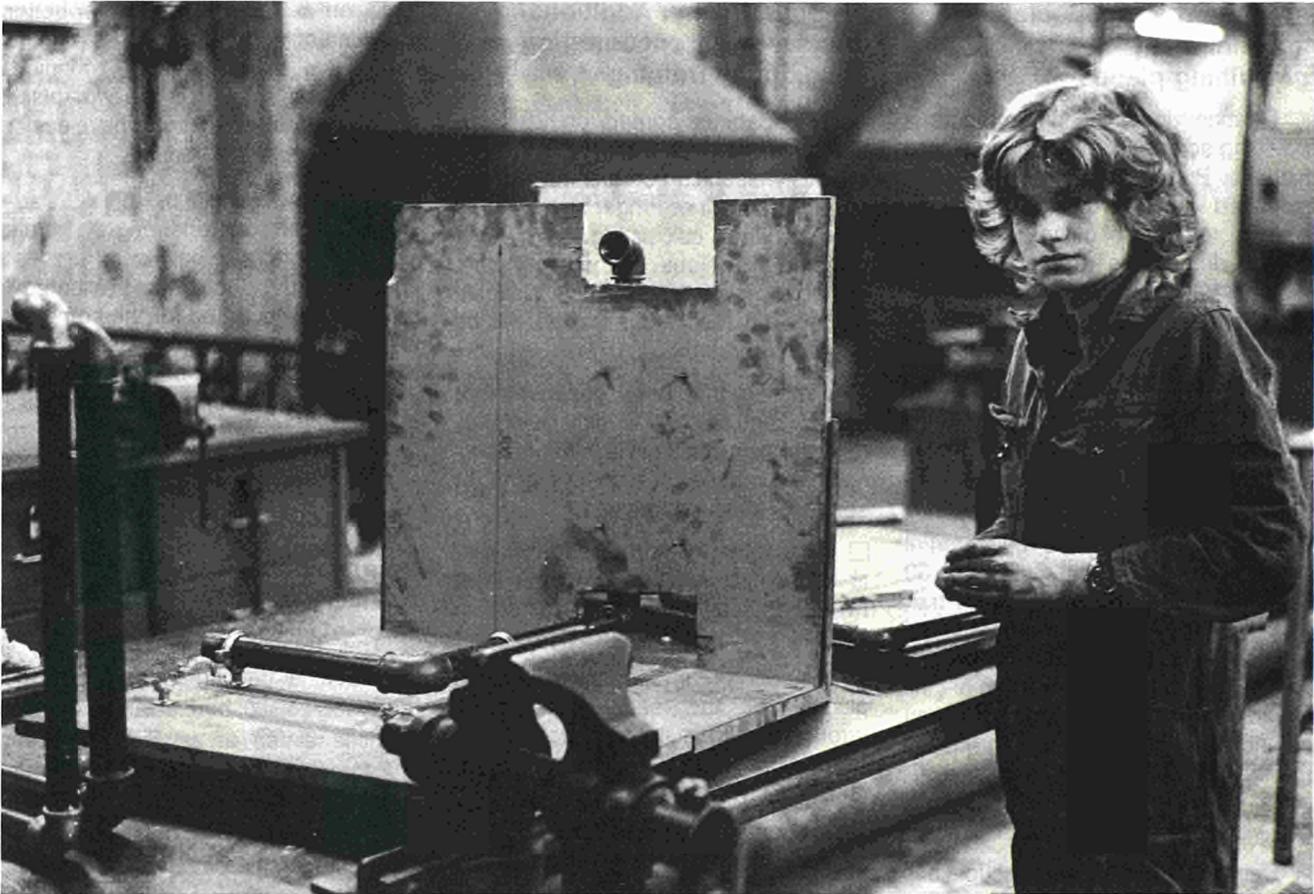


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Technical education is one of the stages of preparing adolescents for professional life. Some of them, however, leave school too early. It is these early-leavers that will often have the greatest difficulties in finding a job.

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 began on 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 voca-

tional 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 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.

FR of Germany: Special programme for training places

German industry and commerce is providing some 685 000 training places this year. But as a consequence of the increased number of young school-leavers who are looking for training places, demand is greater than was estimated at the beginning of the year. Additional – particularly regional – schemes for those who have not found training places are necessary.

The Federal Government has hence decided to launch a one-off special programme with the following criteria:

Young people who are registered at the Federal Employment Institute on 30 September 1983 as looking for a training place and who have not yet found one, shall be given support. Pride of place will be given to the training of girls and training in regions which have an insufficient supply of training places and above average youth unemployment. This should create an additional 7 000 to 8 000 training places.

Training in recognized occupations will be exclusively promoted in training centres outside enterprises. Transfer to training within a company should be attempted as early as possible. Should this prove impossible, the support will, if necessary, be continued until the final examination.

To carry out the programme, DM 160 million has been earmarked in the next five years. Should additional funds be needed, these would have to be provided by corresponding savings in the individual budgets of the Ministries of Education and Science and of Labour.

Training relationships should be supported which will have been started by 31 March 1984. A training compensation will be paid up to the amount of the vocational training allowance authorized by the Employment Promotion Act. The additional training costs (personnel and equipment) shall also be compensated for to an adequate amount.

FR of Germany: Additional measures for encouraging in-company training

The Cabinet agreed on 28 September 1983 that under the law on seriously disabled persons the number of trainees shall no longer be taken into account when calculating the number of compulsory jobs. At the same time, the chances of the seriously disabled trainees on the labour market will be improved through:

clarifying that employers who are legally required to employ seriously disabled persons have also to provide a sufficient number of training places for seriously disabled trainees;

calculating that one seriously disabled trainee is equivalent to at least two compulsory jobs for disabled persons;

promoting in-company training places for the seriously disabled through additional financial aid from the 'Ausgleichsabgabe' (compensation tax).

Craftsmen working alone and paying compulsory insurance are currently required by the law to pay only every second month a reduced contribution to the legal pension insurance if they employ an apprentice or only the spouse, or only a first degree relative. The reduction in contributions does not apply if such a craftsman trains another apprentice or employs an apprentice and the spouse.

In future, the reduction in contributions shall also apply when the craftsman employs the spouse or a first grade relative and additionally one or more apprentices.

The reasoning behind the government's decision is that all possible steps should be taken to provide training places for the years when considerable numbers are leaving school. In addition it is trying to convince all types of organizations to make a big effort to create more training places, itself having created 6 % more.

An order relating to the Youth Employment Protection Act came into

force on 5 August to ensure better matching of working time rules with the demands of vocational training. Moreover, a change in the workplace regulations means that girls have easier access to technical trades.

The 1984 financial bill foresees additional regulations ensuring that firms creating more training places are not put at a disadvantage. Thus trainees will no longer be counted for the company to qualify for drawing short-time allowance nor will they be counted with regard to tax reductions which are granted to smaller firms according to the new Act on Wealth Creation ('Vermögensbildungsgesetz').

Ireland: Small Business Advisory Service

The Training Advisory Service of the industrial training authority (AnCO) this year established a range of new services aimed at small businesses. The foremost is a small firms information service. This gives small businesses the opportunity of obtaining advice on a confidential basis regarding their business problems and provides guidance on the training and other resources available to them, within and outside AnCO, to tackle these problems.

The Training Advisory Service has also been involved in introducing a new AnCO-produced computer-based training package to six small businesses. This package provides training in 'finance for small business owners'. An evaluation of this new approach to training is currently under way. Should it prove successful, it is planned to develop further computer-based training packages on the topics of 'marketing' and 'new product development'.

Italy: Time contracts for young people

The January 1983 national agreement on labour costs and employment,

which was converted into Law No 79 of 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:

<input type="checkbox"/> agriculture	1 920
<input type="checkbox"/> industry	44 440
<input type="checkbox"/> services	16 647

with the company break-down by numbers of employees being

<input type="checkbox"/> up to 49 persons	45 128
<input type="checkbox"/> 50-249 persons	13 398
<input type="checkbox"/> 250-499 persons	2 295
<input type="checkbox"/> 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 and so on. 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



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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.

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.

FR of Germany: Job creation in Hamburg

The foundation of a non-profit corporation for the employment of those receiving welfare assistance is a new initiative of the Hamburg provincial government to fight unemployment. The Hamburger Arbeit-Beschäftigungsgesellschaft mbH (the 'Hamburger Work Employment Society Incorporated') was established on 1 August 1983 to provide in addition to 60 permanent jobs 500 workplaces and 55 training positions for those receiving welfare assistance.

The purpose of HAB is to conclude short-term work contracts which are

subject to social insurance contributions particularly with those receiving welfare assistance who, because they have been unemployed for a long time, are difficult to place (if they can be placed at all) and for whom such a contract can facilitate their reintegration into working life. The Hamburg government has earmarked some DM 9.3 m for the second half of 1983 to defray the costs. HAB will be commissioned mainly by public authorities. But since private contracts should also be brought in, a representative of the Chamber of Handicrafts should be appointed to the HAB's supervisory board to avoid conflicts with old established firms.

Those receiving welfare assistance can be offered one year limited contracts, which can be extended to a maximum of three years. Jobs can be offered in metal-working, carpentry and paper processing as well as in scrap processing, or the production of working clothes and protective clothing. Persons are paid similarly to industrial workers in the public service. Collective agreements are being sought with the trade unions.

Greece: Job creation

By Article 29 of Law No 1262/82, the Minister for Labour can take decisions to facilitate the creation of new jobs for certain categories of unemployed persons. In consequence of this, the following decisions have been taken on 31 August 1983.

- by Decision 32 669 enterprises employing less than 10 persons can receive finance for hiring unskilled workers aged 16 to 18 years for a period of 18 months. The enterprise receives up to 30% of the wage rate. The programme provides for 1 000 new jobs and is financed by OAED, the national manpower service, which has earmarked 45 000 000 drachmas for it.
- by Decision 32 730, OAED is financing the creation of 2 000 new jobs for young people aged 18 to 25 years in private enterprises, organi-

zations and local authorities. 120 000 000 drachmas have been earmarked for the project. It will be used to cover up to 40% of the wage rate for a period of one year.

- The Greek Government has recently taken measures for the repatriation of Greek workers from countries around the world. By Decision 32 734 of 3 August 1983 of the Ministry of Labour, employment is provided for 800 Greek workers over the age of 46 years who return to Greece from other European Community countries. By this decision, OAED finances private enterprises, organizations and local authorities for every new hiring of such persons by paying 44% on the wage rate for a period of six months. In counterpart, the employer undertakes to continue the employment for one further year. 540 000 000 drachmas are earmarked for this scheme.

Ireland: Community and Youth Enterprise Programme

This programme was briefly referred to on page 11 of inforMISEP No 3 on the activities of the Youth Employment Agency (YEA). The term 'community and youth enterprise' describes the direct involvement of communities in stimulating and creating jobs that, at minimum, are economically sustainable. These jobs are expected at least to pay their way, in terms of day-to-day operating costs.

The Community and Youth Enterprise Programme has been launched by the YEA as a result of the growing awareness that tackling present employment and economic difficulties can be a task shared by all in the community and that enterprising people, with good ideas and the commitment to see them through, are not only to be found in the traditionally understood 'business world'. As the economic situation has worsened, the process of fighting back by many communities has accelerated. There is growing evidence of interest in local job creation among

people and groups, who would not previously have seen a direct role for themselves in this area.

It is to further encourage and assist such local enterprise initiatives that the Community and Youth Enterprise Programme has been developed. The wide variety of voluntary groups and organizations already catering for community needs is the foundation for the programme. So also is the experience of those workers themselves and other members of the community who have already set about identifying and developing opportunities for community-based enterprises, especially through cooperative ventures. The involvement, of the community in this way is a real, additional contribution to job creation and to the process of building the self-confidence of communities about their ability to decisively influence the course of local economic development. It is complementary to the job creation efforts of the public and private sectors.

The terms 'community' and 'youth' are shorthand for the range of organizations which operate at local level such as community councils, youth organizations and employment committees. All have several characteristics in common. In composition they usually reflect a broadly based mix of skills, backgrounds and track records of involvement in community activity. They may see their role purely as that of catalyst; alternatively, they may provide an overall and continuing framework for the development of subsidiary enterprises, with surplus income reinvested in further community enterprise ventures or other community projects.

The programme provides assistance to such groups to develop enterprises supplying goods or services. Projects may, for instance, be in agriculture, fisheries, provision of local services, small scale manufacturing or crafts. The approach of the programme is, essentially, to help communities to help themselves by providing the following types of assistance:

- advice to groups who want to take a community enterprise initiative;

- planning grants for groups wishing to identify and investigate goods and services which might be provided locally;
- funding the employment of full-time enterprise workers for up to 12 months;
- direct financial aid for groups at the point of 'start-up', specifically to contri-

bute towards capital and revenue requirements and project management costs for up to 12 months; and

- linkages into the programmes and grant aid schemes of other State and commercial agencies. The Community and Youth Enterprise Programme is complementary to the enterprise development programmes of other

bodies, such as the Industrial Development Authority, Shannon Free Airport Development Company and county development teams.

The YEA has allocated one million Irish pounds to the programme in 1983.

Special categories of workers

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 3 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.

FR of Germany: Bill for the return of migrant workers

The Federal Government has decided on a bill for giving help for a limited period of time to foreigners willing to return home. The purpose of the bill in circumscribing the target group of foreign workers to be encouraged is on the one hand to avoid the danger of a high take-up affect and, on the other, to provide foreigners willing to return home with a clear picture of

the allowances they can count on. The cabinet decision now provides ample bases for deciding on a possible return. Obviously, every foreigner is completely free to decide whether or not to avail himself of the allocations to return home.

Integrating foreign workers and their families wanting to live in the Federal Republic is, and will remain, the main task of German policy towards foreigners. Such a policy can only be achieved by limiting the number of foreigners. Today there are some 4.6 million foreigners in the Federal Republic including 2 million workers. On the other hand, there is a growing number of foreigners who, because of the increase in unemployment among foreigners, would be ready, under certain conditions, to return home. In this, one of the most decisive aspects is the financial situation. So granting financial incentives is an appropriate starting point to raise their willingness to return home of their own accord. This help must, however, be linked to strict conditions so as to ensure that the take-up effect is as limited as possible.

The individual measures decided on by the Federal Government to encourage return are as follows:

Workers from Korea, Morocco, Portugal, Spain, Tunisia, Turkey and Yugoslavia can receive help to return home. It is conditional, however, on their being unemployed following bankruptcy or a firm closure or having been affected by short-time working for at least six months. The return allowance amounts to DM 10 500. For each child the Federation pays an additional DM 1 500. Only children who entered the Federal Republic before 1 June 1983 are taken into consideration. The basic payment of DM 10 500 is reduced from the second month following the fulfilment of the conditions: by DM 1 500 per month started for the unemployed and by DM 750 for those working short time. The payment of a return allowance is dependent on the permanent return of the family as well.

Returning foreign workers from the countries indicated above should be able to draw on their savings deposits encouraged by the State, such as savings contracts with a building society, savings agreements, or tax deductible life insurance schemes before they mature without losing the special rates offered by the State.

Returning foreigners should have the possibility of receiving immediate refund of the employee contributions from the pension insurance. The condition in this respect is, however, that they, according to the law in force, already qualify for a refund of their contribution to the legal pension insurance after a waiting period of two years. This regulation concerns especially Portuguese and Turks.

For those foreign workers returning home who make use of the refunding of their contributions to the legal pension insurance it should also be possible to receive compensation for unexpired claims from the corporate old-age pension schemes and from the complementary provisions of the public service.

The return allowance and the premature refunds of contributions will only be allowed until the end of June 1984, with applications being made by 30 June 1984 and the Federal Republic having to be left by 30 September 1984. All privileges are dependent on permanently returning home and naturally cannot be claimed before the legal regulations come into force.

The costs of this scheme for the Federal Government will amount to DM 60 million in 1983 and DM 220 million in 1984. There will be a liquidity strain on the pension insurance through the premature withdrawals of credits of DM 680 million overall. Compared with these expenditures there will be significant savings, however, for unemployment benefits and family allowances as well as, in the longer run, the old-age pension insurance.

In addition to the granting of allowances for returning home, foreigners should be advised by the Federal Employment Institute or other appropriate bodies on the general conditions for return as well as on the possibilities for vocational integration including becoming self-employed in their home countries.

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.

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 contracts are hence currently available to help in vocationally integrating unemployed young people less than 25 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.

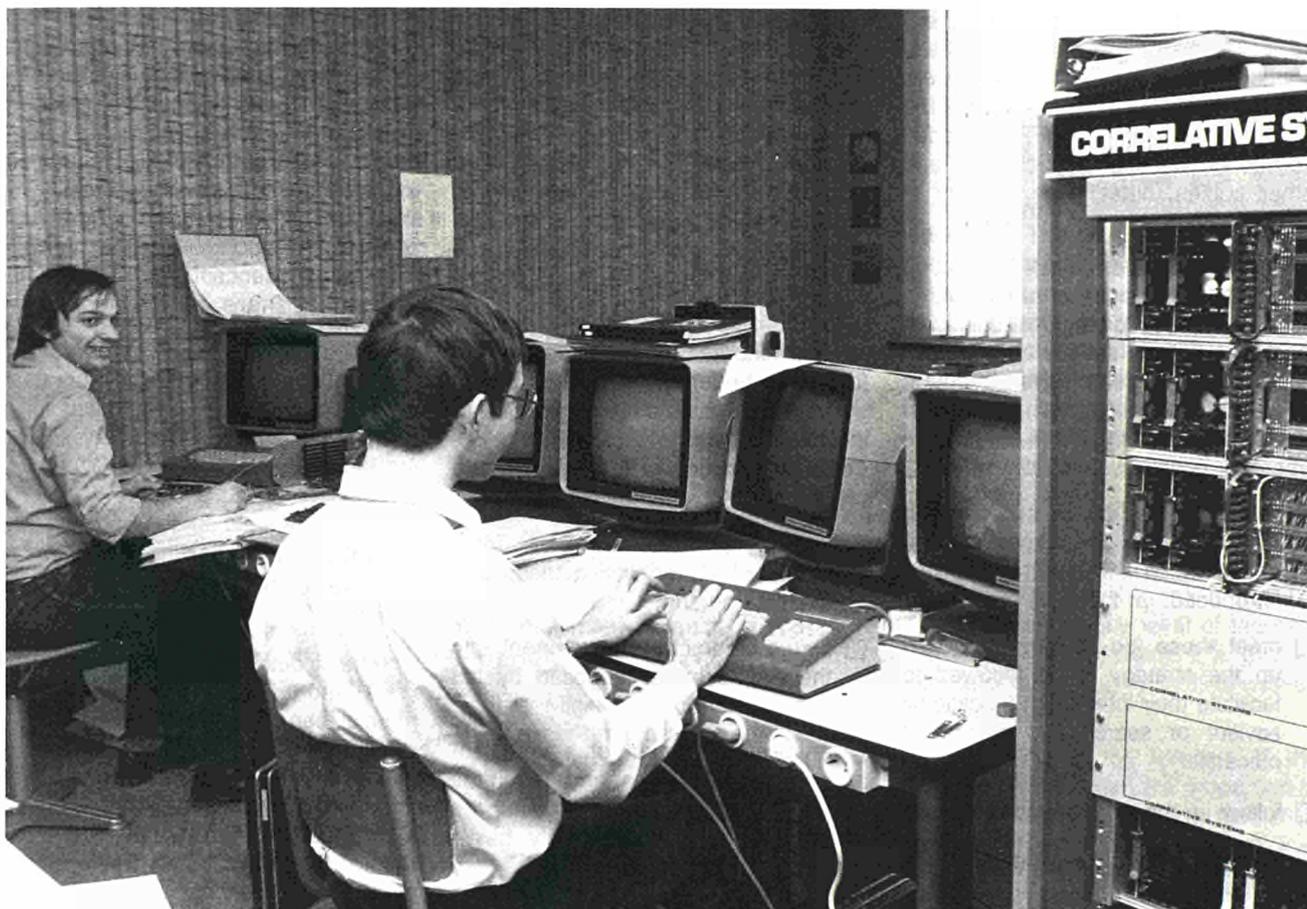


Photo: J. Wouters

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 presuppose 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.

France: Programme for the long-term unemployed (4th or 13th month)

The programme to help the long-term unemployed carried through by the public authorities between September 1982 and March 1983 gave rise to a certain number of actions contributing to the vocational reintegration of job-seekers who have been on the ANPE register for more than one year.

This experimental programme showed up the aggravating effects of long-term unemployment as a factor of

social exclusion. This is why the public authorities and ANPE decided to bring in a policy for preventing long-term unemployment by extending the actions experimented with during the pilot programme to all job-seekers who have reached their fourth or thirteenth month of registration at ANPE.

Set up in May 1983; this programme of talks will gradually come into force so as to be fully developed by 1985 when all job-seekers reaching their fourth or thirteenth month of registration at ANPE will have a face-to-face follow-up talk.

As in the experimental programme, these talks must lead to actions which can contribute to the person's vocational reintegration, taking due account of his/her need: courses in job-search

techniques, evaluating vocational abilities, upgrading courses, etc. These services are provided to job-seekers through a network bringing together the contributions of ANPE, AFPA (the adult vocational training association) and other bodies, notably the Ministry of Education.

The organization of ANPE's action is based on a team of technicians within each ANPE local or regional unit, of at least a vocational adviser and a 'prospecteur placier' (search and placement officer) together with an officer in charge of relationships with enterprises wherever possible. This team will:

- call in the job-seekers concerned who will have been spotted, in a phase which will be progressively introduced, on the level of the unit;
- meet these job-seekers and draw up the strategy to be followed to facilitate their integration (vocational adviser or search and placement officer);
- follow up the actions undertaken.

ANPE will take on implementing the techniques for job-search and a part of the sessions on in-depth guidance. Evaluations on the level of vocational ability, based notably on practical tests, will be carried out by a competent outside partner (notably AFPA or the Ministry of Education).

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 un-

employed 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; and
- 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 IR£ 6000 for degree holders and IR£ 5300 for diploma holders. Under the scheme the Youth Employment Agency is contributing up to IR£ 3600 per annum towards the salaries of graduates and up to IR£ 3000 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 the 1 January, 1984.

Ireland: Assistance to young people to set up their own business

The Youth Employment Agency (YEA) and the Bank of Ireland (a commercial bank) have developed a programme aimed at assisting young people who want to set up a business for themselves by enabling them to obtain a bank loan without security, or a 'track record'. This pilot Youth Self-employment Programme of two years' duration, is one of the agency's job creation schemes. The main features of the programme are that:

- eligible applicants must be between 15 and 25 years of age, unemployed for at least three months and have a sound business idea;
- projects must be commercially viable and not already have received any bank finance. They can be in any sector of the economy;
- maximum loans offered will be three thousand Irish pounds per person, repayable over three years, at the normal bank lending rate and repayment conditions. Persons receiving the loans will remain eligible for other support grants and services;
- a condition of the loan will be that the recipient ceases to draw unemployment benefit/assistance and registers for value-added tax and pay-related social insurance.

The YEA will guarantee 60% of outstanding capital payments on individual loans offered under the programme. No additional, guarantees, security or collateral will be required from the promoter or from the promoter's relatives. The Bank will assess the proposals put to them and will assist the young promoters to develop their ideas. They will then be put in touch with other relevant agencies if necessary.

Ireland: Provision of training for the older long-term unemployed

AnCO – the industrial training authority – is taking steps to attract a greater number of older unemployed workers into training.

One of the courses ('Fresh Start') is specially designed by its External Training Division to meet the particular training needs of the older and longer-term unemployed. It aims to develop their motivation and self-confidence as much as their skills. It is expected that nearly 1000 people will have participated in this programme by the end of 1983.

AnCO's training centres are furthermore to relax entry requirements and simplify recruitment procedures for older unemployed people for whom they will also provide 'introduction' modules. In addition, training opportunities open to the older unemployed will be the subject of special promotions carried out through all available media.

Luxembourg: Incentive to employ the long-term unemployed and job-seekers who are particularly difficult to place (RGD of 25 August 1983)

According to a special decision of the National Employment Commission a long-term unemployed person is a job-seeker who has received unemployment benefit for more than 365 calendar days. They are persons who are particularly difficult to place because of their age, physical or mental disability or other serious circumstances.

A person who is difficult to place is a job-seeker registered at the Employment Administration for 15 years or more, anyone aged at least 55, anyone who is at least 30% incapacitated to work or anyone having particularly serious circumstances inherent to his person.

Hiring the wage-earner must be done through an unlimited work contract and the job must consist of at least 20 working hours per week. The right to the incentive premium is obtained by the employer after the worker has held the job for an uninterrupted period of at least 12 months.

The amount of the premium has been fixed at 200% of the reference minimum social wage.

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 ± 105 000 in 1977 to ± 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 5200 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 days' 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 discipline. They will receive, as will youngsters joining civilian employers in the Youth Training Scheme, an allowance of £ 25 per week. A deduction of £ 10 per week will be made for food and accommodation.

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 production 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 8 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 3 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 3 months from the first date payment could be claimed. Prior to August the time limit was 6 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 £ 42 and £ 47 a week so that employers whose employees' gross average wage rates are £ 42 or less a week will be able to claim the higher rate of £ 15 a week and employers whose employees' gross average wage rates are between £ 42 and £ 47 a week may claim the lower rate of £ 7.50 a week. Gross average wage rates exceeding £ 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, hairdressing and garages, and the construction industry (10%).

Working time

Netherlands: 32-hour jobs / Promotion of part-time work

The 1982 government agreement has drawn attention, among other things, to introducing 32-hour (per week) jobs for younger people into the Civil Service.

Departments should convert 30% of their full-time jobs into maximum 32-hour week part-time jobs. The conversion takes place as soon as the assigned position is externally advertised; in other words, each position for which experience is not required must in principle be considered for assignment by the department regardless of the training level it requires.

Since promoting part-time work can also contribute to redistributing employment, the Minister for the Interior has again strongly requested:

- to allow staff who so wish to work part time, if no unsurmountable drawbacks result from this for the service or for other staff members; and
- to systematically examine whether new positions cannot also be filled by two or more part-timers and if so to bring this out when reporting the vacancy.

Placement

France: Computerized management of job-seekers (GIDE)

Computerizing the national employment agency (ANPE) is a central element in the design of the overall computerization plan of the Public Employment Service. Its aim is, through the integrated computerization of its constituent elements (the 'départemental' Directorates of Labour and Employ-

ment, ANPE and AFPA: the association for adult vocational training), to:

- improve the quality of the services given to the users – employers and job-seekers – by simplifying procedures and improving information on services they can expect;
- ensure better linkage between the elements of the Public Employment Service, notably for developing the follow-up of employment policies.

This is the background to the blueprint for computerizing ANPE which has been drawn up by its Council. Various stages are set out dealing both with the operational area (handling supply and demand and enhancing placement) and with internal management (personnel management, managing financial and accounting operations, etc.).

Operational computerization

Because of the strong growth in the number of job-seekers since 1974, the manual handling of the files of job-seekers registered at ANPE is now a major obstacle to the effectiveness of the Agency's actions. This is why the IX Plan gave priority to bringing in, in 1984 and 1985, the computerization of management of job-seekers drawing at the outset on the available computer resources of the bodies paying the unemployment allowances (the As-sedics). To this end, an agreement was signed between ANPE and Unedic on 25 July 1983 setting out the terms of cooperation between the two bodies during this first stage.

The resources foreseen by the IX Plan enable the GIDE (computerized management of job-seekers) to be generally available at the end of 1985 with the computerization of the most important third (230) of ANPE's local agencies in 1984. By the end of 1984, half the job-seekers will be covered by these new arrangements. Computerization will significantly ease the administrative tasks carried out in the agencies (notably real time access to registrations and elimination of much

paperwork) by improving the service to the user (replacing physical registration each month by updating demand by correspondence; bringing in bi-products improving the information level of the users; accelerating payments) and administrative efficiency (reducing amounts incorrectly paid by the bodies entrusted with unemployment benefits).

The resources available in 1984 for this programme are 38 new jobs for computer specialists, 62.7 million francs for equipment and 47.5 million francs for operations.

The experimental programmes, which are a part of the computerization of ANPE itself, are continuing in parallel to this first set of applications:

- computerized aid to placement by handling all job offers in a single employment basin (the SAGE experiment in Upper Normandy); and
- the experimental integrated computerization project within the Public Employment Service.

Computerized management

This concerns mainly setting up computerized personnel management, computerized management of real estate leases and the computerized management of accounting and financial operations.

Greece: New employment offices

Traditionally, the main task of OAED, the national manpower organization, has been to help workers and particularly to place the unemployed in job vacancies. To enhance its task of matching labour supply with demand, it has established new employment offices.

The specialized staff manning these offices have a dual task: on the one hand, to inform job-seekers – especially the young – of new developments and trends in the labour market as regards new skills and professions, and to provide them with vocational guid-

dance on vocational training or re-training; on the other hand, to examine with employers the possibilities of creating new jobs, pointing out the various financial incentives available for hiring special categories of the unemployed, such as the handicapped and young people. The new offices are connected to a central computer which stores both job vacancies and job-seekers, thereby providing immediate matching.

Netherlands: START in 1983

START is a temporary employment agency. In the past year it helped 24 259 people to find temporary work. That is almost double the number of

1981, when START made 13 407 placements.

In 1982 persons with limited chances of finding work had more attention paid to them. A good third of placements dealt with women, and 63 % of the persons who were given a job were younger than 25 years of age.

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 break-down was as follows:

<input type="checkbox"/> agriculture	5 756
<input type="checkbox"/> industry	37 685
<input type="checkbox"/> services	17 049

with the company break-down by numbers of employees being:

<input type="checkbox"/> 49 persons or less	48 940
<input type="checkbox"/> 50-249 persons	9 333
<input type="checkbox"/> 250-499 persons	1 499
<input type="checkbox"/> more than 500 persons	718

Part Four

Tables and statistics

Statistical appendix

- I – Population
- II – Education
- III – Employment
- IV – Unemployment
- V – Industrial relations – Working conditions
- VI – Incomes, wages, labour costs
- VII – Standard of living
- VIII – Social protection

I. Population

Year	B	DK	DE	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR 10
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1. Total population

(a) 1 000 – annual average on 30 June

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	56 127	365	14 150	56 360	270 296
1981	9 852	5 122	61 682	9 728	53 966	3 443	56 502	365	14 247	56 348	271 255
1982	9 856	5 118	61 638	9 792	54 219	3 483	56 639	366	14 313	56 341	271 765

(b) Average annual increase as %

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	0.3
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 groups (end of the year) as %

0-14 years	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
15-64 years	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
65 years and 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. Components of population changes

(a) Birth rate (live births per 1 000 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 1 000 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 1 000 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.

II. Education

Year	B	DK	DE	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR 10
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1. Compulsory education

(a) Minimum age

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) School-Leaving age

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	16	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	52 285
1981/82	1 887	1 037	10 742	-	11 246	785	10 655	50	3 071	11 022	52 240

(b) Pupils and students as % 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
1981/82	19.2	20.3	17.4	-	20.8	22.6	18.8	13.7	21.5	19.7	19.2

(c) Pupils and students by level of education as %

<i>First level</i>											
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
<i>Second level</i>											
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
<i>Third level</i>											
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	9.6	1.6	9.0	4.9	8.6

¹ Excluding nursery schools.

² 1979/80.

³ Excluding Greece and Luxembourg.

Source: Eurostat.

III. Employment

Year	B	DK	DE	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR 10
1. Working population											
(a) 1 000 – annual average											
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*
1982	4 174	2 684	27 501	–	23 394	1 283	23 188	161	5 696	26 303	118 060*
(b) Activity rates (working population as % of 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*	52.4	44.6	–	43.1	36.8	40.5*	44.1	39.8	46.6*	43.3*
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	107 435
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	109 209*
1982	3 713	2 450	25 668	–	21 526	1 146	21 119	159	5 094	23 533	107 980*
(b) Female employment as % of total employment											
1960	30.4	29.8	37.6	34.0*	32.7*	26.3*	29.7	25.2*	22.0*	33.1	33.0*
1970	31.9	38.6	35.9	26.4*	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	45.0	37.8	–	37.8	29.6	31.6	29.9	30.9	40.6	36.9*
(c) Total employment by sectors as %											
<i>Agriculture, fishing</i>											
1960	8.6	17.6	13.9	57*	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*
1982	2.9	8.6	5.5	–	8.4	17.3	12.4	4.7	5.0	2.7	7.7*
<i>Industry</i>											
1960	46.3	35.6	48.0	18*	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*
1982	32.4	26.3	42.7	–	34.6	31.1	37.0	36.6	28.8	34.7	36.3*
<i>Services</i>											
1960	45.1	46.8	38.1	25*	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*
1982	64.7	65.1	51.8	–	57.0	51.5	50.6	58.7	66.3	62.6	56.0*

* Estimates.

Source: Eurostat.

III. Employment (continued)

Year	B	DK	DE	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR 10
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3. Employees in employment
(a) Total (1 000) – annual average

1960	2 579	1 580	20 257	1 130*	13 944	650	12 257	94	3 296	23 009	78 800*
1970	3 067	1 885	22 246	1 500*	16 457	725	13 368	113	4 045	22 851	86 257*
1980	3 218	2 097	22 986	1 853	18 101	876	15 240	137	4 469	23 177	92 154
1981	3 135	2 084	22 877	1 884	17 989	867	15 262	138	4 482	22 035	90 753*
1982	3 091	2 096	22 455	–	18 026	864	15 242	139	4 443	21 415	89 655*

(b) As % of total employment

1960	74.1	76.9	77.7	32.2*	71.2	61.6	59.9	71.4	78.8	94.6	75.1
1970	81.5	79.8	83.4	45.5*	78.7	68.9	67.6	80.4	85.9*	92.3	80.3*
1980	83.8	84.3	87.4	52.3*	83.4	75.3	72.2	86.4	88.0	92.0	83.3
1981	83.3	84.9	87.6	49.9*	83.5	75.3	72.0	86.8	87.7	91.2	83.0
1982	83.3	85.5	87.5	–	83.7	75.4	72.2	87.3	87.2	91.0	82.9

4. Employees in the iron and steel industry
(a) 1 000 – end of the year

1973	62.4	2.7	228.4	–	151.7	0.8	89.7	23.2	23.3	196.2	778.4 ¹
1979	48.7	2.8	204.8	–	120.6	0.7	98.7	16.4	21.2	156.6	670.4 ¹
1980	45.2	2.2	197.4	–	104.9	0.7	99.6	14.9	21.0	112.1	598.0 ¹
1981	44.1	1.7	186.7	–	97.3	0.7	95.7	13.4	20.9	88.2	548.8 ¹
1982	41.7	1.6	175.9	–	95.2	0.6	91.5	12.4	20.2	74.5	513.6 ¹
1983	39.9	1.6	163.8	–	90.8	0.7	87.4	12.5	19.2	63.9	479.8 ¹

(b) Average annual increase (+) or decrease (–) as %

1973/79	–4.0	+ 0.6	–1.8	–	– 3.8	– 2.2	+1.6	– 5.7	–1.8	– 3.7	– 2.5 ¹
1979/80	–7.2	–21.4	–3.6	–	–13.0	–28.6	+0.8	– 8.6	+0.5	–28.6	–10.8 ¹
1980/81	–2.4	–22.7	–5.4	–	– 7.2	–40.0	–3.8	–10.1	–0.5	–21.3	– 8.2 ¹
1981/82	–5.7	– 5.9	–5.8	–	– 2.2	–14.3	–4.4	– 7.5	–3.3	–15.5	– 6.4 ¹
1982/83	–4.1	0	–6.9	–	– 4.6	+16.7	–4.5	+ 0.8	–5.0	–14.2	– 6.6 ¹

* Estimates.

¹ EUR 9.

Source: Eurostat.

IV. Unemployment

Year	B	DK	DE	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR 10
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1. Registered unemployed

(a) 1 000 – annual average

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	369 ¹	176 ¹	889	37	1 451	102	1 776	1.1	325 ¹	1 658 ¹	6 784 ¹
1981	454	235	1 272	42	1 773	128	1 993	1.6	480	2 430	8 808
1982	535	253	1 833	50	2 008	157	2 379	2.0	655	2 789	10 660
1983	589	277	2 258	61	2 041	193	2 698	2.5	801	3 046	11 968
1983 March	563	295	2 387	75	2 017	189	2 739	2.3	768	3 010	12 045
June	545	249	2 127	45	1 878	189	2 632	2.1	793	2 955	11 415
Sept.	631	265	2 134	39	2 087	193	2 690	2.4	827	3 167	12 035
Dec.	606	289	2 349	88	2 227	208	2 830	3.0	856	3 079	12 536

(b) Unemployment rates (unemployed as % 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	9.1 ¹	6.7 ¹	3.3	1.1	6.4	8.3	8.0	0.7	6.2 ¹	6.3 ¹	5.9
1981	11.2	8.9	4.7	1.2	7.8	10.2	8.8	1.0	8.8	9.2	7.6
1982	13.1	9.5	6.8	1.5	8.9	12.3	10.5	1.3	11.7	10.7	9.2
1983	14.4	10.4	8.4	1.7	8.9	15.2	11.9	1.5	14.3	11.7	10.3
1983 March	13.8	11.0	8.8	2.2	8.8	14.9	12.1	1.4	13.7	12.2	10.6
June	13.4	9.3	7.9	1.2	8.2	14.9	11.6	1.3	14.2	11.5	9.9
Sept.	15.4	9.9	7.9	1.1	9.1	15.2	11.9	1.5	14.8	12.2	10.4
Dec.	14.8	10.8	8.7	2.4	9.8	16.4	12.5	1.8	15.3	11.9	10.8

2. Structure of unemployment

(a) Proportion of women among the unemployed as %

1960	25.4	11.7	34.1	—	37.4	11.5	28.8	—	16.9	27.9	28.8*
1970	42.1	18.0	37.6	—	44.4	16.8	30.1	—	21.6	15.3	27.9*
1980	61.6 ¹	50.0 ¹	52.0	40.6	54.6	23.9	46.0	51.9	35.8 ¹	28.8 ¹	44.5 ¹
1981	56.9	45.7	48.7	39.7	51.5	23.5	47.7	46.8	33.3	27.9	42.4
1982	54.6	46.8	44.3	38.8	50.0	24.1	48.6	46.5	31.9	28.3	41.6
1983	53.5	49.7	43.6	39.8	49.0	25.0	48.1	46.0	31.3	29.1	41.3
1983 March	53.3	45.7	41.0	37.1	48.8	24.3	47.5	41.5	29.8	26.9	39.5
June	53.6	50.9	44.8	41.9	48.9	25.1	48.6	46.5	31.8	28.1	41.2
Sept.	53.9	53.5	46.3	35.8	49.6	25.3	48.2	48.1	32.9	30.4	42.3
Dec.	53.1	51.1	42.8	41.6	48.2	25.4	48.0	47.4	31.2	29.6	41.3

(b) Proportion of young people² among the unemployed as % – 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 ¹	41.7 ³
1983	39.0	26.4	29.2 ⁴	—	45.2	30.7	49.9	53.9	41.0	40.7	40.4 ³

* Estimates.

¹ New statistical series.² Aged under 25 years.³ EUR 9.⁴ September.

Source: Eurostat.

V. Industrial relations – Working conditions

Year	B	DK	DE	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR 10
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1. Trade union membership% (Union members as % of all employees)

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 disputes

(a) Average number of working days lost per year (1 000)

1960/69	270	278	219	216*	(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 working days lost per 1 000 employees

1960/69	99	176	11	195*	(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. Hours of work per week

(a) Normal hours of work for industrial workers fixed by collective agreements

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 ^a	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 annual paid holidays for industrial workers fixed by collective agreements in days⁵

1960	12	18	12–18	6–12	18	12	12	8–18 ^b	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	DE	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR 10
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

* Estimates.

¹ Normal hours fixed by legislation.

² From 1 February.

³ 1967.

⁴ Hours paid for.

⁵ Working days; where the data have been annotated *, it is question of days of work.

⁶ According to some works agreements.

⁷ After one year of service.

Sources: 1., 3.(a), 4. + 5.: Commission.

2., 3.(b): Eurostat.

VI. Incomes, wages, labour costs

Year	B	DK	DE	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR 10
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	8 233	8 515	8 791	4 331	8 508	4 909	6 770	9 188	8 159	7 187	7 712
1981	8 883	9 234	9 586	4 668	9 274	5 379	7 387	9 702	8 778	7 751	8 378
	9 786	10 429	10 344	5 055	10 218	5 865	8 101	10 217	9 372	8 642	9 181
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 as %											
Oct. 1975/Oct. 1980	13.5	10.8	12.3	17.0	13.4	12.0	12.6	10.7	10.9	8.7	—
Oct. 1980/Oct. 1981	14.6	11.0	11.3	15.2	13.0	11.4	16.0	9.9	9.1	8.9	—
Oct. 1981/Oct. 1982	5.6	10.2	4.2	36.5	13.1	14.4	17.0	8.2	6.9	8.9	—
(c) Development in real terms (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 industries											
(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	—
1978	9.34	7.87	8.51	—	6.51	3.75	5.00	9.16	9.16	3.78	—
1981	12.16	9.54	10.96	3.83	9.82	5.99	7.34	10.29	10.77	7.32	—
(b) Country with the highest level = 100											
1975	91	89	89	—	73	41	66	92	100	46	—
1978	100	84	91	—	70	40	54	98	98	40	—
1981	100	78	90	31	81	49	60	85	89	60	—

¹ Manufacturing industries only.

Source: Eurostat.

VII. Standard of living

Year	B	DK	DE	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR 10
1. Dwellings											
(a) Existing dwellings per 1 000 inhabitants – end of year											
1960	351	328	264	242	295*	240	275	309	248	317	285
1970	355 ¹	353	341	290*	320	244	319	329	288	346	329
1980	386	422	412	354*	360*	263	380*	383	342 ¹	384	381
(b) Completed dwellings per 1 000 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	20.0 ^{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. Durable consumption goods – end of year											
(a) Passenger cars per 1 000 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	89	343	215	310	352 ¹	322	281	317
1981	325	267	385	94	349	225	330	378	325	283	325
(b) Television sets per 1 000 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*	296	331 ³	306 ³
(c) Installed telephones per 1 000 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) Index – 1975 = 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

* Estimates.

¹ New statistical series.² Buildings started.³ 1979.⁴ Excluding rents and associated costs.

Source: Eurostat.

VIII. Social protection

Year	B	DK	DE	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR 10
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1. Total social protection expenditure as a % 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	1 030	1 210	1 240	—	1 000	500	760	1 100	1 200	820	980 ³
1980	1 280	1 390	1 520	—	1 290	640	930	1 450	1 490	970	1 200 ³
1981*	1 360	1 410	1 540	—	1 340	660	1 000	1 490	1 500	1 030	1 250 ³

(b) Benefits per function as %

<i>1970</i>											
<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 injuries	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, placement	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	—
<i>1980</i>											
<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 injuries	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, placement	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	—

VIII. Social protection (continued)

Year	B	DK	DE	GR	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EUR 10
3. Receipts according to nature (%)											
<i>1970</i>											
□ Employers' contributions	46.8	11.2	47.1	–	59.2	19.3	–	36.1	43.3	33.6	–
□ Contributions from insured persons	21.2	6.4	24.2	–	18.9	12.4	–	24.8	35.8	18.0	–
□ Contributions from public funds	25.4	79.6	23.7	–	18.6	67.5	–	29.9	12.5	38.4	–
□ 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>											
□ Employers' contributions	41.0	10.2	39.0	37.4 ²	55.9	24.7	58.5	35.4	37.0	33.3	–
□ Contributions from insured persons	20.2	2.1	25.6	37.3 ²	23.6	11.2	13.6	23.0	31.0	14.6	–
□ Contributions from public funds	34.7	83.2	32.2	21.7 ²	17.5	63.1	25.4	32.4	20.4	43.3	–
□ Other	4.2	4.5	3.2	3.6 ²	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	–

* Provisional data.

¹ 1969.² 1977/78.³ EUR 9.⁴ Data from the 2nd European social budget.

Source: Eurostat.

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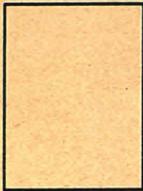
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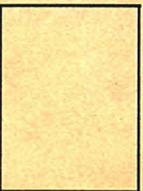
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Rua João de Deus
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Telex 12709-LITRAN-P

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