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COMMISSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES

DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR EMPLOYMENT,
SOCIAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION

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Editorial

The Commission recently adopted its programme for 1985 and thus gave more tangible expression to the guidelines presented by its President, Mr Delors, in his speech to the European Parliament in January. He referred, in particular, to the prime importance of setting up a large internal market in the Community as a condition for the achievement of an industrial area and a European social area.

The programme describes a number of the measures to which the Commission intends to give priority in the field of employment, social policy, vocational training and education policy.

I should like briefly to comment on these priorities.

As regards employment policy, the programme points out that while the solution to the employment problem must be sought first and foremost at macroeconomic level, specific back-up policies are still a necessary ingredient in the success of an employment strategy.

These policies must be so framed as not to hamper positive adjustment in the economy and not to place all the burden on social achievements to date.

An employment policy necessarily involves the creation of a modern labour market, one which administers forward planning, especially at regional level, and associates public authorities and both sides of industry so that the requirements of economic and social development can be met more adequately.

The programme also stresses that job creation can be boosted by reducing and reorganizing working time, one condition being that such measures should have a neutral effect on costs. The reorganization of work in undertakings could contribute to better utilization of their productive capacities and hence to an increase in productivity.

In conjunction with its employment policy, the Commission will ensure that the problems concerning the improvement of living and working conditions are dealt with at Community level and that the second action programme on health and safety at work is developed.

The Commission also believes that, given rising expenditure, the ageing of the population and the increase in health care costs, the steps taken to reform social security should not create new obstacles to the free movement of individuals nor lead to unfair advantages in terms of competitiveness.

The Commission is equally aware of the importance to the development of employment of better vocational training, which should improve coordination between training schemes, economic reality and labour market trends.

It will be putting forward a programme aimed at promoting cooperation between industry and higher education at Community level and will endeavour to encourage closer relations between education systems.

The Commission also intends to continue its activities to promote equal treatment for men and women and will draw up a more radical medium-term programme to this end.

It has already presented proposals to the Council on the approximation of immigration policies. It will submit a recommendation on the employment of the handicapped and will develop the first phase of its poverty action programme.

The Commission considers, finally, that economic policy and employment policy will be all the more successful the broader the consensus on which they are built. This is particularly so because the behaviour of the two sides of industry has direct macroeconomic repercussions.

Whilst respecting their independence, the Commission will endeavour to revive the dialogue between the two sides at all levels. It will systematically seek discussions with them on all matters of importance affecting the economy and employment.

Policies based on agreements and negotiation between management and labour, whether at inter-occupational level or at sectoral level, are one of the cornerstones of this new European social area.

The dialogue must therefore develop at Community level, as the Community dimension alone can create optimum conditions for genuine economic recovery and enable Community countries to meet the challenge of new technologies.

Jean Degimbe
Director-general for Employment, Social Affairs and Education

Part One

Measures and guidelines

The European social dialogue within sectors

Over the past few months, there has been a steadily-growing call for the relaunch of the social dialogue within the Community. The medium-term social action programme adopted by the Council on 22 June 1984[1] stressed the importance of the dialogue and requested the Commission both to improve the dialogue with the two sides of industry in order to associate them more closely with economic and social decisions taken by the Community, and to foster the development of industrial relations at Community level.

This desire was pointed up by Commission President Delors in his outline of the Commission's programme to the European Parliament. The 'strength of Europe' must also come from the 'vitality in industrial relations and maximum participation'.[2]

A general consensus also seems to be emerging from industry and the unions that it was high time to break out of the 'dialogue of the deaf' in which they had seemed to be locked.[3]

A working party of Unice and ETUC representatives provided an opportunity for a series of informal contacts throughout 1984. An initiative from the French Presidency, carried on by the succeeding Irish Presidency, also led to a series of meetings between the Council, the Commission, Unice and ETUC.

More recently, on 31 January, the Commission organized a meeting between leading employers' representatives and senior trade union officials from Member States. Both sides showed their willingness to hammer out certain issues and displayed an awareness that social and economic problems could no longer be treated as separate issues.

The mutual goodwill and the receptiveness of each to the other side's viewpoint seems to suggest that the time may well be ripe for a revival of Community social dialogue, an opportunity to start off again from a firmer footing. In a previous issue of *Social Europe*,[4] we dealt with the 'The social dialogue in the Community' from the inter-industry standpoint. What we should like to do now is to look at another aspect of the social dialogue within the Community: that taking place within industry groups.

The fact that this facet of the dialogue tends to be pushed into the background by the relations between the two major European confederations makes it no less significant or worthwhile. While inter-industry consultations promote broad-ranging or horizontal debates, sectoral consultations add a concrete dimension to the general discussions by bringing them face-to-face with the specific realities of each sector. It is clear, for example, that while the issue of reducing and reorganizing working time must necessarily be a topic for general discussion, it is no less imperative that it be dealt with on a sectoral basis, since the practical details of how working time is to be reduced and reorganized will vary according to the actual working patterns of the individual industry or service trade. Technological advance offers another illustration: once we have mapped out the principal macroeconomic issues, we must turn our attention to the more homogeneous units of the industry groups.

At a time, moreover, when the vast majority of sectors are in the throes of a radical upheaval, raising the discussion to European level may go some way to helping us grasp the immensity of the transformation now taking place. It will also involve the social partners in the economic and social challenges facing the Community, and demand their active participation in formulating Community responses.

The sectoral dialogue is now almost 20 years old, and as boom gave way to slump over those two decades, it has met with mixed fortunes.

The enthusiasm of the 1960s: The birth of the joint committees

The 1960s saw the Commission and the principal actors on the European stage combining their efforts to add the social dimension to the construction of Europe. Social progress, indeed, was one of the prime objectives of the Community, and one corollary of harmonizing the terms of competition was the harmonization of social

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[1] OJ C 175 of 4. 7. 1984.

[2] Bulletin of the European Communities. Supplement 1/85.

[3] In *30 jours d'Europe* (No 138, January 1985) Lord Pennock, newly-installed President of Unice, said: 'In recent years, the Union of Industries of the European Community has become locked into a deplorable war of attrition with the trade unions. The rights of consultation of workers in multinational enterprises, and the violent squabble over the reduction of the working week, have brought us to an impasse which does no honour to either camp.'

[4] Social Europe No 2, September 1984.

legislation. Joint committees rapidly became part of the institutional structure in the coal and steel industries (1955), agriculture (agricultural workers – 1963), sea fishing (1968), road transport (1965), transport by inland waterway (1967) and rail transport (1971). The Commission was a crucial driving force behind these developments, helping bring home the changing situation to both sides of industry, and offering material assistance by organizing meetings and taking over the administration for committees composed of equal numbers of management and labour representatives appointed by the Commission on the recommendation of employers' associations and trade unions.

The goals were ambitious ones: no less than to contribute to the construction of a European system of industrial relations and foster free collective bargaining.

But while the joint committees provided a forum for major discussions,[1] and led to the adoption of two 'Community agreements' on hours of work in arable farming and stock-farming, it soon became clear that the sights had been set too high at the outset, and the time was not yet ripe for the emergence of a Community-wide contractual policy.

During the 1970s, the joint committees came up against a series of increasingly difficult hurdles (the 1973 Community enlargement; the separation of economic and social issues, the stalemates between the unions pushing for the adoption of European standards or collective agreements, and the employers with their serious misgivings about committing themselves at a Community level), and the process of extending the joint committee concept to new sectors of the economy ground to a halt.[2]

It became clear that the establishment of joint committees was closely bound up with the existence of common 'integrated' policies. The introduction of the common fisheries policy, the overhaul of the CAP, and the current work on a transport policy paved the way for a revival of the joint committees in these sectors.

In consequence, the Joint Committee on Sea Fishing found itself able in 1984 to discuss the outcome of concrete initiatives in each of its Working Parties (Training, Safety, Harmonization of Working Conditions) as a direct result of the modest budget appropriations made in Chapter 43 of the General Budget[3] and the desire of the Council Presidency to expand the debate on social aspects of the fisheries policy.

This led to the launching of a series of preliminary training schemes during 1985: instructor exchange programmes between Member States, preparation of teaching aids, pilot training schemes in the use of advanced technology, etc. A demonstration programme for further training for young Ship's Masters is also at the blueprint stage.

Using its initiative-taking powers, the Committee is currently discussing an opinion on the harmonization of working conditions.

A previous issue of *Social Europe* has already covered some aspects of safety in the fishing industry;[4] suffice it to say here, then, that plans for a number of safety training modules are currently in the pipeline, based on the results of the surveys conducted since 1975 on accidents at sea. A number of particularly interesting initiatives in the field of on-board emergency medical assistance are focusing on the use of computer aids for emergency services and air/sea rescue missions.

The Joint Committee for Agriculture is currently discussing the timeliness of fresh initiatives to harmonize working conditions in the light of the 'recommendations' concluded in 1975 and 1978. The committee has issued an opinion on the problems of safety and accidents involving power lifts and drawbar hitches for tractors.

The committee has also launched an awareness campaign to promote a series of training modules on safety at work for agricultural workers.

Finally, the Commission has given the go-ahead for a survey on the working conditions of agricultural workers throughout the EEC to add to the available information base on the social situation of this section of the population, and to provide a firmer foundation for an examination of the social consequences of policies adopted for the agricultural sector.

In the field of transport, the Commission has drawn up new rules for the joint committee on Transport by Inland Waterway[5] giving it a right of initiative. This means, that the committee can now be convened either by its officers (employers' and workers' representatives) or on the requisition of one-third of its members. It has also been given a measure of autonomy. So far, a good deal of the discussion over the Commission's proposals for harmonizing social legislation in the field of inland waterway transport has been carried on in the Central Commission for the Navigation of the Rhine (CCR); the joint committee has now decided to avoid further duplication by setting up two working parties to study harmonization of vocational training and safety and hygiene. Its officers will also be studying the social repercussions of recent Commission proposals to liberalize road transport to and from coastal points, together with those covered by the Additional Protocol to the Mannheim Convention.

The Commission has also replaced the rules for the Joint Committee on

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[1] The joint committees produced a large body of opinions and recommendations in the fields of safety, working conditions and employment.

[2] Except for the Joint Committee for the Footwear Industry which was set up in 1971 and suspended operations in 1982.

[3] Chapter 43 'Social aspects of the fisheries policy'
(i) Article 4300 – Actions to develop a common education and training policy in the fishing industry,
(ii) Article 4310 – Subsidies in favour of certain medical assistance and safety measures at sea.

[4] *Social Europe* No 2/1984, p. 67.

[5] Commission Decision of 9. 10. 1980 (80/991/EEC).

Joint committees at Community level cover agriculture . . . Copyright Gayard/R.E.A.

Rail Transport with new rules similar to those for the inland waterways committee. The management and labour representatives on the rail transport committee have set themselves the task of examining the social aspects of a number of measures and proposed measures which at first sight seem purely economic, such as:

(i) the Commission's proposal concerning 'the improvement of the situation of the railways and harmonization of the rules governing financial relations between railways and the Member States';

(ii) international railway cooperation;

(iii) decisions of the Council of Ministers for Transport of 10. 5. 1984.

The Joint Committee for Road Transport is currently focusing its attention on the revision of social legislation affecting road haulage workers. Discussions are also under way for overhauling this committee's operating rules. It is quite on the cards that the first task of the 'new look' committee will be to complete its work on the harmonization of social legislation, moving on to deal with the issues of vocational training, safety, hygiene, welfare and comfort of the crews of road transport vehicles.

In the field of shipping, the representatives of the shipowners and seafarers' unions are continuing to look for grounds for an agreement on the right of initiative. In the meantime, the two sides are meeting on an occasional basis as an *ad hoc* joint committee to discuss such priority issues as the Commission's memorandum on shipping policy, the problem of flags of convenience, working conditions and terms of employment.

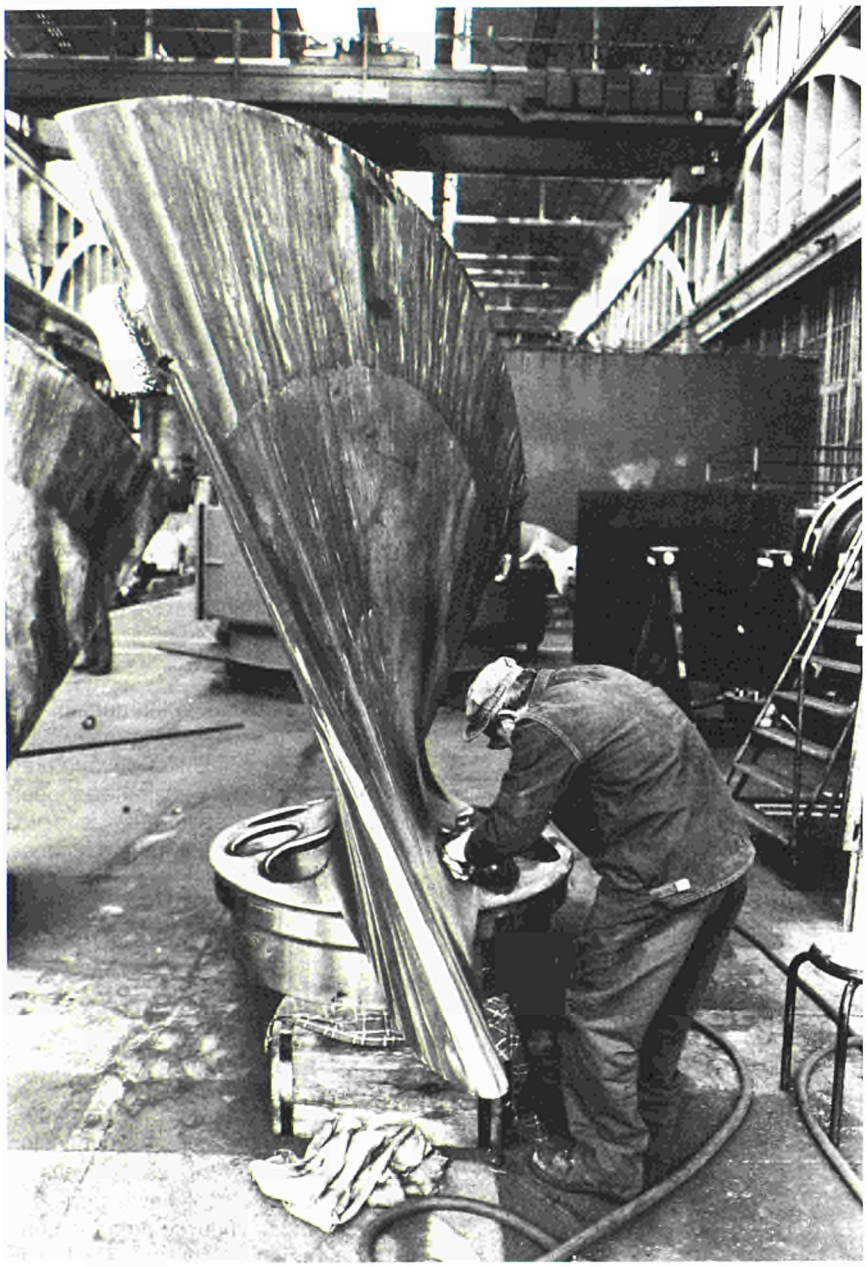
Parallel to the development of the joint committees, and frequently as a reaction to the difficulties encountered by them, a new dimension has been developing in the sectoral social dialogue, based more on a frank exchange of views than negotiations in the strict sense.

The 'informal' social dialogue: a more pragmatic approach

This new approach concentrates more on the socioeconomic dimension of the industry group as its focus of concern; it helps break down barriers to understanding, finds common ground between opposing attitudes, and brings the participants to an awareness of the need for a Community setting to the discussions.

The following examples, all taken from day-to-day business, illustrate the non uniform and multifaceted character of this new dimension to the Community social dialogue.

There is very lively across-the-board consultation on social and economic issues within the individual industries in the metal-working sector.



. . . and shipbuilding

Dialogue in the motor vehicle industry focuses on the general state of the automotive sector and the follow-up to Community acitivities,[1] or occasional measures of general concern, such as selective distribution, harmonization of technical standards or exhaust emissions. Both sides of industry (the Liaison Committee for the Motor Vehicle Industry in EEC Countries [CLCA], and the European Metalworkers' Federation in the Community [EMF]) were actively involved in a study into industrial adjustment and changes in the structure of employment in the automobile industry.[2] To date, however, it has proved impossible to bring the two sides together to discuss the conclusions of the report. This raises the question of whether a more global approach might not be appropriate, linking the economic and social dimensions, and turning a dialogue between European employers' and workers' organizations and with the Community institutions into an essential element of the consensus required to establish a 'Community frame of reference' enabling European car makers to take up the challenges thrown down by competition for world markets.

The social partners in the shipbuilding industry (the liaison committee and EMF) are at present involved in defining Community guidelines for the industry. The progress of a Community-wide social dialogue is not helped, however, by the lack of a genuine common market in shipbuilding – Community shipowners place only 1% of their total orders in Community shipyards outside their own countries!

Employers' and workers' representatives in the machine tool industry (the European Committee for Cooperation of the Machine Tool Industries [Cecimo] and EMF) were closely associated with the position adopted by the Commission.[3] As a direct follow-on from this, they have now turned their attention to vocational training for the industry.

The Community holds frequent and very close exchanges of view with the representatives of the socioeconomic interests in the textile industry (the Coordinating Committee for the Textile Industries in the EEC [Comitextil] and the Trade Union Committee) on the general state of the industry; its competitiveness; aids; research, commercial policy, etc. Employers and workers also collaborated in launching and evaluating a number of case studies into new patterns of shift working in the textile industry, under the aegis of research carried out by the Dublin-based European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. Despite its topicality, the discussion,

[1] COM(81)317 fin and COM(83)633 fin.
[2] *Social Europe* No 1/1984, p. 61.
[3] SEC(83)151 fin.

which sets parameters for the problem of working time/uninterrupted production time, has not yet been carried through to Community level.

The situation in the agri-food industry tells a somewhat different tale. To start with, the Commission favours joint consultation within the advisory committees in the agricultural sector, involving all the interests directly affected; secondly, in addition to the general involvement of both sides in work done at Community level, the employers and workers in two of the individual industries have started up their own joint industrial dialogue. Since 1977, representatives of European sugar manufacturers (CEFS) and sugarworkers' unions (ECF) have held regular exchanges of view on the economic situation of the industry; the labour force; working hours; vocational training; market and commercial policy. The discussions have been on ice since 1983, however, due to the employers' refusal to discuss the impact of new technology on jobs. Employers and workers in the brewing industry (CBMC, ECF) have had contacts since 1981 on such matters as supply contracts, advertising of alcohol, harmonization of excise duties and the distinction between technical advance and the use of new technology. Their meetings have not (yet?), however, acquired the dynamics of a dialogue, a fact which clashes somewhat with the vigour displayed by industrial relations in the sector generally, both nationally and within the large brewing groups.

The construction industry is also a case apart in many respects. Both employers and workers participated as experts in research conducted by the Berlin-based European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (Cedefop) into the approximation of levels of vocational training. They have also been meeting on a regular basis since 1983 to discuss training/work experience schemes and training in the use of new technology. Currently, they are advocating the creation of a European documentation unit to act as the linchpin of a network connecting the various national technical training centres for the building industry, industry organizations and other agencies directly concerned by the training issue. The International European Construction Federation (FIEC) and the European Federation of Building Industry Workers (FETBB), are also consulted on the Commission's proposals relating to the internal market, energy and social affairs. However, fragmentation of Community activities and divergent views of the nature of the crisis in the building industry, have tended to restrict the scope of the social dialogue in this sector to an extent where its effectiveness is somewhat impaired.

The Commission is closely tracking developments in the service industries, which have been the main areas to experience job-growth throughout the recession. It is important to know whether the service sector will continue to be a source of new jobs, and if so, what kind and in which industries.

In the banking sector, both unions (represented in the banking section of the European Regional Organization of Commercial, Clerical, Professional and Technical Employees (EURO-FIET) and the leading associations of bank employers (Savings Bank Group of the EEC – GCECEE; Association of Co-operative Savings and Credit Institutions of the EEC; and the Banking Federation of the EEC), have been closely involved in a survey into the social implications of introducing new technology in the banking sector.[1]

The financial services sector, and particularly banking, is without doubt the one in which new technology has taken firmest root at the fastest rate. A seminar was staged at the end of 1984, bringing together experts from the unions' and employers' sides, and researchers and academics for discussions on precisely that theme. The leading issues raised by the introduction of new technology (impact on jobs, training, health and safety, work organization) were explored in depth over a day and a half of talks. The meeting demonstrated that an exchange of views between the two sides of industry was possible, and that the European backcloth unarguably enriched the debate. It is clear that the Community dimension does enable us to take the measure of the challenge facing Europe, offers a common yardstick against which to measure technological progress (the pace of which differs from country to country), and to reflect on the responses of the Member States.

In the retail trade sector, the Commission has had meetings with the unions (through the retail section of EURO-FIET), as well as with a number of employers' associations (the European Committee for Retail Trade – CECD; the International Federation of Retail Distributors – FIGED; and the Liaison Committee of European Retail Trade Associations – CLD), on various Commission proposals to the Council (including the reduction and reorganization of working time, part-time working and temporary services) and on employment trends in retail trade.

Towards the end of spring 1985, the Commission will be organizing a discussion seminar on 'Employment – new technologies in retailing' for experts from unions and employers' associations and professional researchers.

Basing itself on the Council Resolution on a Community tourism policy, the Commission will also be scrutinizing the question of employment and the nature of work in the hotel and catering trades (with an aggregate workforce approaching 4 000 000 people).

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One of the intentions behind this approach is to create a climate of confidence between employers and workers, to enable them to analyse the industry's problems together and to consider what direction it should take for the future. It is also clear, that the discussion must break out of the confines of the social dimension alone to enable

[1] *Social Europe* No 1/1984, p. 58.

a broader vision to be taken of the prospects for the sector.

At a time when the two sides of industry seem more inclined to consult than confront, the sectoral dialogue deserves to have fresh life breathed into it. Whether or not it succeeds will depend first and foremost on whether employers and employees have the will to make it work. The aim is not to lock the dialogue within the confines of a rigid framework bound around with constraining formal instruments, but rather to give it room to grow naturally in a flexible and pragmatic fashion in response to changing needs.

European Social Fund assistance for technological change

In 1983 the Commission undertook a first, albeit modest, examination of the results in employment terms obtained in the 'technical progress' sector, which covers operations of adaptation to technological change. To this end the Commission drew up a programme of inspection visits in Member States which had received aid in the technical progress field, covering both operations still under way and those already concluded.

These inspections were carried out from May 1983 to February 1984 and, in all, covered operations representing some 17% of the annual appropriations available for the 'technical progress' sector and involving 7 700 persons.

In the course of these inspections, which are quite distinct from the on-the-spot checks which the Fund carried out regularly pursuant to Article 5 of Council Regulation (EEC) No 858/72 of 24. 4. 1972 when claims are made for the payment of balances, a series of talks were held both with the management of the undertaking or body in question and with the workers concerned or their representatives. The topics dealt with in these talks covered the following:

(i) the type of technological innovation introduced and its impact on employment (reduction, maintenance or expansion of employment);

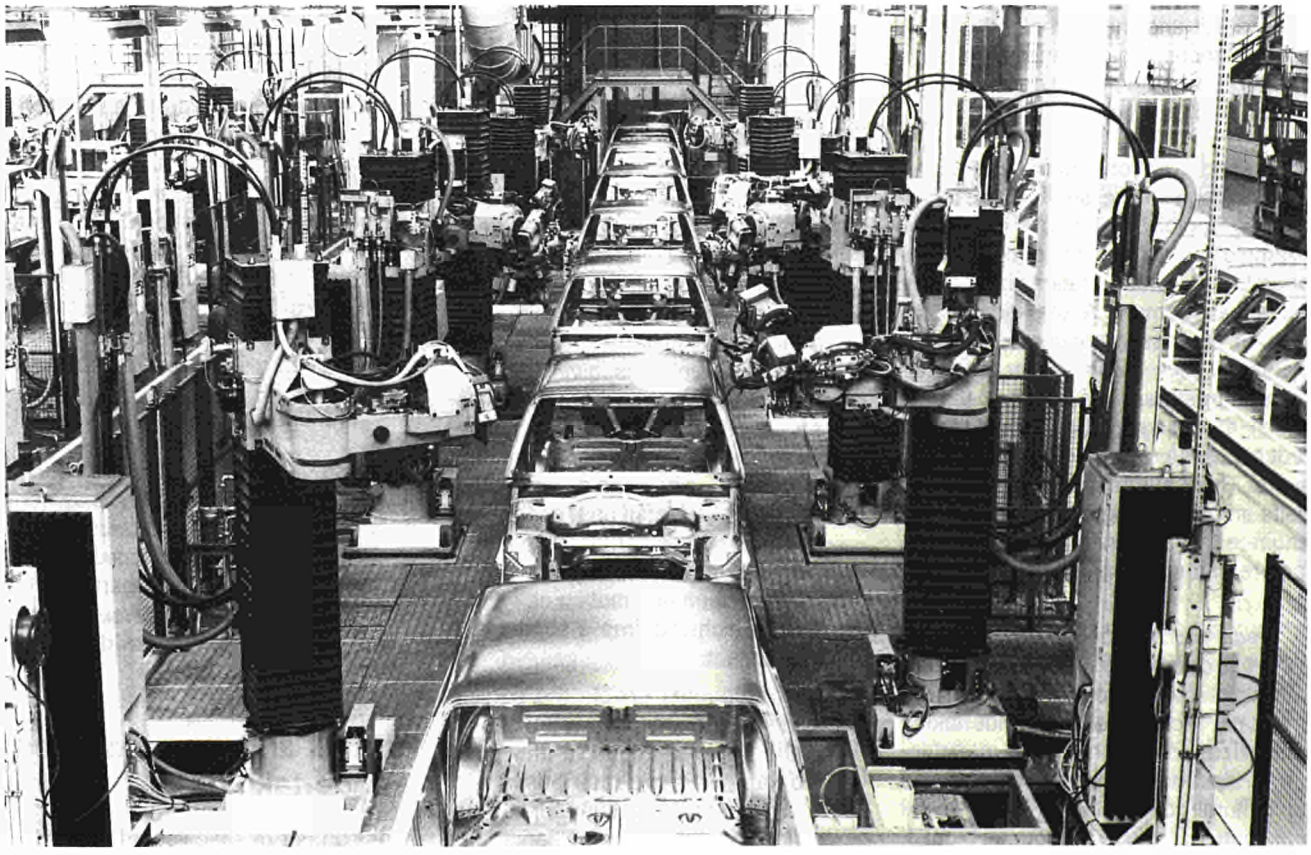
(ii) changes in occupational skills required by the introduction of new technology; characteristics and duration of the training courses;

(iii) staffing trends in the undertaking or sector in question;

(iv) employment situation of the person in question.

The choice of the various bodies and undertakings to be inspected was made in agreement with the national authorities, taking account of the need to cover as wide and as representative a range as possible of the initiatives carried out with the assistance of the Fund under Article 5 ('technical progress'). No general conclusions can be drawn from these inspections; however, they provide a useful frame of reference for the Fund's future activities in this field.

The findings are presented separately, following the headings of the aforementioned outline, i.e. 'type of technological innovation', 'structure and content of training', and 'impact on employment', depending on whether large, small or medium-sized undertakings and private or public training centres are in question, and insofar as specific features can be brought to light.



Automatization of production in the motor vehicle industry

I Undertakings

1. Type of technological innovation

In large undertakings, technological innovation related to the automation of production with the help of robots in the motor vehicle industry (automobiles, tractors), the use of computer-assisted design and electronic quality control, the composition and reproduction of printing plates with the help of lasers, replacement of lead rotation cylinders (which are harmful to health) by copper cylinders in the printing industry, the use of microprocessors and new processes for moulding plastic components in the watchmaking industry, and the replacement of electro-mechanical by electronic controls in the telephone and radiography equipment sector. Because of loss of markets, a watchmaking firm switched part of its activities to new photographic techniques.

In small and medium-sized undertakings, technological innovation concerned the computerization and automation of production.

Computerization mainly affected undertakings in the service and engineering sectors, but also – in Italy for example – a number of agricultural cooperatives, which rationalized their sales management. Automation of production processes concerned the textile sector (new machines for the continuous treatment of cotton thread, which at the same time considerably reduce noise and dirt), the ceramic sector (fully automatic kilns, conveyor belts and packaging machines) and the engineering sector (automated manufacture and electronic quality control).

One watchmaking firm switched part of its operations to the manufacture of microelectronic components and lasers, one recently set-up undertaking specializes in designing and manufacturing electronic alarm systems and an agricultural cooperative is using vegetable and fruit refuse to produce biogas, covering its own energy needs.

2. Structure and content of training

In the undertakings inspected, the structure and content of training courses were found to be very similar, for the technological innovations involved are based essentially on microelectronics and data processing and their application requires very similar skills. The differences are to be found, rather, in the coherence and speed with which undertakings – taking into account market conditions – modernize their production processes. The following general conclusions may be drawn:

(i) Emphasis is placed essentially on training in line with specific production needs and with a practical bias. The length of training is thus limited (it varies from 200 to 600 hours on average), except for some high-level courses concerned with the industrial application of microelectronics and data processing, which may last up to 1 500 hours. Where a course includes a theoretical section, upgrading courses are frequently provided, since these are essential for the acquisition of more advanced skills.

(ii) The fact that training is geared to production and that there is pressure from the competition (most of the undertakings inspected were in sectors affected by the crisis) very often means that the final phase of practical training is given on the job. In most cases where there are no training centres meeting the specific requirements of retraining, undertakings have no choice but to train their own staff on the job. This is true, in particular, of the printing industry and, generally speaking, of production automation using robots, which requires a substantial investment.

(iii) Some courses enable the participants to acquire a high level of skill with a diversified basis and considerably improve their position in the undertaking; this applies to training in photocomposition, printing technology and in the design and utilization of computer-assisted processes. Most courses lead directly to use of the acquired skill in the production process. In some cases, it is simply a matter of training people to use new machines, for example workers in the engineering and motor vehicle sectors.

3. Impact on employment

As regards the effect of the introduction of technological innovations on employment, it was found that:

(i) in most undertakings the threat to existing jobs and the shortage of skilled labour to use the new production techniques often go hand-in-hand;

(ii) technological innovation was made possible mainly through the training of staff in place; new staff were recruited only in rare instances where modernization measures required specialized skills from the start (for example, in the printing sector or the utilization of new forms of energy). Even where the introduction of new technology was accompanied by a full-scale overhaul of the undertaking, the level of employment was, generally speaking, maintained – either because adaptation measures were spread over a fairly long period of time (as in some printing firms) or because the undertaking – at least in the medium term – achieved relative stability after staff cuts (e.g. the motor vehicle an engineering sectors);

(iii) in some cases, it was possible to maintain the level of employment only by switching products; this was true of two watchmaking firms which went over, in part, to the manufacture of microelectronic components and three-dimensional photography.

II Small and medium-sized undertakings

A number of specific features of the training and employment situation in

Practical training on the job

small and medium-sized undertakings are worth mentioning:

(i) The adoption of new production techniques in small and medium-sized undertakings generally goes hand-in-hand with large-scale reorganization measures and affects a large number of staff. Very often undertakings in sectors hit by the crisis can maintain their position on the market only by supplementing or specializing their production programme, using the most up-to-date production methods: this is true of the watchmaking firm which went over, in part, to making lasers or the ceramics firm which, specializing its range of products, largely automated its production process. The high costs involved mean that there is far more on-the-job training than in large undertakings.

(ii) To acquire the theoretical basis needed, in particular, for the use of data processing in business management, firms generally endeavour to collaborate with training centres. However, problems arise where the training programme is not tailored to the firm's specific requirements.

(iii) The jobs of staff in small and medium-sized undertakings are more directly threatened than those of workers in large firms because of the former's specific position on the market and because of the scope of their reorganization programmes. However, in most of the small and medium-sized firms in sectors hit by stagnation or regression (engineering, watchmaking and ceramics) it has proved possible to maintain the level of employment. Where staff had to be cut because of automation, the workers affected were reassigned – after retraining – to a new production sector or – after receiving tideover assistance from public bodies such as the Cassa Integrazione in Italy or the Fonds national pour l'emploi in France while retraining – were reintegrated into the production process of firms which had completed successful restructuring operations.

(iv) Where data processing has been introduced to modernize management and where firms have gained a foothold on the market by specialization or conversion (electronic equipment, new methods of energy production), it has proved necessary to recruit and train additional staff.

III Training centres

The programmes carried out in the centres differ widely from those run in firms as regards structure, content and duration fulfilling an intermediary role between training in new technology and its practical application, the programmes put together by the centres very often fill the gaps in the official vocational training system, whether in

the area of basic skills or, more frequently, specialized skills needed for the application of new techniques to the production process or to management.

1. Type of technological innovation

The centres visited were almost exclusively offering courses in management, data processing and microelectronics, though these were often tailored to the region's labour market and industrial structures.

The courses on offer relate to the application of data processing to marketing, import-export, programming and production control (France) or aim at supplementing scientific training or combining technical programming with office organization and business practice in general (Germany); other courses relate to the use of microelectronics in the public sector (water supply in the United Kingdom; industrial waste control and disposal in Greece), robot automation of production and industrial radiography (France). In two cases, training centres were specializing in business management, and marketing and data processing skills tailored to the setting-up of small businesses.

2. Structure and content of training

Simplifying somewhat, it can be said that most centres offer two kinds of training course: on the one hand, courses providing basic skills in data processing and microelectronics (often including foreign language courses with a technical slant with the option to go on to specialized training at the centre itself, or elsewhere for certain fields. The standard demanded of participants is relatively low and the courses are of a distinctly theoretical type. On the other hand, the centres provide high-level courses aimed at imparting specialized skills, based on three to five years of occupational experience; these courses put more emphasis on practical training. In these cases, the centres often cooperate with local placement services and firms offering the participants periods of practical training which account for 15 to 20% of the course's total duration.

(i) In the vast majority of centres visited, the courses are meant for the unemployed or job-seekers with occupational experience and aim at placing them in jobs in middle management. The training, the duration of which varies on average from 600 to 1 200 hours, is in general highly diversified, dealing with fields close to, but not directly linked to, 'technical progress', such as business practice, business psychology and languages, and provides skills of a high standard. Some centres offering training in computer-assisted techniques and robot automation have impressive equipment enabling them to provide training under conditions approximating to those encountered in real-life work situations.

(ii) In addition, there are some centres which concentrate on certain categories of persons. In the United Kingdom, a national network of Information Technology Centres (ITEC) attempts to teach data processing directly to young people with no occupational experience and little in the way of schooling. These courses also attempt to make up for the gaps in their education, while at the same time tackling certain general social matters, and are thus very long (1 600 hours). The young people are motivated and are frequently successful in their search for their first job. In the Netherlands, a centre run by the printing trade offers specialized courses aimed at adapting the technical skills of workers in that trade. The modern equipment at the centre's disposal makes it possible to duplicate actual working conditions. Some centres devote themselves to giving technical advice to firms (for example, in the United Kingdom on electrical installations and local water supply). In such cases the training of selected workers is limited to the solution of a specific technical problem and the course lasts for slightly over 200 hours.

3. Impact on employment

(i) The rate of placement in stable jobs for participants in these courses is, in general, between 70 and 80%. However, for young first job seekers the rate is only about 55%. It is estimated that two-thirds of the participants have been found jobs in small and medium-sized undertakings. This generally high rate of placement may be attributed to the following factors:

(a) The centres help to fill a number of gaps in the official training system.

(b) Thanks to their close contacts with firms and systematic market monitoring, they are able to identify new areas of occupational activity in which there is a shortage of labour, and their programmes are drawn up accordingly.

(c) The content and duration of their courses are generally determined by the fact that the attempt to impart a wide range of theoretical knowledge which serves as a basis for other courses imparting practical skills, while overlapping into related non-technical fields which provide the participants with a degree of mobility.

(ii) Placement problems arise with persons distinctly beyond the average age of the participants (30 to 35), whom it is difficult to retrain in the use of the new technologies.

(iii) As regards the creation of new undertakings in the hotel and catering trade, and technical assistance to undertakings and small commercial firms, the centres stated that 70% of those who passed the courses managed to set up their own business in the following year, thus creating, on average, six to seven new jobs per undertaking.

Evaluating the interaction between working and living conditions

The Four-Year Programme (1985–88) of the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions.

Between now and the end of 1988, the activities of the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions will be crystallizing around the main lines of its new four-year programme of work. That is significant in itself; but worthy of even closer attention is the new approach reflected in the guidelines and themes selected as the basis for the foundation's work in 1985. The programme points to the foundation's desire to take a broader and more unified approach to living and working conditions. But this should be seen less as a break with the past than the acceleration of a more recently-evolved trend.

The background

Established in 1975[1] but fully operational only since 1977, the foundation was set an ambitious array of objectives (see box).

The task of the foundation

The foundation is responsible for developing and pursuing ideas on the medium and long-term improvement of living and working conditions and to identify factors leading to change.

Its task is to contribute to the planning and establishment of better living and working conditions through actions designed to increase and disseminate knowledge likely to assist that development, particularly with relation to:

(i) man at work;
(ii) the organization of work, particularly job design;
(iii) problems specific to certain categories of worker;
(iv) long-term aspects of improvement of the environment;
(v) distribution of human activities in space and in time.

Clearly, the foundation could not hope to meet all its preset goals in the first years of its life. Its first four-year programme (1977–80), therefore, gave priority to the study of working conditions, which was also given pride of place in the second four-year programme for the period 1981–84. This was dictated largely by the rapid pace at which companies were embracing new technology and the major changes it was bringing about in working conditions.

The need to look closely at living conditions had already been brought home, however, by a survey into the effects of shift work on the family and social lives of workers. More recent research into topics such as transport, or the relationship between leisure time and working time, clearly attest to the foundation's growing concern with the whole quality of life.

The programme for 1985–88

The foundation's interest in living conditions referred to earlier comes through more clearly in its new four-year programme, but is by no means the only innovative aspect of it.

A programme in step with the changing times . . .

The foundation's concentrated study in its second four-year programme of the variety of changes which technological developments have brought in the workplace bears witness to its concern with the agents of change. The topic is far from exhausted.

The continuous and rapid pace of technological advance, and the variety of methods and fields of application, fully justify more research by the foundation to gain a deeper and constantly updated understanding of these developments.

The progressive decentralization of production structures is yet another major factor for change. Patterns of work, working conditions, labour relations and interpersonal relations in the workplace could all find themselves radically affected by the trend towards smaller, potentially more autonomous production or service units which are physically more remote from the decision-taking centres.

Nor has the last word yet been said in the debate on the reduction of working time. The concurrent development of part-time working, home-working, new and different forms of flexible working schedules, even the redistribution of working hours on an annual basis, are all harbingers of a different approach to organizing working time.

These developments will be bound to play some part in a reorganization of the environment, particularly the urban environment. The redefinition of the

[1] By Council Regulation No 1365/75 of 26. 5. 1975, O J L 139 of 30. 5. 1975.

role of the State, market forces and individuals as providers of services will also have its part to play, particularly as users, consumers and inhabitants become more involved in and take control of the management of their own physico-social environment.

. . . and with Community policies and central concerns

The foundation does not view its task as something apart from the acitivities of the Community institutions; it must take account of their needs and Community policies in the fields falling within its remit. There are many of these, including, for example, activities stemming from the social consequences of introducing new technologies, the reduction and reorganization of working time, and the environmental action programme; not forgetting either the second FAST programme (1984–87) nor the 1983–84

[illegible]

the aged.

. . . Reflected in the three major themes:

People at work,
Time, and
Environment

designed to maximize the adoption of an integrated approach to problems. It will enable the foundation to point out the relations between, for example, the effects of reorganizing working time on the organization of work, working conditions, the family and social lives of workers, and also on traffic and urban transport.

The combined effects of introducing new technologies and decentralizing workplaces will make themselves felt not only in the work itself, but will undoubtedly also have a spin-off effect on the urban environment and its various functions.

The transport and storage of dangerous and toxic substances affect not only those living in the vicinity, but also the workers who transport and handle them.

This new approach aimed at studying the consequences of the current upheavals on the quality of worklife, family and social life and environment will, from time to time, and more frequently than ever before, call for the use of interdisciplinary research, which will probably be more taxing, but will undoubtedly be more rewarding. Clearly, this will be used only where the subject justifies it, which will not be in every case.

Other general guidelines:

less descriptive, more dynamically

[illegible]

to stem through legislating

case, for example.

The organizational structure of the foundation

The foundation is administered by an administrative board comprised of representatives from the national governments, employers and workers organizations from the Member States and the Commission of the European Communities. Each group has one representative for each Member State except for the Commission which has three representatives in all, one of whom is the chairman.

This organizational structure is carried through into the functioning of the foundation. From the adoption of the annual and four-year programmes by the administrative board right through to the evaluation of studies, all the groups are automatically involved at all stages of the research.

Day-to-day management of the foundation's activities is the responsibility of the director of the foundation, assisted by an assistant director.

People at work

This segment contains three principal objectives:

1. To take account of a discernible trend towards decentralization in manufacturing and service industries, and the support of Community and national public agencies for small and medium-sized busi-

[illegible]

new technologies — expanding and enriching the old way of working — or by the appearance of new ways of working, or the expansion of what had previously been comparatively marginal developments, from home-working (with particular emphasis on telecommuting), via the transformation of wage-earning jobs into self-employed occupations, to permanent weekend working.

3. To take account of developments in labour relations particularly where they stem from the need to involve workers more closely in defining how the work, and their own workstation, should be organized in

order to smooth the introduction of new technology into a company, or as a means of attaining other goals such as improved product quality. The foundation will also be looking at the specific issues this raises for management.

Time

Few people can be unaware of how far their working time impinges on their leisure time, not only in quantitative, but also in qualitative, terms. Time will therefore be a leading topic of concern as the nexus between working conditions and living conditions.

The outstanding features of the time issue are the trend towards an ever-shorter working hours and increased leisure opportunity; looked at more closely, there are three other key issues involved:

(i) the unequal distribution of working time and 'free' time between individuals and groups, and throughout life;

(ii) the poor articulation of working time and 'free' time between, for example, members of the same family, or between services and a proportion of their users;

(iii) the extent to which work 'eats into' free time e.g. time spent commuting.

All of which illustrate the need for a more rational organization of time and research into time-saving – not just for companies, but also for workers and their families. The excess of 'free' time which non-workers have on their hands, (which is as often as not 'enforced' leisure) also raises the question of how that 'free' time should be put to use to help such people become productive and integrate them into the social and economic life of the country. We have, therefore, to examine how solidarity between those with too much free time, and between them and people with too little free time, might be made to mesh together, beyond any institutional forms of solidarity.

The environment

The factors which may produce changes in the organization of work in the widest meaning of the term, such as the evolutionary development of industry and the service trades, technological advance and the increased flexibility of working hours, are unlikely not to leave their mark on the organization and management of the human environment which, on all the evidence, occupies a central role in the organization of the time.

It seems reasonable to expect that the combined effect of these different factors will be to modify society's transport needs, foster new means of communication and lead to a restructuring and redistribution of the industrial and commercial, administrative and domestic environment. The foundation will be approaching this aspect through a number of exploratory studies on the theme of new technologies and the urban environment.

Closely linked to this is the problem of the renewal and social and economic diversification of inner-city areas. Innovations in technology have opened the door for the non-polluting smaller businesses to flood back to our town and city centres.

Within this general theme, we shall also be concerning ourselves with ways in which active solidarity can help to improve living conditions for socially disadvantaged groups such as senior citizens, the unemployed and single parent families, as well as the contribution of voluntary organizations to improving the environment.

In this latter field, the foundation will be pursuing and broadening its current research into the transport, handling and storage of non-nuclear waste. It will also be studying the impact of biotechnology on the environment and land development.

The programme outlined above shows that the ambitious scheme of work set for itself by the foundation over the next four years fully measures up to the objectives set for it. Clearly, it is very much a broad framework to accomodate the annual programmes which will specify the research to be undertaken according to the available budget appropriations.

No one should be misled by the very general terms in which the new programme is couched, nor by this outline of it, which can do no more than scratch the surface. A look behind the superficial appearances will reveal a will to take the fullest account possible of all facets of a society in the throes of upheaval, not just individual instances however important, and to study them, not in isolation but as part of an interdependent whole.

Alain Coeffard

The Foundation's four-year programme for 1985-88, together with its preceding four-year and annual programmes and a list of publications, are available from:

European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions
Loughlinstown House
Shankill
Co. Dublin
Ireland.

The Cedefop work programme 1985

The Treaty of Rome itself charged the Commission, working with the Member States, to develop a common vocational training policy for the Community. Since 1975, the Community has been able to benefit from the technical support of a specialist institution – the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (Cedefop) – in implementing its agreed common work programme. This article first recalls the main features of the common vocational training policy, and then describes the support which Cedefop will be offering over the coming year. Obviously, this article can only give a short overview of the work which Cedefop is carrying out, but a fuller picture of Cedefop's activities can be obtained from their annual report.

The common vocational training policy

The Community's approach to vocational training policy was first set out in detail in the Council Decision of 2 April 1963.[1] Since then it has been progressively developed in a series of further agreements, notably the twin Council Resolutions of 2 June and 11 July 1983.[2] In essence the implementation of a common Community strategy in this vitally important area – where social and economic policy meet – is now proceeding along three main axes.

First, the preparation of young people for adult and working life has long been a top priority for the Community. It is a central element in the Education Action Programme adopted by the Council in 1976, as of the updated vocational training strategy for the 1980s agreed in 1983. From now on, 75% of the resources of the European Social Fund are to be spent on young people under 25. Though the greatest attention has been given to 15-19 year-olds who have left school but not yet found stable employment, in recent years the Community has been broadening its activities to include:

(i) action within the period of compulsory schooling, for example to improve educational and vocational guidance and to promote equality of opportunity for girls;

(ii) continuing education and training, both for the under-25 age-group and indeed throughout working life.

A more recent concern is with the impact of the new information technologies upon education, training and employment. A basic framework for action was agreed by the Council of Ministers in 1983, and a major Community programme of work is now under way. Its aims are to ensure that the Community has the human resources it needs to compete internationally in an age of rapid technological change; to open up appropriate education and training opportunities for those whose jobs are directly affected by technological change; to try to ensure that no groups are excluded from access to the new 'technological culture'; and to maximize the benefits which the new technologies can bring as teaching media, for example for the disabled or housebound.

Thirdly, the Community maintains a continuing interest in promoting a fairer – and therefore more efficient – distribution of training opportunities, in particular to help girls and women to overcome the serious structural problems they confront on the labour market. The Community has also felt it right to safeguard certain basic rights for others in our society – such as the disabled, and migrant workers and their families – who have historically been disadvantaged, in education, training and employment terms.

The work of Cedefop

In February 1975 the Council of Ministers approved a Regulation[3] establishing the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training. The role of Cedefop, which is located in Berlin, is to:

(i) assist the Commission in encouraging at Community level the promotion and development of vocational training and continuing education;

(ii) compile documentation comprising, among others, progress reports and recent research studies in relevant fields;

(iii) contribute to the further development and coordination of research in relevant fields;

(iv) foster the exchange of information and experience;

(v) disseminate information and documentation;

[1] OJ 63/1338 of 20. 4. 1963.
[2] OJ C 166 of 25. 6. 1983 and C 193 of 20. 7. 1983.
[3] OJ L 39 of 13. 2. 1975.

Preparation of young people for working life

(vi) encourage and support initiatives facilitating concerted action in solving vocational training problems.

In fulfilling these responsibilities, Cedefop works in three main ways:

(i) through a major work programme of studies, conferences and other exchanges, centred on the key elements of the Community's vocational training policy;

(ii) through its information and publications work;

(iii) through its documentation and library service.

The main work programme

A major theme for Cedefop's work in 1985 – which is International Youth Year – will be the preparation of young people for adult and working life. Current activities in this area include a network of projects linking the vocational training of young people directly with the process of job creation, and a detailed investigation into the costs and financing of youth training programmes in the Community. Cedefop will also be working with the Commission to prepare a progress report for the Council of Ministers on the commitments towards youth training set out in the Resolution of 11 July 1983.

Though top priority continues to be given to young people leaving school, especially those facing difficulties in entering the labour market, Cedefop has also been developing its work in the area of continuing education and training, following a major conference in 1984. It is increasingly recognized that, particularly because of the speed and scale of technological and economic change, a major role of programmes for young people is to equip them to enter, perhaps rather later in working life, courses of further training or education. This is one of the key issues which Cedefop, as a focal point for reflection at Community level, and one in which governments, the social partners, the Commission, academics and practitioners are all involved, is well able to explore.

The impact of technological change is the second of the Centre's major preoccupations for 1985. Again, Cedefop is particularly well-placed to offer technical assistance to the Commission and to the Member States in this area, because of its frequent contacts with all the various interests concerned, including both management and workers' representatives. During 1985, Cedefop will be working with the Commission and the Member States to develop systematic arrangements for monitoring technological developments and analysing their implications for the structure of occupations and for vocational training. As it can take several years to set up a new vocational training course, the value of trying to look ahead in this way

Training for those whose jobs are affected by technological change

Vocational training of people with disabilities

is unquestionable. And as the pace of change varies between and within Member States, while the main trends are common to all, it obviously makes sense for this work to be coordinated at Community level.

Thirdly, a number of Cedefop projects explore means of improving access to vocational training for girls and women, and for other groups which have traditionally faced difficulties in securing vocational training opportunities. Thus Cedefop will be assisting the Commission in following-up the ideas generated on equality of opportunity for girls and women during a Community conference held during the Irish Presidency in 1984, and a workshop looking at the needs of the disabled is planned, with Cedefop support, for 1985.

Cedefop is also giving a new priority to the vocational training of people with physical or mental disabilities, in support of the Commission's programme to promote the social integration of disabled people. In June Cedefop will organize in Berlin a seminar of representatives of the social partners to discuss the work so far undertaken at Community level in this field, and to advise the Commission on priorities for its future work, with particular reference to the contribution which the social partners can make to the vocational training and employment of the disabled. The seminar will therefore also contribute to the orientation of Cedefop's future activity in favour of disabled people.

A major new instrument to assist in the implementation of the common vocational training strategy is the new programme for study visits for vocational training specialists in the Community. This programme, to be administered by Cedefop, comes into operation in 1985. It is aimed at specialists working in the field, but who can serve as 'multipliers' by making the results of their studies available within their home country and – through Cedefop – more widely in the Community. This offers an exciting additional dimension to Cedefop's existing information and publications work.

Cedefop's information and publications work

All this activity can only be of value if people get to hear about it. That is why Cedefop devotes considerable effort to its information and publications work. This is not simply a question of translating documents, though that is of course essential. It is also necessary to present information from one locality so that it is comprehensible in other cultural, political and institutional contexts.

Cedefop has two regular publications, its newsletter *Cedefop News* (4 issues are planned for 1985) and the specialist journal *Vocational training* (due to appear 3 times this year). In addition there is a new periodical called *Cedefop Flash*, used for disseminating news about the Centre's activities rapidly and less formally. The scope for using audio-visual techniques for dissemination purposes is also being examined. Furthermore, Cedefop makes the results of specific projects as widely available as possible, by publishing research reports, conference proceedings and so on. Last but not least, each year the Centre's staff respond to hundreds of requests for information from people wishing to benefit from Cedefop's unique blend of expertise and experience.

Cedefop's documentation and library services

Finally, in 1985 Cedefop will be continuing to develop its arrangements for systematically exchanging material with other specialist institutions in the Community and elsewhere, and for making it available to as wide a public as possible. Arrangements for the computerization of the Centre's data-base are being studied.

Conclusions

1985 is the 10th anniversary of the foundation of the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training. During these years the centre has had to respond to dramatic and often rapid change – the explosion in unemployment, notably amongst young people; the universal application of the new information and communications technologies in industry and commerce, and the public services; and the progressive enlargement of the Community, to name but three.

The Centre has developed a unique role, grounded in its experience and expertise, which enables it to offer invaluable technical assistance to the Commission and to the Member States in developing appropriate policy responses to the problems and the opportunities which the Community faces in the late 20th century. 1985 looks like being yet another busy and productive year for our Berlin colleagues, who can be contacted at:

Cedefop
Bundesallee 22
D-1000 Berlin 15
(letters to be addressed to Dr Ernst Piehl, Director).

Evaluation of health care

In late November 1984, Ministers for Health met to discuss cooperation at Community level on health-related problems, and within this broad framework considered the problem of cost-containment in the provision and organization of health services. As a basis for this the Commission, following a request of the Council, had prepared a working paper.[1]

The focus of this paper was not a comparison of expenditure in Member States but rather a discussion of efficiency and effectiveness in health care. This approach recognized the fact that levels of expenditure vary considerably between Member States and that this variation is not the main problem. Currently the problem concerning all Member States, and indeed all countries throughout the world, is to obtain better value for the money expended. This is essentially a matter of evaluating the use of resources and what is obtained in health and social terms for the money spent.

Evaluation

In the past any evaluation of health services generally relied on intuition and subjective assessments of whether a programme was useful. Health professionals, it was assumed, knew if they were achieving their objectives and success was often considered self-evident because some individuals were apparently cured. Most medical fields, however, have become increasingly numerate in recent years and quantitative methods have taken the place of subjective or intuitive judgements.

Formal evaluation of health care has largely developed over the last 30 years. One of the main factors which has stimulated the move towards this has been the growing awareness that resources available for health care are limited. In order, therefore, to provide the best services within financial constraints it has become necessary to assess how resources are being expended. Interest in evaluation has also been promoted because a wide variety of groups are concerned with determining the objectives of health care. The planning of health-care services now involves consumers and politicians as well as health professionals.

It is now more widely appreciated that simply building hospitals or health centres does not constitute a health service. A health service requires appropriately trained staff to perform specific tasks, usually working as a team in order to meet agreed objectives. In many countries it is now common to have health-care teams providing care for specific groups such as young children. Even in sophisticated hospitals it is important to build up team relationships between, for example, nurses, physiotherapists and doctors in order to achieve good results. Thus, the complexity of the health service has increased immeasurably in recent years.

The present emphasis on evaluation is also due in part to a spill-over from other fields. Operations research, a method of modelling a series of different procedures and then attempting to determine the optimum way to deploy them has been increasingly applied since the 1930s.

More recently, management science, concerned with determining how resources could be best expended, has come into its own. Programme budgeting has been attempted by various governments and involves allocating portions of a fixed budget and analysing whether there is an appropriate distribution of funds to achieve the aims of the scheme.

Efficiency and effectiveness

Evaluation is based mainly on rational thinking and on measurable data. It is not initiated to prove a particular point of view but with the aim of improving a particular activity. If evaluation is isolated from decision making it is meaningless and there is little value in undertaking evaluation if the findings are not fed back into the management process. Unfortunately decisions on new developments for health services are often initiated on emotional or political grounds without careful consideration of the consequences.

Evaluation studies are often neglected by health-services planners for a variety of reasons. First new programmes are initiated with an optimistic view that change inevitably leads to improvement. It is profoundly disappointing to be shown that a new form of treatment or management is actually no better than older procedures. The length of time required to obtain results has been cited as a factor against evaluation. Programmes may be so far advanced that any evaluation presenting a negative finding is ignored because commitment in terms of resources is already large and difficult to reverse. The programme may also have acquired a momentum of its own and the time taken to evaluate may be considered counter-productive.

Furthermore, evaluation in health-care programmes is more difficult than for other programmes. This stems partly from the confusion which surrounds the basic concepts. There are a number of different interpretations but two main views emerge. The first emphasizes the ability to achieve results (outcome) as the primary concern of evaluation and concentrates on assessing the effects or impact of a programme. It is concerned mainly with success or failure and tests the ability of a particular strategy to produce an effect. The second is concerned with the process and aims to provide information on its functioning. The concepts of process and outcome can also be considered in terms of efficiency and effectiveness.

[1] Cost-containment in the provision and organization of health services. Working Paper of the Commission (COM (84) 1652 final).

Thus one of the principal questions in any evaluation is the effectiveness of the care provided as measured in disease terms. At its simplest this questions whether the outcome of a particular form of care is better, the same or worse than an available alternative. However, it is also necessary to focus on other issues since the more effective regimen of care may be less acceptable to the patient, family, community, or health professionals. Clearly these 'secondary' issues are of lesser importance if the clinical effectiveness of one regimen is much greater than any other, but if the difference is small then choice may well be materially influenced, even determined, by such considerations. The other principal question is the efficiency of the process involved and this is most often expressed finally in terms of cost.

Social concepts

It is important for evaluation that objectives should be defined, the achievement of which can be measured by hard data. Some social scientists, however, dismiss this as being relatively unimportant and believe that evaluation should constitute an open-ended inquiry of a socio-anthropological nature. Furthermore they state that measurements and statistical data can only provide information on those parts of the programme which are measureable and that the most important features of a service, such as the quality of life, are difficult to measure. This point of view must be taken into consideration because, whilst not applying in all cases, it is relevant in certain cases.

No evaluation, however, is free of some subjective judgement. Objectivity is defined within the limits of the priorities set by, and the perception of, the evaluator. Decisions with regard to which information should be collected, the choice of samples, the selection of criteria, the relative weighting, and the methods of statistical treatment and presentation of results all involve value judgements. For successful evaluation, these judgements must be made explicit. The selection of criteria must be on as rational a basis as possible and data collected from the most appropriate available sources.

Clearly evaluation is not an easy task to undertake. It is often further complicated by the moral obligation to maintain the individual's privacy and the confidentiality of personal records. In certain circumstances evaluation may have harmful effects as for example when it induces health professio-

When resources are restricted, it is important to try and find out whether a particular programme or procedure really achieves the claimed objectives

nals to be over protective or to collect more information and supply more treatment than is necessary. The process of evaluation may also actually influence the outcome of a programme, through, for example, the Hawthorne effect.

However it is also clear that evaluation is essential to health services. In times of need, or when resources are restricted, it is even more important to try to find out whether a particular programme or procedure is of any use. Even when resources are plentiful it is important to determine whether a particular procedure or programme is efficient and effective and really achieves the claimed objectives. Only when adequate forms of evaluation are introduced into all health services will it be possible to develop more rational health-service structures and more appropriate forms of providing health care to populations.

Conclusions

The ideas expressed here are reflections from a book entitled *Evaluation of Health Care*[1] sponsored by the Commission and published in 1983.[1] The discussion of the Ministers for Health was very positive and they agreed upon the importance of continuing the exchange of views in areas relative to manpower resources, comparative treatment costs and health measurement.

The Community can best be considered as having 10 different systems of health services provision. Some similarities exist but these are small in comparison to the differences. What is common to the majority, if not all, is a concern to control costs in such a way as to improve the return on expenditure and thereby improve the service to patients. Formal or objective evaluation is the prerequisite for this.

[1] *Evaluation of Health Care*, ed. Holland, W. W. Oxford University Press, Oxford 1983.

Social security for migrant workers: sickness benefits and renal dialysis

A decision recently adopted by the Administrative Commission of the European Communities on social security for migrant workers should assist persons who suffer from a condition requiring regular and continual renal dialysis, to move more freely around the Community.

In the language of the social security regulations which govern the application of social security sickness benefit schemes, and hence entitlement to medical treatment, to employed and self-employed persons and members of their families who move within the Community, such persons who make prior arrangements to obtain short-term renal dialysis treatment during a stay in another Member State, are to be treated as persons whose condition neccessitates immediate benefits during that stay.

What consequences does this have in practice for employed or self-employed persons or members of their families in the Community, who suffer from a condition requiring regular renal dialysis?

The EEC Regulations referred to above, Regulations (EEC) Nos 1408/71 and 574/72, (see *Social Europe* Special Issue 1983, p. 33), contain provisions which govern the application of the social security sickness benefit schemes of the Member States of the Community according to whether a person both works and resides in one Member State, given that a person is to be covered by the sickness benefit scheme of the Member State in which he or she resides, although the ultimate cost of any medical treatment provided will be borne by the Member State in which a person is insured.

By 'being covered' is meant that a person can apply for and obtain health services in accordance with the system prevailing in the Member State in which he or she lives.

When persons go to stay for a relatively short period in a Member State in which they neither live nor work, for example, on holiday, the regulations provide that they should be entitled to any urgent medical treatment that they may require during that period, to be provided without question by the Member State in which they are currently staying. In order to facilitate the operation of such an arrangement, persons must obtain a completed Form E111 from their social security institution before leaving their country of residence.

Crucial to the position of persons requiring renal dialysis, in the availability of this arrangement, is that in order to come within the scope of this provision, the person concerned should be suffering from a condition necessitating immediate benefits; in other words, requiring emergency medical treatment. A person requiring renal dialysis might be thought to easily meet this condition; yet when read in conjunction with other provisions in the regulation dealing with sickness benefits, it becomes clear that when a person goes to another Member State already suffering from a condition requiring medical attention, and makes calls upon the medical services of that State, a presumption operates to the effect that, notwithstanding the issue of a Form E111, such persons are presumed to have gone to that Member State specifically to seek medical treatment. As such a course of action requires the prior authorization of the social security institution of the Member State ultimately responsible for the costs of that treatment, the consequences for the person concerned can be financially damaging as he or she may find themselves responsible for all the medical charges incurred.

As a consequence of these provisions, persons requiring regular renal dialysis would have been well-advised to obtain prior authorization even for a relatively short-term arrangement for the provision of dialysis during a stay abroad.

This arrangement was seen to operate unfairly in the case of persons suffering from this type of condition. Furthermore such persons should not have their freedom of movement impeded by unreasonable obstacles and should, *a fortiori*, be encouraged to make proper arrangements to receive dialysis abroad, prior to departure, and not be penalized for so doing.

The Administrative Commission examined the possibility of permitting the latter type of arrangement to be nevertheless treated as the provision of ur-

gent medical treatment, thereby including it within the scope of the procedural and administrative system of which the issue of the Form E111 forms a part.

On 24 February 1984 the Administrative Commission adopted Decision No 123[1] which expresses the intention of the Member States of the Community to treat the provision of renal dialysis treatment to an employed or self-employed person, or a member of his or her family, during a stay in a Member State, as the provision of immediately necessary treatment, not-withstanding the existence of prior arrangements made to ensure the availability of such treatment, provided that the dialysis is required as part of a pre-existing and continuing course of dialysis, and that the stay in that Member State is for other than medical reasons.

Persons who suffer from a condition requiring this form of treatment on a continual and regular basis, and who arrange through their local dialysis centre, or otherwise as the case may be, to receive short-term dialysis during a stay in another Member State, may, where the stay is being undertaken for reasons other than medical, now travel with no more than the Form E111 issued by the appropriate social security institution in the same way as any other person.

Member States have instituted arrangements to facilitate the application for such short-term dialysis in another Member State, which include the availability of lists of renal dialysis centres in other Member States, and standard application forms. These arrangements may be administered by the local dialysis centre itself, or by the social security institution responsible for administering the sickness benefit scheme of the Member State concerned.

Kathleen F. Lee

[1] OJ C 203 of 2. 8. 1984; p. 13.

Educating migrant workers' children

The Commission has long played an active part in promoting the education and training of migrant workers' children. Starting with a brief overview of the Community instruments and measures available to it, this article reviews the Commission's activities in this field with a summary of projects currently under way.

Community instruments

In February 1984, the Commission forwarded to both Council and Parliament its first progress report[1] on the implementation of Directive 77/486 (education of migrant workers' children).[2] Concurrently with that, it entered into an exchange of letters with the Member States aimed at clarifying aspects of the directive's implementation which it felt to be uncertain or incomplete. This first report covered the 1980/82 school years; the second will take the 1984/85 school year as its reference year. The Ministers for Social Affairs have discussed their position on the Commission report at their June 1985 meeting.

Action programme for migrant workers and their families

On 1 March 1985 the Commission addressed a Communication to the Council concerning a Community policy on migration.[3] This will lead to fresh proposals to the Council both to further ease the free movement of workers within the Community and to assist workers and their families from non-Community countries to assimilate more easily into Community society.

Action programme in the field of education Pilot schemes concerned with the education of migrant workers' children

In April 1984, the Commission reported to the Council[4] on the progress of the pilot schemes launched in 1976 in response to the Resolution of the Council and the Ministers for Education meeting within the Council of 9. 2. 1976. The Ministers for Education adopted the principal conclusions of the report at their meeting of 4 June 1984.

The pilot schemes currently under way can be grouped into five broad categories.

1. Reception teaching

In October 1984 a pilot scheme was set up with the assistance of the Belgian Minister for Education (Dutch language) to provide reception facilities for immigrant children in the Dutch-speaking schools of Brussels with simultaneous teaching of French and their mother tongue. This programme of trilingual education responds to the practical needs of immigrants in a city where a knowledge of the national languages is an essential requirement of working life.

2. Educational reintegration

The Commission is laying the foundations of a pilot scheme in Greece aimed at developing educational structures and methods to assist the children of returning Greek families to reintegrate into Greek schools. Three objectives have already been set: to improve the children's knowledge of Greek, to adapt their existing body of knowledge to the curricula of Greek maintained schools, and to continue tuition in the language of the country of emigration.

3. Teaching the mother tongue and culture

The pilot schemes over the period 1976 to 1982 centred on the teaching of the mother tongue and culture in primary schools. It was seen as essential to assure that this teaching continued, and that its status, teaching methods and content were consolidated in secondary education. These goals are to be achieved with the help of five different experimental schemes, each with its own specific aims.

In Belgian Limburg, a scheme covering both general and technical secondary schools will permit examination of the problems of assuring continuity from primary to secondary education.

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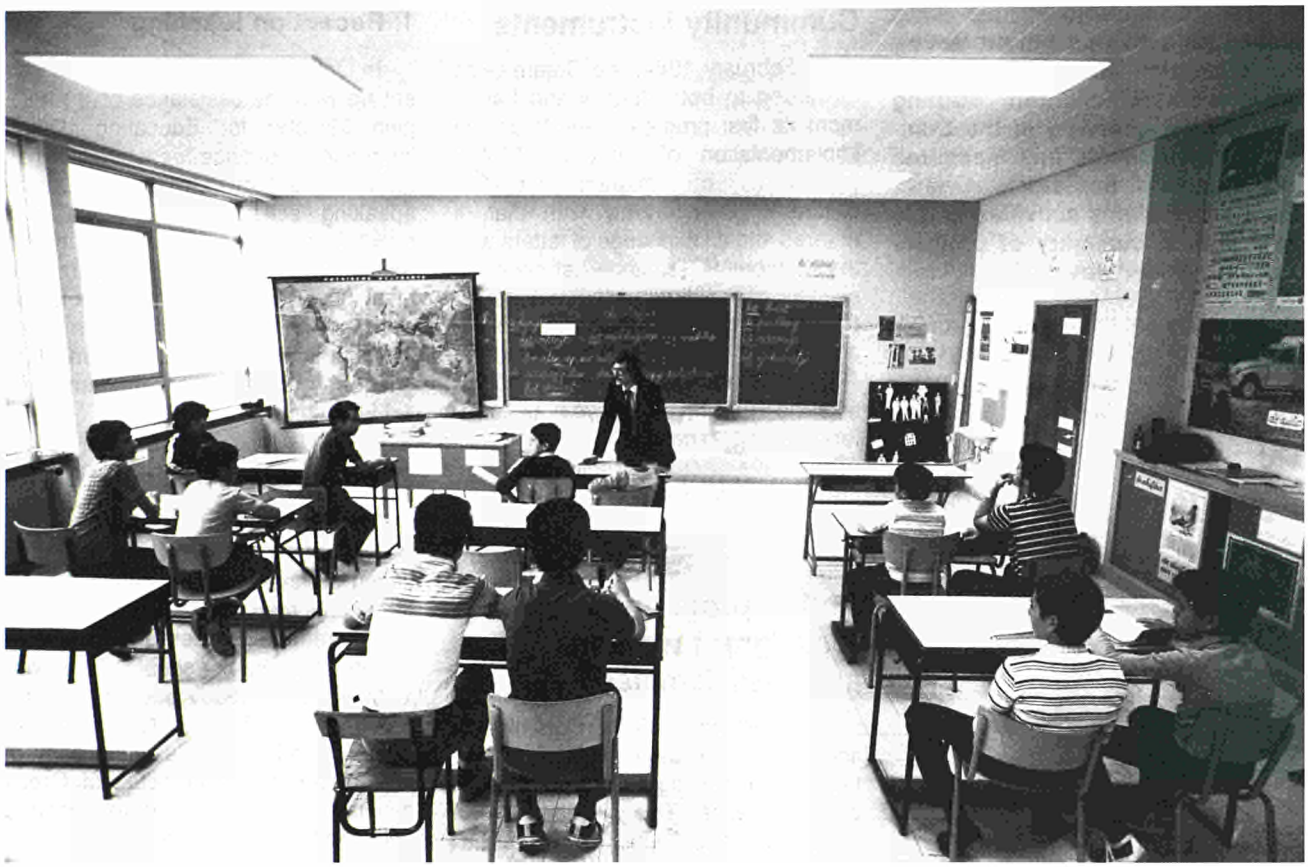
[1] COM (84) 54 final.
[2] OJ L 199 of 6. 8. 1977.
[3] COM (85) 48 final.
[4] COM (84) 244 final.



Teaching the language of the host country

A scheme in Copenhagen deals with the educational and vocational guidance of ethnic minority children in the final three years of the 'Folkeskole' (primary/lower secondary school). Mother tongue teachers provide an essential bridge with the family in guiding the choices of immigrant children.

A broad-scale scheme is under way in the Dutch lower secondary vocational education (LBO) sector in Amsterdam, pursuing two aims simultaneously: to improve access to vocational education for children of non-Dutch origin, particularly by rewriting the teaching materials for general and specialized technical training; and to gauge the importance of the mother tongue in vocational education.

The pilot scheme being carried out in lower secondary schools by the Belgian Ministry of Education (French language) is combined with remedial teaching of French and cross-cultural courses aimed at all pupils.

In the United Kingdom, a number of education authorities have decided to run courses in teaching the mother tongue and culture to Italian, Urdu and Punjabi speaking immigrant children. These foreign languages form part of the normal curriculum.

4. Production of teaching materials

The project to develop teaching aids for Italian primary school pupils in France, French-speaking Belgium and Luxembourg is nearing completion. Book 1 of TRA NOI was ratified during the 1983/84 school year; Book 2 was published in autumn 1984 and Books 3 and 4 are in preparation. In addition to school textbooks, the Istituto della Enciclopedia Italiana, which is heading the project, is also producing an accompanying teacher's guide, games for classroom activities and progress testing, source sheets for pupils and teachers, and audiovisual cassettes on ethnic culture.

Parallel with this, a working party was set up to develop an approach to teaching the Italian language and culture throughout the 10 years of compulsory schooling in the Federal Republic of Germany. A similar project based on the language needs and attainments of Greek pupils in German schools was launched jointly with the Greek and German educational authorities. The Greek Government is to set up a national institute to develop learning packages for Greek children overseas.

The Paris/Batignolles teacher-training college and the University of London's music department have combined to run a cross-cultural music education project. They will be producing a series of cassettes aimed at the 3 to 9 age-group, containing recordings of songs, music and dances from the regions of Europe and ethnic minority groups in the Community. The project will be one of the Community's leading contributions to International Music Year. A teacher's handbook will accompany the cassettes for teachers who are not musicians.

The project to devolop learning materials for teaching the Turkish language and culture to secondary school pupils in Germany, run by the Berlin Ministry of Education with support from the Federal German Government and the European Commission, is also flourishing. The first books in the series are already in use. Book 7 (for children in the 7th grade), accompanied by a full German translation has been published recently to widespread acclaim. Books 8 and 9 are in preparation.

5. Diffusion of teaching materials and information; teacher training

The Linguistic Minorities Project run under the auspices of the United Kingdom's Ministry of Education has played a central role in making the educational world more aware of the multi-cultural, linguistically varied makeup of the school population in the country's large towns and cities. The Commission has been associated with this project through the medium of the London Institute of Education (LINC).

In eight of France's district educational areas, the Ministry of Education has set up a pilot scheme in cross-cultural training for nursery and primary school teachers with ethnic minority and gipsy children in their classes. The experiment has pointed up the effectiveness and desirability of continuous training for both French and foreign educators.

6. Comparative assessment

Stage two of the comparative assessment study conducted jointly by the ALFA group (the Universities of Essen and Landau) and CREDIF (Centre de Recherche et d'Etude pour la Diffusion du Français — Centre for research and studies for dissemination of the French language) came to end in 1984. The reports covering the period 1980 to 1983 are available to research and teacher training establishments on request. Stage three of the assessment study will cover the school years 1984 to 1987.

Lucien Jacoby

Employment and unemployment in the Community: some brief facts and trends

Employment in the Community has been a major casualty of the low growth in the European economy over the last 10 years and has suffered particularly in the recession of the early 1980s. From a level of over 108 million in 1973 it fell during the recession following the first oil price shock but recovered during the later years of the 1970s to reach a peak of 110 million in 1980. Since then it has declined to an estimated 106 million in 1984 – almost down to its level of 1968.

At the same time, the labour force was expanding by an average of 0.6% a year throughout the 1970s, in parallel with the expansion in the population of working age. In the early 1980s however, their paths began to diverge as the participation rate declined and the growth of the labour force slowed (to 0.2% in 1983 and 0.4% in 1984). It has been estimated that in the absence of this slowdown, the 1984 labour force would have been larger by about 2 million workers.

Despite the failure of Europe to create net new employment over the last 10-15 years, the labour market is not static and a number of structural changes in employment and the labour force have been taking place.

One notable feature has been the changing role of women on the labour market. The last 20 years have seen a slow but steady rise in the proportion of women of working age who are working or actively seeking work (female participation rate). This has risen from just over 44% in 1970 to nearly 50% in 1984. Female employment has risen both in absolute terms and as a proportion of total employment, from 37 million (34%) in 1973 to 40 million (38%) in 1984. By the same token, male employment has fallen sharply (Table 1). Evidence from the Labour Force Sample Surveys suggests that a large proportion of this additional female employment is part-time work, particularly among married women. In the Community, results for the 1983 survey indicate that 27% of working women are in part-time jobs, as many as 44% in Denmark, 41% in the United Kingdom, down to 9% in Italy.

The implications of the decline in the level of employment in Europe can be deduced from a comparison of:

(a) the activity-rate, which indicates broadly that proportion of the working-age population which is either working or seeking employment, and

(b) the employment-population ratio, which indicates that proportion of the working-age population which actually has a job.

In 1973, the employment-population ratio was nearly 65% and the overall activity rate was 66.5% (the unemployment rate at the time, although not measured on exactly the same basis, was 2.5%). By 1984, the employ-

Table 1: Employment in the Community

		1973	1984 [1]
Total employment (million)		108	106
of which: males		71	66
females		37	40
Share in labour force (%)	M	66	62
	F	34	38
Activity rate [2] (%)	T	66.5	64.5
	M	88.5	80.2
	F	45.5	49.5
Employment-population ratio [3] (%)	Total	64.5	57.0

Sources: Eurostat, OECD, Commission Services for 1984.

[1] Estimate.

[2] Labour force as a proportion of the population aged 15-64 of the same sex.

[3] Total employment as a proportion of the total population aged 15-64.

ment-population ratio had fallen to 57% and the activity ratio to 64.5%. If, in the Community, the employment-population ratio had been maintained at 65%, total employment would have been nearly 12 million higher. In broad terms, this represents the true loss of jobs in the Community over the last 10 years, and is, coincidentally, very close to the volume of unemployment at the beginning of 1985, at 13.7 million. The fall in the activity rate of 2 percentage points over the period, is the result of a combination of factors including not only employment policy measures to remove various groups from the labour market, but also the effect of discouragement as people do not attempt to look for work which they do not believe is available. Had this not been the case, the level of unemployment in the Community would have been considerably higher than its current 13.7 million.

The trends in sectoral employment in the Community have also followed a progressive trend.

As can be seen from the table, the secular decline in agricultural employment has continued, although this has been at a slower pace than in the 1960s and early 1970s as the numbers remaining in agricultural employment reached relatively low levels, and as the number of alternative jobs in industry and services have been cut back or failed to appear as a result of the recession. Nevertheless, the drift of employment from both agriculture and industry into services continued, albeit at a somewhat slower pace in the last five years. The majority of the employment losses in industry have been from manufacturing industry, a trend which has now been continuing for some 25 years, the volume of employment in energy industries and construction – which make up the rest of industrial employment – remaining relatively stable. Among the services sectors, the big gains have been in finance and insurance and in Community services, which includes public sector employment. Trades, restaurants and hotels have risen slightly in most countries, but transport and communications have

Table 2: Sectoral employment trends

	1973		1984 [1]	
	Number (000)	Share	Number	Share
Agriculture	10.531	10%	7.000	6%
Industry	44.072	40%	36.100	34%
Services	53.912	50%	63.700	60%

Source: Eurostat, Commission Services for 1984.
[1] Estimate.

The majority ob job losses in industry were mainly in manufacturing

shown mixed results, although no country has registered big movements in this sector.

The virtual stagnation of employment growth over the last few years largely explains the present high and still rising level of unemployment, but some of the effects on different sectors of the labour market are not so apparent. In the Community, the unemployment rate in January 1985 was 11.8%. Among the Member States, 7 now have unemployment rates above 11%, reaching as high as 18.0% in Ireland. One country has an unemployment rate just below 10%, and two, for statistical reasons which affect their figures, have extremely low rates. After some months during which the rise in unemployment in the Community had begun to slow down, the rise in January 1985 could not be explained solely by the severe weather, as the seasonally-adjusted figures have risen markedly in several countries again.

In the Community as a whole, the unemployment rate for women is higher than for men, at 12.5% compared with 11.3%, although total male unemployment, at 8.0 million, is some 50% higher than female unemployment (5.6 million) since the male labour force is larger than that for females.

The female unemployment rate and share of women in total unemployment varies widely between different Member States, mainly as a result of different institutional factors which encourage or discourage women from registering as unemployed. Five Member States have a share which is considerably above the Community average (41%), in a range from 46% – 54%, two have a share just below, and three have a female share well below (25% – 33%), while female unemployment rates range from 2.6% to 20.4%.

The youth unemployment rate in the Community is almost twice that of total unemployment, and about 3 times that of adults.[1] In January 1985, 37.4% of total registered unemployment was of young people aged between 15 and 24 years. Although this represents a fall of some 3 percentage points since September 1984, a month when unemployment is usually highest among young people, it is virtually unchanged since January 1984, when it was 37.5%. This indicates that the youth unemployment problem is just as acute now as it was when the Commission presented its Communication on the Promotion of Employment for Young People (Com(83) 211 final) in April 1983, and demonstrates the lack of impact which special employment measures, aimed at combatting youth unemployment have so far had. The ent of the 'baby-boom' effect in the early 1980s will reduce the number of new entrants to the labour market, but the youth employment problem will not disappear. This large cohort of unemployed people with little or no real work-experience will simply move up the age-groups over time. The very low figures for youth unemployment for some Member States are a reflection of the wide disparities in the practices for counting unemployed young people. In some countries first-time job seekers are not counted as unemployed, while in others, young people participating in training schemes or special employment measures are excluded.

As pointed out in the Commission communication on action to combat long-term unemployment (Com(84) 484 final), there are over 4 million people in the Community who have been unemployed for more than one year, and the problem is worsening. It was estimated that in October 1984 39% of the total unemployed had been unemployed for more than one year, and 21% for more than two years. These figures are certainly much higher now, since an increasing proportion of workers now risk remaining unem-

Table 3: Registered unemployment in the Community
January 1985 (not seasonally adjusted)

	B	DK	D	F	GR	IRL	I	L	NL	UK	EC
Total unemployment rate %	15.0	11.0	9.7	11.2	3.0	18.1	13.7	1.9	14.1	12.6	11.8
Female unemployment rate	20.4	12.3	9.9	13.1	3.3	15.2	18.8	2.6	13.2	9.7	12.5
Share of young people (15-24) in total unemployment	34.6	25.2	24.6[1]	39.5	:	31.0	47.9	47.1	37.7	38.5	37.4
Share of long-term unemployed in total [2]	58.9	5.9	32.8	26.9	:	40.9	46.4	:	54.2	39.6	38.8

Source: Eurostat
[1] December 1984.
[2] Unemployed for more than 12 months, October 1984.

ployed for a long time by the fact of becoming unemployed at all. Although job placements in the Community are estimated to exceed 10 million a year, this is far below the level of labour turnover which would be consistent with a buoyant, flexible labour market able to adapt to changing demands.

Andrew Chapman

[1] Data from the 1983 Labour Force Sample Survey updated for April 1984 gives the following unemployment rates:
Under 25 years – 20.8 %
Over 25 years – 6.7 %
Total – 9.4 %
References – Eurostat statistics:
- Unemployment, monthly bulletin 2-1985,
- Employment and Unemployment 4-1984,
- Employment and Unemployment, Yearbook 1985,
- Labour Force Sample Survey 1983, Publication 1985.

Part Two

Analyses, debates, studies

Choosing an occupation: necessity and illusions

'No less intelligence is required to learn to ply a needle than to learn physics'

Poulain de la Barre, 'De l'égalité des deux sexes', 1673.

Widening the scope of women's occupational choice

The phenomenon by which jobs are sex-stereotyped into 'typically masculine' and 'typically feminine' occupations, and the need to broaden the avenues of choice open to women, have been dealt with in previous articles of *Social Europe*.

The gist was that, despite the wide variety (and in some cases, sharp contrasts) in the overall picture of the female workforce throughout the Community, certain patterns could be identified.

1. In almost every Member State, the total women's labour force participation rate has risen fairly consistently over the past decade, leading many observers to talk in terms of an irreversible trend.
2. This apparently positive quantitative advance was not accompanied by diversification of the type of work done, nor in the sectors of industry in which women are employed. The labour market remains massively segregated in two ways:

Vertical segregation: women are largely confined to middle-grade, semi or low-skilled jobs.

Horizontal segregation: they are traditionally employed in a *limited* number of industries or areas of economic activity (principally the service trades, but also the textile and clothing industries) or occupational orders (saleswoman, secretary, caregiver, clerical employee . . .).

This sex-segregation is itself a vehicle of economic sex differentials adverse to women (pay, type of work, working hours, employment contract, etc. . .) and also of the assumption by men and women of traditional gender roles in their family and working lives. But far from gradually withering away, it has fed off the economic crisis to reappear with renewed vigour in every branch of economic life and every occupational order with a promising future as a job-growth area, and where the rapid pace of technological advance is likely to cast the less qualified, less career-attached, less accommodating woman by the wayside.

The struggle is taking place in both the new and traditional occupational 'niches', where the possibility that anachronistic preconceptions will be reinforced is no longer in any doubt.

Women are traditionally employed in a limited number of industries

Regulatory action and positive actions[1]

The only way to nip this resurgence in the bud, and stop the emergence of new forms of sex-stereotyping before they start, is through a two-tier policy:

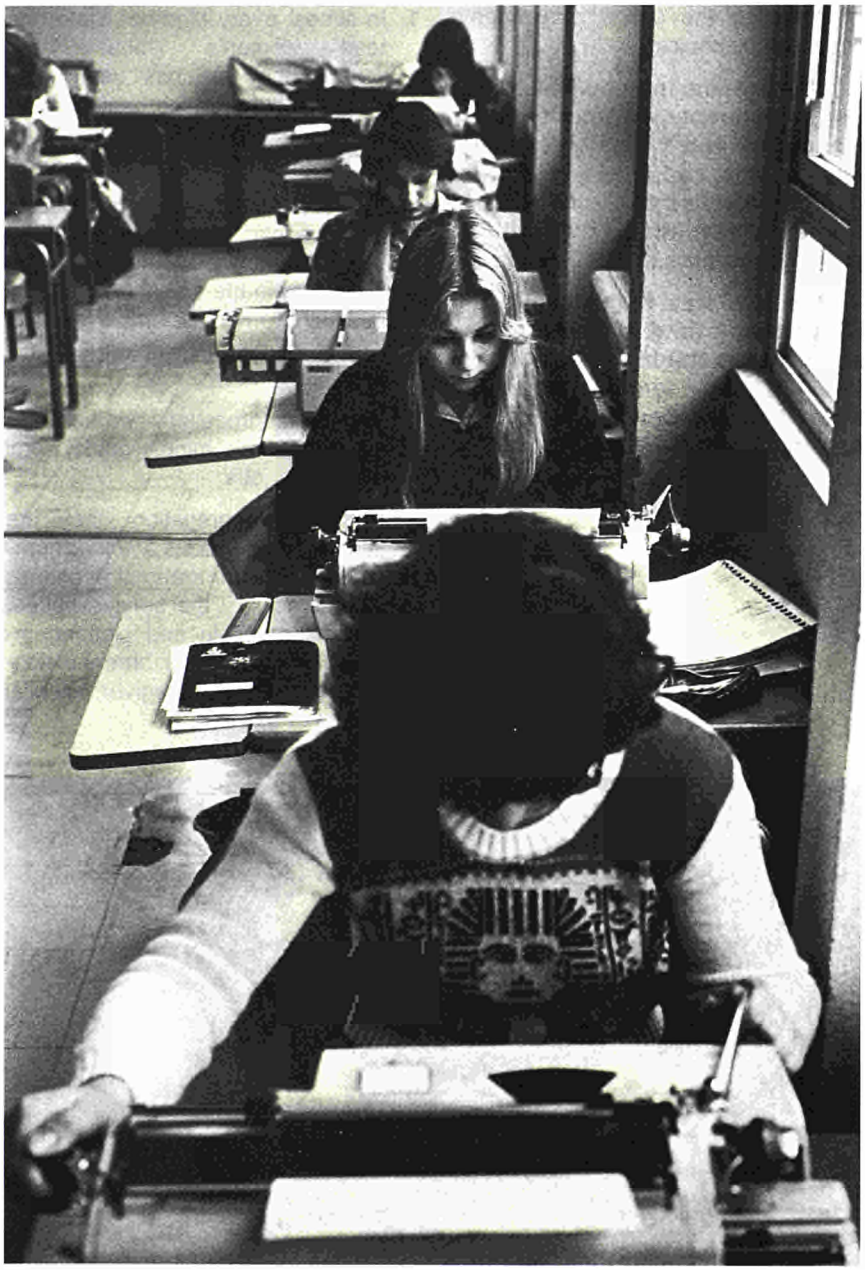
(i) firstly, through statutory guarantees of equal access to all forms of employment and occupational training;

(ii) secondly, experience having shown that sexual discrimination simply cannot be legislated out of existence, a strategy of actions must be evolved to encourage women to aim at all fields of expertise, all occupational orders and all levels of qualification, to broaden their horizons, and to develop their full potential.

The Commission has already laid the first stones for both. Article 4 of Directive 76/207/EEC of 9. 2. 1976 on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women, concerning access to employment, vocational training and working conditions[2] makes free access to all forms of employment and training without discrimination on the grounds of sex a mandatory obligation.

The Council Recommendation of 13. 12. 1984 concerning the promotion of positive action in favour of women[3] aims, *inter alia,* to encourage women to increase the rate of their labour force participation in those areas of working life in which women have so far been under-represented, particularly in the emerging technologies, and at all higher levels of functional responsibility.[4] One of the areas particularly singled out as a target for action was that of widening occupational choice.

Pending Council approval of the final version of the recommendation, the Commission decided to press forward with a range of actions based on the New Community Action Programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women (1982 – 85)[5] particularly guidelines B10 (entry into working life) and B11 (increasing occupational choice).



Stereotypes in the choice of careers for girls

One of the most constructive steps has been the setting-up of a network of equality reporters in the fields of education and training. The group has already submitted a synoptic report summarizing the information provided by national independent experts on the situation in their own Member States.

[1] The concept covers all forms of action aimed at redressing all the inequalities encountered by women in their daily working lives.

[2] OJ L 39 of 14. 2. 1976, p. 40.

[3] OJ L 331 of 19. 12. 1984, p. 34.

[4] Council Resolution of 7. 6. 1984 concerning actions to combat womens' unemployment takes the same stand (OJ C 161 of 21. 6. 1984, p. 4).

[5] COM (81) 758 final.

Its principal task during its first year of life was to study national educational systems at all levels, together with occupational guidance and counselling services, and post-school vocational training systems in order to pinpoint the stages at which sex-discriminatory behaviour starts to emerge. They were then asked to study in more detail potential ways of 'unjamming' certain situations which were locked into a pattern of inexorably compounding the same old stereotypes in the choice of careers for girls and boys, with a view to putting forward practical proposals for change.

In the light of their findings, they were also asked to design a proposed scheme for positive action either within the school system, or more directly linked to assisting adult women with finding a job.

Before looking at their proposals in detail, however, it might be useful to take a brief look at their findings about discriminatory behaviour in the various levels of the educational system.

A. The findings

A number of common threads were found running through the education and training of young girls in all countries, irrespective of national differences in teaching institutions, methods or the ways of compiling statistics.

The mere fact that sex-differentials were found in the numbers of girls guided towards, and achieving success in, certain occupational orders indicated that the causes lay less in their 'nature' or 'innate abilities' than in the cultural and institutional environment responsible for placing constraints on their choice.

Some attempt, therefore, must be made to act on that environment, on all ages, on all the actors on the economic stage, on the teaching methods used, and on the educational structures themselves.

Investment in education is more likely to be productive the younger the age-group it is directed at, provided it is persevered with conscientiously throughout the girls' entire educational life right through to the market outcome.

The kind of situations experienced by very young children in pre-primary education, and the content of the elementary education to which they are exposed in primary schools, will have a profound effect on their subsequent choice of occupational training and career.[1] The role models presented in school textbooks, which conform to traditional occupational stereotypes and make no reference to equality of opportunity, engender an over-simplified concept of what is clearly appropriate for each sex.

Early stereotypical beliefs are further reinforced at secondary school, where there is often no opportunity given to change direction midstream. The distinction between the easy, 'soft' options and the 'worthwhile', useful subjects operates to the clear disadvantage of girls who are not made sufficiently aware of the full implications of the choice they have made. They enjoy much wider freedom of choice in the subjects they study, not being subject to the imperatives that boys must ensure a rate of return on their education.

The tendency to channel girls into stereotyped occupational options as early as the end of junior school must be rooted out. The only way to counterbalance the weight of tradition, the rigid preconceptions inculcated by families, educators, and even career guidance counsellors, the doubts about the abilities of girls, and their own lack of self-confidence, is to defer the moment of occupational selection for as long as possible.

Careers officers, who claim to offer 'gender neutral' advice are in most cases completely unaware of the particular problems of girls who have made errors of judgement which they later find it almost impossible to reverse. In their defence, it must be said that they are frequently overworked, have too few contacts in business, and their own training (in some countries) may not always take account of the real-life problems faced by women wanting to enter the job-market.

What is needed in the post-school vocational training systems is a greater effort to retrain girls and women who are already at a dead-end in their working lives, or simply want to re-enter the labour force after having once moved out of it, directing them into non-traditional sectors offering job possibilities. Private sector initiatives may be a very profitable way of doing this, in harness with 'official' government training schemes, either in colleges or as in-firm training.

B. The recommendations

Although a complete review of all the areas for action is outside the scope of this article, the observers unanimously singled out a certain number of them as being pivotal to the success of an equal opportunities policy within the training system.

Among the common steps which could be taken at all levels are:

(i) organizing discussions on the different obstacles to the equal treatment of boys and girls;

(ii) public awareness campaigns (leaflets and films) aimed at the groups concerned;

(iii) achieving a co-educational schooling system with teachers of both sexes at all levels and in all branches of education;

(iv) revise teaching materials in a bid to break down the sex-stereotypes offered as occupatio-

[1] By the time children enter primary school, the conditioning may have taken such a deep-rooted hold that in many cases it is a fruitless exercise to try and change it. C.f. E.G. Belotti 'Du cote des petites filles', Edition des femmes, 1974, pp. 161 - 250.

nal role models to boys and girls;

(v) adapt teacher training to include awareness of the particular problems of girls;

(vi) increase the further training facilities open to careers guidance officers and careers teachers;

(vii) bring the school environment and the world of business closer together;

(viii) increase the information available on job-growth fields offering long-term employment prospects.

C. The proposals

Wide-ranging action was proposed for each country, aimed at broadening the occupational selection opportunities open to women and girls.

What has to be avoided, however, is the temptation to establish pilot projects along the lines of the majority of experimental schemes set up by the Commission with the assistance of the ESF and Cedefop (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training).[1] The schemes must reach a sufficiently large section of the population, or effect a durable transformation in the schooling or training process.

The actions were selected as best responding to the specific problems of each system and their likelihood of success.

They are directed at secondary and tertiary education and vocational training for adults; at teacher-training (courses on equal opportunities for men and women in colleges of education); at the careers guidance process (setting up placement counselling centres for schools); setting up a local-based careers counselling team; occupational counsellors for secondary and technical schools; training adults in emerging skills in advanced technologies (retraining for women trying to re-enter the labour market); young female arts graduates; women urgently needing information about their jobs; or about other occupational categories with job opportunities or particular areas of employment offering considerable scope for women's employment (banks); at information on job-growth occupations and educating the educators, parents and young girls themselves.

The various competent public agencies concerned have been asked for financial assistance and other forms of support. Government at all levels clearly has a pivotal role to play here in ensuring that girls are given equal opportunities throughout their initial training so that new doors to employment may be opened to them as women.

Dominique De Vos

[1] In 1984 Cedefop produced its assessment of the results of the experimental schemes in a number of European countries in a document entitled: 'Egalité des chances et formation professionelle cinq ans après. Actions de formation professionnelle an faveur des femmes dans la Communaute européenne – Rapport de synthèse et recommendations'. (Equal opportunities and vocational training five years on. Vocational training schemes for women in the European Community – Summary report and recommendations). M. Oels and S. Seeland.

Women, work and well-being in the European Community

The attitudes of employed women and housewives compared

The growing labour force participation of women, particularly married women – including those with young children – is a trend which has been increasingly manifest in Europe since the 1960s. A parallel, though perhaps more recent, trend has been an increasing awareness of the value of the work which women perform in the home. Because it is unpaid, because it is largely 'invisible', and perhaps also because it is done by women, housework has been largely ignored by social scientists, economists and policy makers. Because it has been ignored, it has been undervalued. Official recognition of the value of the work performed in the home was manifested by the fact that this activity was treated as 'work' in the usual sense in a survey of the quality of working life, which was carried out on nationwide representative samples in eight member countries of the European Community as part of a series of surveys of subjective social indicators conducted on an experimental basis by the Statistical Office of the European Communities. The women's data from this survey, involving 6137 respondants – both employed and non-employed – were analysed in depth for the Bureau for Questions Concerning Employment and Equal Treatment for Women. In addition to describing women's experience of work – both in employment and in the home – the report examined the effect of their work on women's feeling of health and psychological well-being. The report is the first of two reports on women and work in the European Community. The second, completed in March 1985, focuses solely on employed persons and presents detailed comparisons of the quality of working life of male and female workers.

The main findings of the first report, prepared by Dr Margret Fine-Davis of the Department of Psychology, Trinity College, Dublin, are summarized below.

Education

The study found that employed women were significantly better educated and trained than housewives. Nevertheless, a substantial proportion of the housewives in all of the countries had received vocational training after having left school. This proportion was approximately 20% in most of the countries and over 30% in France and Germany, indicating that a sizeable proportion of housewives has skills which are not currently being utilized in the workplace. To the extent that such women are non-employed out of choice, and perhaps only temporarily out of the workforce, is one thing. However, to the extent that they perceive actual barriers to their entry or re-entry to the labour force is of concern, both in terms of the pyschological effects of this on the women themselves and in terms of the loss to society of valuable human resources.

An interesting trend was observed to the effect that countries with a greater proportion of well-educated women were also more likely to have a greater proportion of women in management and other positions of high occupational status. This clearly shows the importance of training and education as enablers and facilitators of women's increased responsibility in the workplace.

Skill demands of housework and employment

In an examination of 15 different skills and qualities, it was found that housework drew upon more of these than did employment. For example, housewives were much more likely to report the need for decision-making ability in their work than were employed women, suggesting greater opportunity for decision-making in the household than the workplace. Only 58% of employed women said their work required that they make decisions, as compared with 81% of housewives. This was particularly true for lower-income women, whose occupations were least likely to require decision-making. Housewives were also significantly more likely to report the need for new ideas and creativity in their work (62%) as compared with employed women (38%).

The study also highlighted the stressful nature of the housewife's role among women in the prime childbearing and rearing years (i.e., aged 25-39). This group of women was more likely than all other groups to report that their work required stamina, perseverance, patience, strong nerves and quick reactions, together with a high degree of decision-making.

It was noted throughout the report that higher-income women were more likely to report the use of various skills than were lower-income women, both in the workplace and in the home. The greater use of conceptual/verbal skills on the part of higher-income women in the workplace is in part related to a higher degree of education and training and consequent type of employment. However, the fact that lower-income women reported utilizing higher level skills (such as leadership and decision-making) in their housework than in their employment suggests that these women are being under-utilized in the workplace. These findings also help to explain why lower-income housewives were more likely to express higher work satisfaction and life satisfaction than lower-income employed women. The kind of work available to lower-income women draws upon fewer skills and qualities than housework and thus, relatively speaking, housework is more rewarding.

In summary, it would appear that housework is both more interesting and demanding than it is usually recognized to be. The corollary of this is that women with experience as homemakers should be given credit for this experience when they attempt to enter or re-enter the labour force. Secondly, it is evident that employment is not sufficiently drawing upon all of the skills that women possess. This is particularly noticeable in the case of skills such as leadership, decision-making, planning, creativity and innovation, which housewives were significantly more likely to report using in their work than were employed women.

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Housewives' potential labour force participation: policy implications

While employed women, on average, particularly those of higher socio-economic status, were found to defer childbearing until after the age of 25, this was not the case among housewives. The resulting situation is thus one in which many housewives with dependent children are expressing the wish to enter the labour force. This corroborates trends which have been observed in the US:

working outside the home is generally agreed to be most difficult when there are preschool children, and yet this group of women have shown the greatest increases over time (Baldwin, 1982, p. 179).

They, more the women who prefer to stay at home, were more likely to think that married women worked because of their interest in the work *per se*, as well as for companionship needs. These women are indirectly saying that these needs are important for them also and are not being met in their current situation.

Between 10 and 24% of housewives under 40 expressed a desire to work full-time and over 50% a desire to work part-time. Thus, between two-thirds and four-fifths (depending on their age) of housewives aged 18–40 desiring to work, would prefer part-time employment. Yet the lack of existing part-time job opportunities was one of the main reasons such women gave for not being currently employed. Another important reason was the lack of alternative child care arrangements.

Although some legitimate reservations have been expressed concerning the extension of part-time employment opportunities, the data suggest that the creation of a greater number of part-time jobs through various means (such as job-sharing, work-sharing, shorter hours, etc.) would constitute both a desirable and necessary change in work patterns to help meet the needs of women with family responsibilities who wish to work. However, it has been pointed out that such alternative work arrangements do not simply have relevance for women. They are increasingly being seen as *modi vivendi* for dealing with high unemployment; for enabling both parents to partake in employment and child care; and for improving the quality of life by allowing people greater leisure time (Commission of the European Communities, 1980; OECD, 1979). Yet at the present time, part-time employment, even if voluntary (as differentiated from underemployment) tends to be associated with lower rates of pay, limited opportunities for training and promotion, and

lack of social benefit protection, in addition to being available primarily in lower skilled occupations. Such part-time employment opportunities must be enhanced and protected and have extended to them 'the rights and guarantees that apply to full time employment' (*Ibid.*, p. 124).

Effects of employment and non-employment on women's well-being

Health

A very distinct thread which ran through the data was the benefits accruing to women from employment. For the majority of women it was found to be associated with better health, as measured in terms of fewer sick days, and overall satisfaction with health. These findings suggest that employment may, in some way, offer protection against ill health. This interpretation would be consistent with that put forth by other authors who have suggested that employment offers protection against depression for both men and women (Brown and Harris, 1978: Cochrane and Stopes-Roe, 1981).

In this context it should be noted that while employment was in general associated with better health on the part of women, employed women in the 25-39 years age group, even in the higher-income groups, manifested a greater number of sick days than housewives in this age group. And if they were married and had one or more dependent children, they also reported somewhat lower satisfaction with their health than employed women in the same age group with no dependent children. These findings suggest that employed women aged 25-39, particularly if they have dependent children, may be experiencing some role strain. This is not surprising, given the fact that at the present time work is, by and large, not structured in such a way as to enable women to optimally fulfil dual roles. It is thus notable that such women reported a very good ability to cope with their work demands and they did not rate these as any greater than any other groups. Thus, it would appear that their jobs are not suffering as a result of this role strain (indeed married women reported higher work satisfaction than other workers). What does, however, seen to be suffering is the health of women themselves, in this – the childbearing and rearing age group.

Life satisfaction

Life satisfaction is the most global measure of well-being in the study. This measure has been widely used in previous research on the quality of life. In the present study, the findings con-

cerning life satisfaction are at the same time complex and revealing. Among all women, being a housewife was found to be related to somewhat greater life satisfaction. However, for married women, there was no relationship between employment status and life satisfaction. However, when key demographic variables were examined in combination with one another, a bit more light was shed on the picture. Firstly, it was shown that being a housewife was associated with greater life satisfaction for low-income women only. There was no difference among higher-income women, suggesting once again, that the work available to lower-income employed women is less appealing than housework.

It was also found that among low-income women, regardless of their employment status, life satisfaction decreased after a high point in the 18-24 year age group. Somewhat higher levels – but not as high as before – returned in the 55-65 year age group. Among high-income women, life satisfaction was fairly constant throughout the life cycle, but had its peak in the 25-39 year age group. These data seem to reflect an enthusiasm and expectation among young lower-income women (particularly those working outside the home) which is then disillusioned as they get a little bit older. This trend was also apparent in much of the other data presented, which may help to explain the drop in life satisfaction among this group. Low-income married women also reported decreased satisfaction with their health in the age group 25-39, whereas this did not hold for high-income women. Thus, it would appear that the conditions of life to which lower-income women are exposed erode the initial levels of optimism of their younger years. This affects not only their satisfaction with their income and vocational opportunities, but indeed their feelings of total physical and psychological well-being.

Such women could be significantly helped by training programmes which would translate their skill potential into more meaningful work experiences.

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However, child care arrangements tied in with the training, as well as with employment, would be essential. The wider availability of flexible hours and other supports from employers, such as parental leave, would also go a long way toward enabling these women, and indeed all employed women, to coordinate work and family roles and responsibilities.

Employment of married women in the context of social attitudes

Among employed married women, employment most importantly fulfilled the need to perform work which one was interested in, in addition to meeting companionship needs and financial needs. Interestingly enough, married employed women were, on average more likely to express high job satisfaction than non-married employed women. This is noteworthy, since married women have in some countries experienced barriers to their employment, in the form of traditional social attitudes as well as structural barriers, which have included actual bans on married women working, tax deterrents, lack of child care facilities, etc. This finding thus underscores the importance of work to many married women's sense of well-being, a fact which is often not realized by the larger society nor suffi-

ciently taken account of in social and economic policy.

In view of the multiplicity of needs which employment meets for women, and the apparent benefits which it has both for their physical und psychological well-being, it is particularly disturbing that attitudes of society as a whole have been found to be so non-supportive, and at best ambivalent, toward changing sex-role behaviour and particularly to employment of married women. In a nationwide representative survey carried out in 1983 in all countries of the Community, it was found that 61% of men and 59% of women believed that 'in a period of high unemployment a man has a greater right to work than a woman' (Riffault, 1983, p. 96). A lack of full appreciation of the actual reasons why married women work was also manifested by housewives in the present study. This, taken together with Riffault's findings, suggests that a lack of awareness and understanding on the part of other groups may be a major factor underlying the difficult psychological climate which employed married women face, which includes not only the widely held belief that they are less entitled than men to employment, but also very real structural barriers to equal employment opportunities.

The EEC Directives concerning equal pay and equal opportunity have gone a long way toward remedying this situation. The New Community Action Programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women in 1982-85 (Commission of the European Communities, 1981) will contribute to further progress. One of its specific actions is 'to increase the awareness among the general public of positive aspects of women's integration into all sectors of society, thus calling the traditional sex-related roles into question'. Such an approach – facing the attitudinal underpinnings of inequality head-on – together with further concrete steps, such as positive action and the building of 'networks of public facilities and services for a more equitable sharing of parental responsibilities' will undoubtedly lead the way for the necessary changes to accompany the continuing trend of increased labour force participation of women in Europe.

Margret Fine-Davis

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A new vocational training organization

The European Social Fund has given financial support to the introduction of a new Modular Individualized Training System, designed and run on an experimental basis by the Mulhouse Rehabilitation Centre in France. The system has attracted interest and support both from government officers for the rehabilitation of the handicapped throughout Europe and from senior retraining centre officials in the Community Member States.

Since its inception as a pilot scheme in 1978, some 1000 people, both handicapped and non-handicapped, have taken advantage of the resources offered by the MITS to speed their social and professional rehabilitation by acquiring qualifications in the fields of accounting, technical drawing, electronics and data communications.

The MITS adopts a radical new approach to the training/work relationship. Rather than standardized training programmes, what is offers is a flexible system of separate activities. Instead of narrow specialization designed to fit the student for a specific task or occupation (where the course content is frequently overtaken by changing work requirements), it aims to impart transferable skills. Finally, it does not reduce the rehabilitation process to the mere acquisition of technical abilities, but rather broadens and deepens it by testing the capacities of each worker to carry through a project to completion and bringing him face to face with the resources and constraints of his environment.

This article sets out only to describe the practical organization of the system. It necessarily has to skate over the more complex aspects. In response to the interest shown in its experiment, the Centre last year introduced training courses in MITS for all 'instructors' involved in similar activities working towards the same goals.

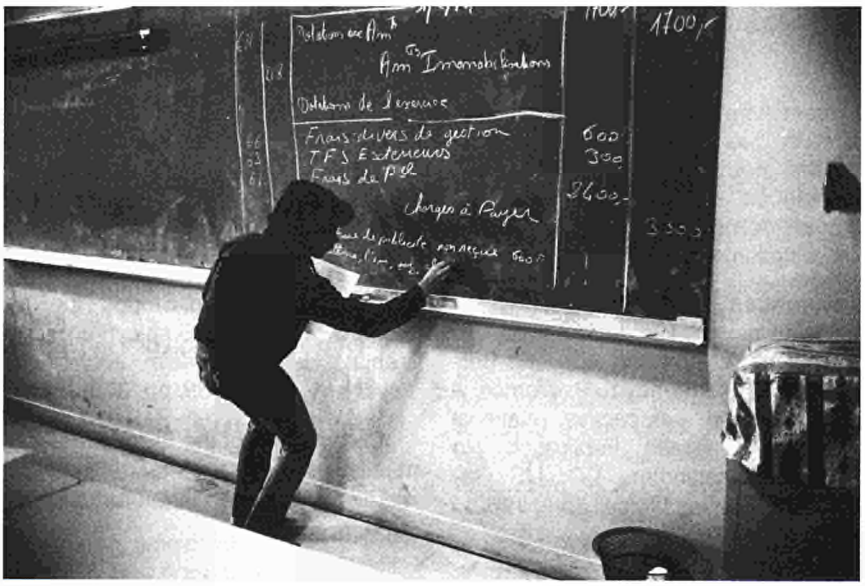
1. How the course is run

Admission

Where the individual circumstances of a handicapped person seem to justify vocational retraining, the appropriate guidance and level of training will be determined by the Commission Technique d'Orientation et de Reclassement Professionel (Cotorep – Technical Committee for Vocational Guidance and Rehabilitation) for the department in which he lives. They will then forward his application to the CRM if appropriate.

The procedure for other applicants follows that laid down in the legislation governing continuing education.

When a vacancy arises in the occupational programme (c.f. 2) selected during the vocational guidance stage, the applicant will be notified. The course will not start up, however, until



Learning accountancy . . .

enough students have enrolled to form a group, or until the date set for the new series of modules to begin.

Induction

The student is taken in charge by a guidance team (c.f. 2.5) who follow him through in a supportive role to the completion of his training course (c.f. 2). The primary concern of the guidance team is to explore with the student the ways and means of his proposed social and occupational rehabilitation, or at least to map out the possible outline of it. The first step is to provide the student with information about his pro posed occupation, entry qualifications, the content and modalities of the training required for it. The student is then put in a variety of general and technical trial learning situations to enable him to discover his own aptitudes, his own limitations and the problems he must surmount.

At the end of this two-week exploratory stage, the student has an assessment interview with his guidance team to discuss the terms of a training contract (c.f. 2.5), normally signed after a four-six week probationary period. An objective (c.f. 2.1) is worked out, together with the period in which it is to be attained. The student is given a progress book in which to record his own day-to-day development.

Specific training

The group to which the trainee is allocated will depend on the objective set. Trainees are grouped by occupational choice, but will progress at different rates, working on different modules (c.f. 2.2). Regrouping is carried out more on the basis of the teaching methods called for rather than on the strict linear progression of a course, whilst the interpersonal relationships between the students are the mortar which holds the group together. The instructors for a particular occupational programme allocate the leadership of the various groups between themselves. The instructor/student ratio is dictated both by course numbers and the complexity of the operations or the sophistication of the equipment. Instructors give individualized and small group assistance in the use of learning resources (c.f. 2.4). They advise on ways of evaluating or consolidating problem-solving approaches, and will organize general discussion groups either on their own initiative or in response to trainees' requests. They supervise practical work, help students assess their own performance, and provide additional explanations where required. Not so much dispensers of knowledge as methodology advisors, not so much leaders as activity organizers, the primary concern of the instructors at all times is to involve the trainees in the ongoing evaluation of their own progress.

Transversal training

If the trainee is to undertake or successfully complete the training required to achieve his objective, he may need prerequisites (c.f. 2.2) which are not specific to the technology of his own particular module. For example, the logical steps to the solving of equations fall neither strictly within the ambit of accountancy or electronics. After working out a programme with his guidance team, therefore, the trainee will attend one or more workshops (c.f. 2.3) where he can acquire, consolidate or develop the learning skills called for. He may also leave his work group to work in the resource centre (c.f. 2.4) either to supplement his own documentary resources or to carry out research to broaden or deepen the knowledge acquired in the modules.

Training assessment

At the expiry of the period agreed with his guidance team, the trainee undertakes a practical test to determine whether he has attained his pre-set objective.

On the basis of this, he can discuss his weak points, mistakes and the gaps in his learning with his instructor; but most important of all, it enables him to update his working methods.

The trainees is then free to decide whether to return to his task or not. If he feels that his performance satisfies the predefined criteria, he will ask for an assessment interview with his guidance team, which is available to trainees half a day per week.

If the team agrees that he has met his objective, a new stage of the course is negotiated.

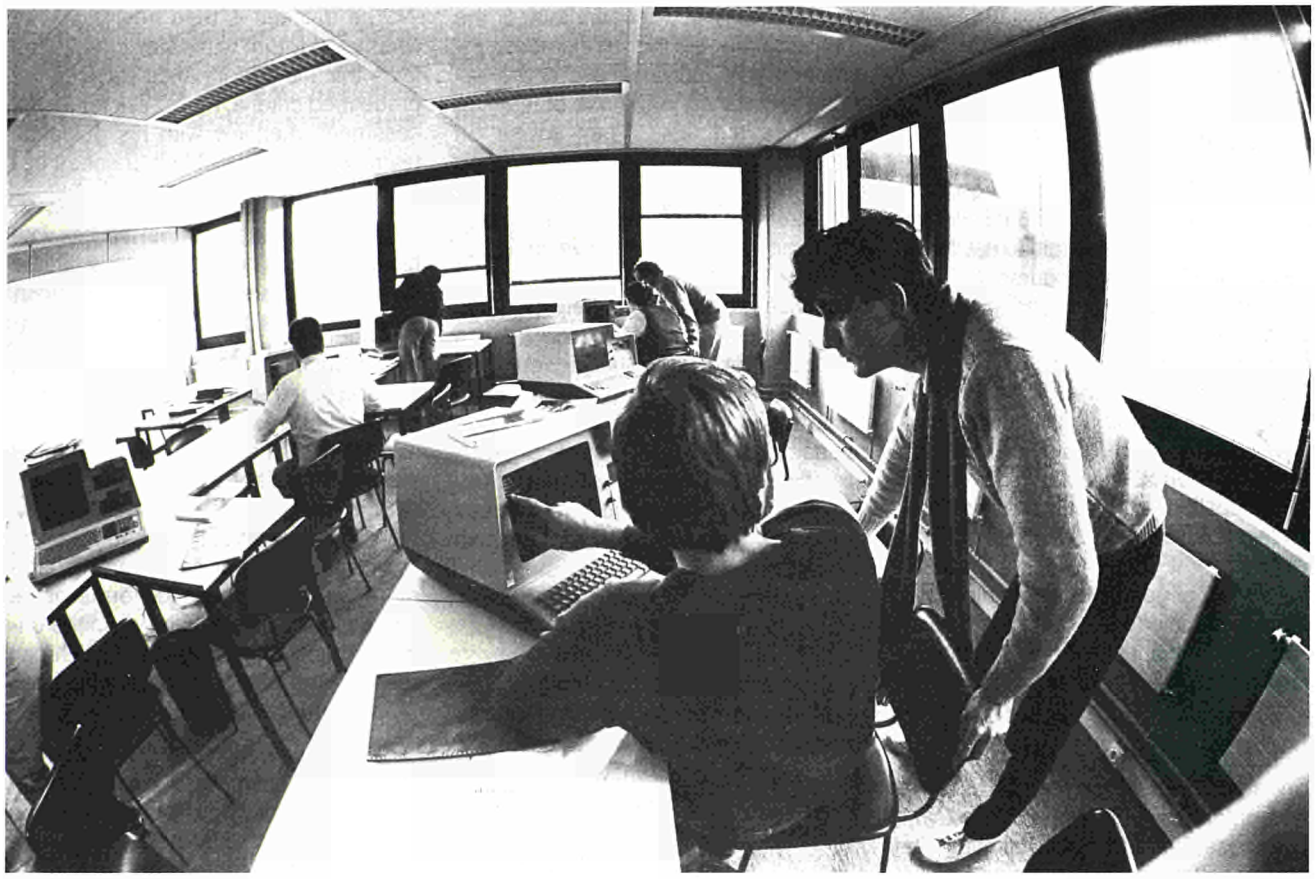
Otherwise, the team helps the trainee to understand where the weakness lies and together they define the appropriate measures to make it up. If necessary, the team seeks the help of other skills not present in the team. A new date is set for a second assessment of the same objective. If by then no significant improvement has been made, a more radical change in the format of the course is considered, and even the original project is reappraised, which can result in the trainee submitting a fresh proposal to the Cotorep.

The observations and conclusions of each assessment are contained in the trainee's progress book which can thus be referred to by the authorities interested in his progress on the course.

Occupational training

In every case, the assessment of a module provides the opportunity to realign the specific objective with the occupational reclassification and also with the other factors determining reintegration. The team encourages the trainee to take the appropriate steps, gives him help or seeks assistance from other, more qualified quarters and, step by step, examines the relevance of the measures applied. For example, contacts are established with enterprises, with a view either to a specific period on the job or to a trial prior to recruitment. A job-seeking workshop and documentation on occupational outlets are always available. Finally, depending on the trainee's progress in skill learning, the type of project and the time spent in the course, the team decides on an end-of-course date.

Trainees having completed a full course sit an examination at the end of



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the course which is supervised and corrected by a professional examining board, on the basis of tests set by Association nationale pour la formation professionelle des adultes (AFPA) (National Association for Adult Vocational Training).

For the other trainees, official recognition of the training acquired is subject to the agreements concluded between the parties concerned. No trainee leaves the CRM, whether or not he has completed the course, without having at least identified the work he still has to do to complete his project or, if the situation requires it, without having contacted, through the guidance department, the next staging points in his career.

2. Structure of the system

The MITS incorporates: modules with specific occupational objectives, transversal apprenticeship workshops, self-teaching resources, a training guidance system which enables these different elements to be adapted to the plans and situation of each individual. The elements are grouped together under heading of technological poles so that trainees can benefit from the synergetic effect produced by complementarity between the skills of the dispensers, the equipment, methods, experience, relations with enterprises, information on an occupational field (e.g.: electronic pole).

The poles are crossed by training programmes which are made up of all the modules and which, at a given level, give access to a type and level of skill ending in a vocational training certificate (CFP) issued by the Ministry of Labour.

The training course specific to each trainee, guided by a Cotorep (and whether continuing or linked with work), of necessity comes under one of these programmes. It can also extend beyond the programme to include workshops, the resources centre or optional modules.

The courses followed by trainees in continuing education comprise a wider range of modules, based on the objectives and methods agreed in the contract.

To avoid all confusion, it must be emphasized that the courses are not 'polarized'. The pole is a means, the

thread leading towards the objective. In other words, a course may require various poles.

2.1. **Occupational objectives**

The defining of the occupationnal objectives depends on the analyses of work situations.

A work situation is essentially characterized by a product (e.g. production schedules) or by a service (e.g. repair of machines). It can be described as a process which utilizes methods, instruments and operational sequences not necessarily homogeneous (e.g. end of year accounts in a public limited liability company). It is part of a context which can vary from one firm to another but which comprises basic data (instructions) and different requirements (quality, speed) and working conditions . . . (independent, monovocational and interdisciplinary teams, etc).

A representative cross-section of the work situations found in a given occupational field is identified through the use of documentation, field trips and discussions with representatives of professional bodies.

The instructor will then use this to translate the behaviour to be expected of the trainee in a given work situation into a series of performance objectives for the student, defined according to strict criteria.

These technical and procedural performances define the professional objective.

The objective is not, therefore, reduced to the mere ability to perform a single task, or even a sequence of operations; nor is it necessarily confined to the acquisition of a specific technical skill, but may represent the ability to synthesize an array of capacities (using technical literature, formulating an operational plan, measuring, informing, etc.). Its essential purpose is not to measure the acquisition of a skill, but whether that skill can be applied in a completely new situation, i.e., whether the trainee has transferable skills.

2.2. **The modules**

A module integrates the practical and theoretical learning – without regard to subject matter – which combine to lead towards the attainment of a professional objective.

It is defined by the difference between a learner's entry behaviour and his final performance at the expiry of a set period of time.

The student's entry behaviour dictates the prerequisites necessary to enable him to embark on the content of the module. These may consist of a combination of general knowledge, technical abilities, working methods and aptitudes. Entry behaviour also, therefore, determines the relationship between modules.

The trainee's performance behaviour reveals whether the objective has been met. It is not the objective itself, but merely provides the indicators as to whether the objective has been reached.

The completion date is the date fixed for the student's assessment test. It will vary for each trainee according to a reference duration. The reference duration is fixed for each module by the instructors on the basis of their own experience. The modules do not run for standardized lengths of time: they may vary between six weeks and four months.

Modules are broken down into sequences of operations, or intermediate objectives, also to be achieved within a set period. The intermediate objectives are in turn sub-divided into more elementary units known as 'capacities', tested as the learners and instructors feel necessary.

Details of the structure of each module are kept on data sheets. These set out the general objectives, the corresponding behavioural objectives and criteria for assessment, module content, teaching methods, documentation and equipment to be used. Trainees have access to these sheets.

A group of modules which together comprise a training programme are described in a data sheet sent firstly to the local government guidance service, then to the applicants.

2.3. **Workshops**

Transversal training is integrated into few, if any, of the occupational programmes. Rather it is carried out as a group activity organized by an instructor in specialized workshops.

The workshops are subject-specific, and the Centre currently runs workshops in mathematics, data communications, French, methods, languages, law, economics, employment counselling . . .

Other workshops are set up on request, and yet others serve as testing laboratories for innovations in technologies, methods or course content before their full integration into a given module (such as computer-aided design – CAD).

The activities of each workshop, within its specialized field, are structured to meet three kinds of demand:

(i) the acquisition or consolidation of prerequisites,
(ii) the extension or enrichment of knowledge beyond the strict confines of students' goal-oriented instruction,
(iii) the development of skills complementary to those being acquired in the modules.

The first of these will normally be undertaken on the recommendation of the guidance team. The other two are student-initiated, but subject to the opinion of the guidance team as to their relevance to the individual's goals and his/her progress in the professional course selected.

All trainees on a particular occupational programme will therefore follow the same core modules, but may attend different workshops, or the same workshops for differing lengths of time. It is this articulation between modules and workshops which brings diversity to the training course for a given occupational programme.

Attendance at workshops is not an option allowing the trainee to extend the duration of his course, however. Students must still work to the schedule fixed by the guidance team. Their function is to alternate training activities, based on individual needs and potential, rather than making an arbitrary division between 'preliminary stages' and 'training stages', whose failing is to group together individuals with varying needs, problems and aptitudes and teach them identical contents for the same length of time.

2.4. **Self-teaching resources**

The foundations of the learner's course are his data sheet, progress book and training contract.

Equipment, an organization, and particularly the instructors and guidance teams, are made available to him to help him get his project off the ground.

But what learning resources are available to him during his period of training to help him acquire and develop independence, the discipline of organization, a sense of initiative, and the capacity to seek out and work with others that he will need in working life?

The student is given a progress book for each 'capacity' in his module (c.f. 2.2). This resource helps define his final performance objectives. It contains the basic technical information, recommendations for work to accomplish, advice on methods of working, performance tests and a bibliography. A separate solution booklet enables the learner to check his results and assess whether his approach is the best one.

The onus, therefore, is on the learner to organize his own activities, to ask for help when he needs it, to select the explanations offered by the instructors, to carry out additional practical work, etc. It is also up to him to search out what additional information he needs or wants by using the resource centre.

The resource centre is housed in two study rooms and is open continuously. It is staffed by a librarian who will assist students to find what they need from the Centre's stock of 6975 reference books, 134 collections of magazines, 362 documentation files and 299 items of audiovisual aids.

The learning resources are not designed to provide an exhaustive answer to a given problem, but to encourage the trainee to show initiative, to ask questions, to test himself, to mobilize his own 'inner resources' – for in the final analysis, the best resources one can fall back on are one's own.

2.5. **Training guidance**

While the student-centred aspect of the training derives from the quantity and quality of the options offered to the trainee, its effectiveness stems from the support given to those options by the assistance, advice and elucidation provided by training guidance.

Each training cycle is administered by a three-person guidance team:

(i) the instructor organized the learning group,
(ii) a director of studies, who coordinates the guidance team,
(iii) a rehabilitation officer (doctor, nurse, social worker, psychologist, administrator, workshop instructor, etc . . .).

The trainee signs his training contract with the three members of the guidance team personally. This contract sets out the responsibilities of each partner to it, the rules, the amount of leeway for negotiation, and the core principles.

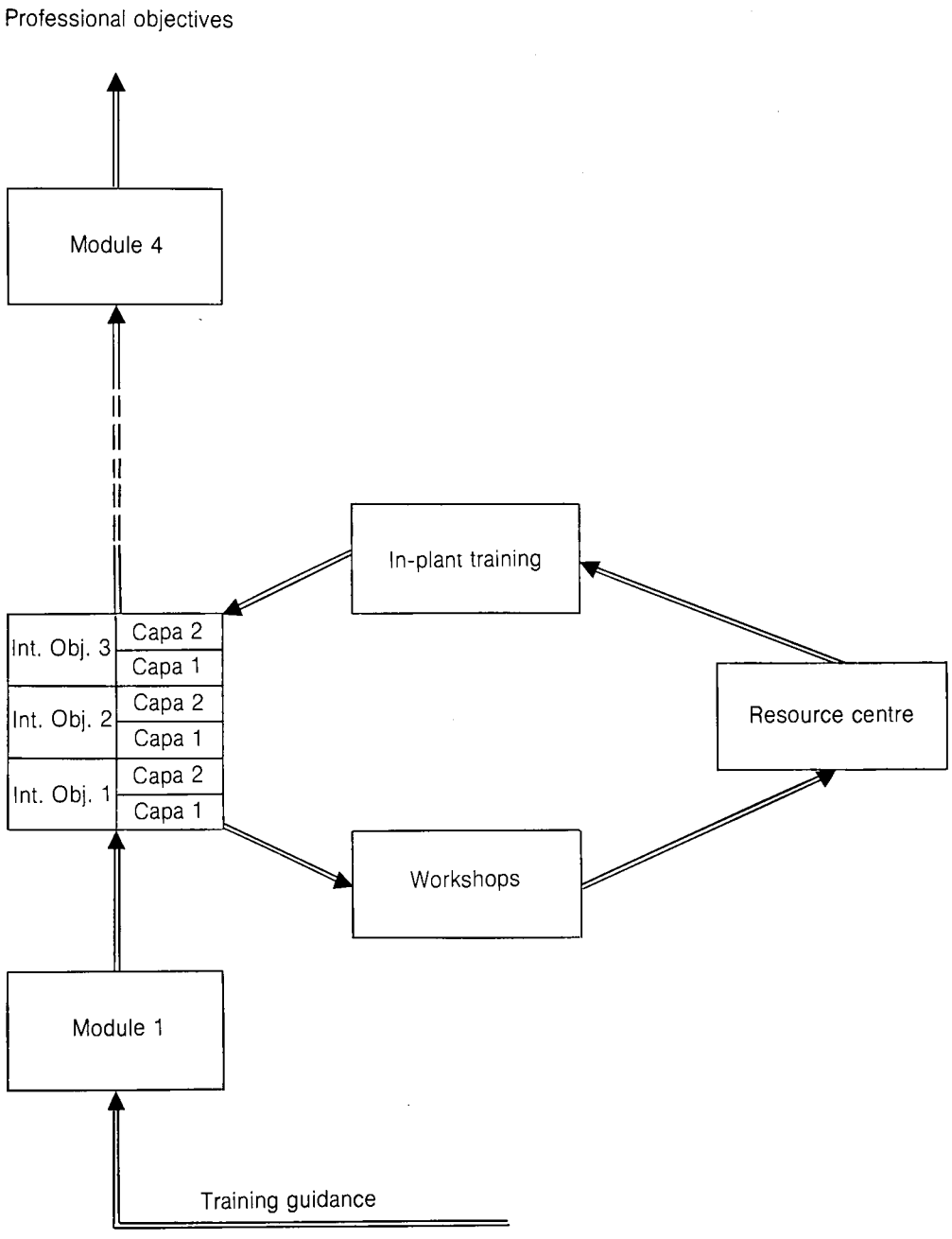
The guidance team intervenes at three separate levels: by assisting the trainee in the end-of-module assessment of his vocational objectives. This takes the form of an interactive evaluation in which the team supervises the exactness of the performances, involves the student in analysing their significance, diagnoses learning difficulties and suggests ways of overcoming them.

By administering the trainee's course, negotiating with each learner the appropriate completion dates, formulating learning methods, checking that they are being carried out, initiating, supporting and reinforcing the steps taken by the trainee towards achieving his ultimate professional goal.

It is also involved in the regulation of the training system. At its regular monthly meeting, each guidance team reviews its own functioning, makes improvements within its own remit, and refers other suggestions to the appropriate authority.

Representatives from each team collaborate with other interested parties (e.g. psychiatrists, officials from other services of the CRM) in a guidance group to constantly monitor the coherence and timely replacement of practical skills.

Training guidance ensures that each student, instructor and all others concerned, are actively involved in the ongoing development of the MITS.



The structure of the system

Computerization and employment

Contributions to a systematic review based on quantitative surveys on the impact of information technology on employment[1]

The one certain thing that can now be said about new information technology is that it creates, destroys and transforms jobs. The whys and wherefores of those three facets of its powers have been exhaustively catalogued in the plethora of micro and macroeconomic studies of the topic. But what still remains a matter for speculation across a scale ranging from unfounded optimism to positively alarmist pessimism, is the 'how much' of it – i.e., the quantitative consequences of new technology for employment.

And yet it is central to the issue – not merely for its short-term economic and political implications, but also for its future ramifications. Conscious of the seriousness of the problem, the Commission launched a detailed scrutiny of the data and literature at its disposal. The results raised the further question of how it could come about that rational and scientifically-conducted exploratory and quantitative studies on the impact of new information technology (NIT) on jobs could come up with such a wide range of often contradictory findings. The object of the exercise was not to question the results of the studies conducted to date in order to arrive at unequivocal but unsubstantial conclusions, but rather to map out paths for discussion about the merits of the approaches and methods adopted in studies on how new technology affects jobs.

The authors of the present survey decided to base their analysis on seven authoritative studies (3 from France: IRIS, Cepremap, Bipe-Insee; 1 from the United Kingdom: SPRU; 1 from the United States: Leontief; and 2 from the Federal Republic of Germany: IFO, Prognos)[2] which sought to place the technical and social realities of the situation in a macroeconomic setting.

Breaking down the studies by demand-side and supply-side data; objectives; field of application (technological, temporal and spatial); methodology (calculations, data, indicators); findings and comments, the authors highlight three key aspects which may lie at the root of the disparities: the definition of NIT adopted, its reference hypothesis, factors arising from social constraints and the spread of new technology.

Two studies (IRIS, Prognos) conclude that the workforce would remain stable, while three more (Cepremap, SPRU, IFO) predicted a marked drop in employment levels. In marked contrast, the Bipe-Insee and Leontief studies forecast a significant – and in the American survey, substantial – rise in the aggregate labour force. The studies were, however, unanimous in stressing the importance for the coming decade of the shift of job-growth towards new technology areas. This is likely to lead to training and skilling problems of an order never before encountered.

The first point at which the studies diverge is on how they define NIT. Three different approaches can be identified: those based on industrial applications (IRIS, Leontief), on the entire automation process (Cepremap, Bipe-Insee) and on clusters of technological innovations (SPRU, Prognos).

What emerges quite clearly is that the technology itself, or at any rate the major innovations, is frequently defined from a purely empirical, and occasionally tautological, standpoint, in the sense that the phenomenon under study is defined in terms of the phenomenon itself (in this case, for example, long-run turnarounds).

The second factor underlying marked discrepancies in the findings is that of the basic assumptions made in relation to new technology. While Bipe-Insee and Cepremap predicted endogenous growth, the remainder felt the growth variables were more likely to be exogenous.

The problems of trying to dovetail sectoral trends into a macroeconomic model is also pointed up quite clearly. A number of the studies confine themselves to detailed analysis of production processes and branches of industry, but fail to carry their analyses through to the indirect consequences for jobs for want of a macroeconomic setting which makes provision for the interaction between technology, growth and capital spending. Where growth rates are treated as deriving from exogenous variables, the assumptions built on that premise become centrally important to assessing the impact on employment. Only rarely did the models used take any account of final demand and the distribution of returns.

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[1] Survey conducted for the Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Education by Michel Hollard, Udo Rehfeldt, Bernard Ruffieux and Olivier Servais, Université des Sciences Sociales de Grenoble, IREP-D, 1984.

[2] See Bibliography, p. 58.

Job growth will drift towards new technology areas

The importance attached to social constraints and the rate of NIT infiltration also tended to vary widely from study to study. IRIS based its forecasts on technology spread on market surveys of manufacturers' own forecasts. Bipe-Insee and Leontief took productivity growth as their yardstick for technological advance. SPRU saw the spread of NIT as stemming from the volume of investment, the marginal productivity of labour and the capital represented by investments.

Starting from an assessment of the potential impact of certain technologies on productivity and employment, IRIS and Prognos went on to analyse the reactions of the relevant actors on the socio-industrial stage to the introduction of new technology on the basis that these reactions condition the rate of technology infiltration and hence the real effects on productivity and jobs.

The authors take the view that the future pattern of employment trends depends more on output growth (which here equals economic growth) than on the consequences of introducing new technology. The economic growth rate will have a far greater impact on employment levels than the application of new technologies (in isolation).

The account taken of economic variables and the attitudes of different social groups particular to each country covered by the quantitative studies, gives, moreover, reason to suppose that the technology/jobs equation is regarded differently in different countries, conditioned by the institutional and historical basis of its labour relations.

The authors conclude their report with a reference to two series of factors which could offer an explanation for the divergent findings of the studies they looked at. One is the difficulties inherent in any study of this kind: the final findings are conditioned partly by the initial premises as to the field of application and the macroeconomic environment, and partly by the innate constraints in the type of approach adopted (macroeconomic, technico-economic).

The second is the analysis, to varying degrees of complexity, of social or national realities, of which the actors on the social stage and their reactions to technological change form part.

Bernard Hélin

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The employment problems of the older worker:

The current situation and the prospects for involving older workers in youth-oriented projects

A study conducted by IREF (the Rome-based Istituto di Ricerche Educative e Formative – Institute for Research into Education and Training) for the Commission.

The often harsh transition from working life to retirement throws up a range of sensitive problems. Some may be psychological – a sudden feeling of uselessness after many years of activity, the loss of those special relationships developed through years of working with people. To the extent that retirement brings a drop in income for many, financial problems may be encountered. And yet the wealth of experience and time available could be a boon to society.

The IREF analysis, which is based on the Italian situation, argues for a global approach to understanding the problems surrounding the transition from working life to retirement. The survey nevertheless strongly points up the employment possibilties open to workers above the retirement age, with particular emphasis on projects involving young people.

Chapter 1 places the problem in its general setting with an analysis of the main demographic and social trends, based on figures produced by ISTAT – the national statistical institute. Chapter 2 reviews leading theories on the sociology of ageing, lucidly illustrated by an analysis of the leading empirical findings in this field, supplemented by a very valuable bibliography. Chapter 3 offers a brisk and vivid account of recent Italian experiments in reintegration for the aged. Chapter 4 is devoted to a detailed examination of the responses of 400 people to a questionnaire-based survey conducted jointly with ACLI (Associazione cristiana dei Lavatori italiani).

The social and demographic context

Out of a total population of 10 million people aged 60 and over (the retirement age in Italy is 55 for women and 60 for men), 700 000 are still active in the official labour market. The remaining cohorts consist of those in retirement (65%), housewives (30%) and a miscellany of others (5%).

The labour force participation rate for those in the 55 to 64 age group, for all occupational orders, is 50% for men and 15% for women. The principal occupations in southern Italy are agriculture (27%) and the service trades (53%), while the north is primarily industrial (34%) and agricultural (18%). Central Italy is principally an area of service occupations (55%).

In the 65-and-over age group, 57% of those working are self-employed, 15% are employees and 13% are members of one of the professions.

In all, 37% of workers above the age of 65 are engaged in a commercial occupation. In the absence of reliable data, it proved impossible to form a quantitative picture of the proportion of older people active on the 'unofficial' labour market.

The report breaks down the aggregate data by region, age-group, level of education and occupational category. The analysis of the ratio of older people to younger people shows that for every 100 young people aged from 14 to 29, Italy has on average 57 people in the 60-74 age bracket (65 in the North, 49 in the South).

Theories on the relation between ageing and the movement out of the labour market

This section of the report reviews the most commonly-held theories which seek to explain the behaviour of older workers:

(i) the disengagement theory, which claims that older workers progressively reduce their individual participation rates as they withdraw from their professional and social functions;

(ii) the activity theory, which says that a continued high level of activity is seen by the older worker as a sign of successful ageing;

(iii) the continuity theory, claiming that people have an innate ability to adapt to changing circumstances, the adjustment continuing to its natural conclusion;

(iv) the age stratification theory centred on the premise that each age group develops its own collective consciousness which enables it to adapt to changes.

The principal theories are reviewed and supplemented with an analysis of relevant empirical data. The survey findings show that, generally-speaking, older people are reluctant to renounce

working life altogether. They justify continued work on the grounds of keeping themselves busy, the desire to make themselves useful, and the desire to pass on their acquired skills and knowledge to others. This is confirmed, indeed, by the relatively high labour force, and voluntary work, participation rate of the elderly.

The chapter concludes with an extensive comparative survey of Italian regional laws on the aged.

Reintegration schemes

Part three of the report reviews a series of recent Italian experimental schemes to help the elderly reintegrate into society. In each case, the emphasis has been placed on youth-oriented activities and community service projects.

The pilot schemes, most frequently run by local authorities or voluntary organizations, jointly in some instances, tackle the problem across a broad range of fronts. This, the report claims, is due to the lack of a normative frame of reference and the absence of unifying national legislation. The common theme which underlies the diversity, however, is an attempt to provide old people with a social purpose, and to avoid relegating them to the marginal, and isolated, role they could so easily slip into.

The authors have succeeded in probing beyond the superficial diversity to classify the projects as falling into three broad areas of activity:

(i) *Caretaking functions*
principally the supervision of children in public parks and playgrounds, sports facilities and schools, or rehabilitation centres for the handicapped.

(ii) *Teaching activities, and the transmission of occupational and other skills*
these projects enable older people to develop activities in crêches and nurseries, leisure centres and vocational training centres. Amongst the outstanding successes of past and present schemes are those operated in Milan, where older people have been placed in a variety of jobs in the city's nursery schools (gardening, making and repairing toys), Bologna, where older women have been passing on the secrets of regional cooking, and the projects in which older people have helped in the rediscovery of regional dialects.

(iii) *Vocational training for the young*
under this type of scheme, which has been a notable success in the province of Rome, an older worker (particularly a craftsman) teaches his trade to a group of young people for a period of up to several months.

(iv) *Older workers' cooperatives providing services to the community*
these projects include the care of public parks and gardens, the city of Bologna's experiments in setting up allotments, and specialist service cooperatives (plumbing and electrical repairs, etc . . .).

The questionnaire

The final part of the main body of the report is given over to an analysis of the findings of a joint survey by IREF and ACLI, adding the extra dimension of a wealth of up-to-date data.

Briefly, 52% of the respondents said they would like to continue working after retirement, the principal reason advanced being financial (26%). What did emerge, however, was that they wanted the work to be kept strictly part-time. Those interviewed would be prepared to do work in favour of young people either on a wholly voluntary basis or for sufficient remuneration just to cover costs (61%). This figure speaks for itself as to the extent of the interest among older people in investing their time and energies in projects of this nature.

When asked what sort of activities were most worth promoting, or which they felt might be most worth promoting, interviewees demonstrated a marked preference for manual activities and those involving communication. Interest in the job resulting from it was marginal, which is understandable in the light of the fact that some 80% of respondents had been involved in that type of work throughout their working lives.

What the survey does reveal is that older people have a very clear idea of the kind of activity they would like to pursue – maintenance and improvement of green belts, small-scale market gardening, craft activities – with young people looking for a job, and educational activities in which they could pass on a lifetime's experiences and skills.

The report contains a number of appendices, charts and tables, together with a bibliography of publications and legal instruments concerning the aged.

Angelo Baglio

Helping the aged

Preparing for retirement
Housing and environment

Two seminars organized by Eurolink-Age with the support of the Commission of the European Communities.

Recent years have witnessed mounting Community-wide concern about the plight of the aged, aimed at widening the context of activities within which the issue is normally set – namely those of health care and social security.

In its resolution of 12 February 1982 on the situation of and difficulties faced by the Community's elderly, the European Parliament resolutely opted for a more global approach to the living conditions of older people. There is still a long way to go, however, before anything concrete emerges in a situation where the least that can be said is that the Community is faced with a wide range of challenges, first and foremost of which are those stemming from the provisions of the Treaties themselves.

A very modest, but not insignificant, beginning was made with the writing of a 60 000 ECU appropriation into the Community budget to finance actions in favour of elderly people. First call on the funds will be actions to obtain a clearer picture of the wants and aspirations of old people in the Member States, and what our society is doing to meet them. That, for example, was the goal of the 1982 study on the self-reliance of the aged: Towards an improvement in self-reliance of the elderly – Innovation and new guidelines for the future.[1]

It is also the objective of a piece of comparative research currently under way into the fringe benefits enjoyed by senior citizens in the Member States. Another step has been to arrange meetings between support organizations for the elderly, academics, social workers, government representatives and qualified experts from the various Member States for an exchange of views on the variety of problems faced by the elderly, discussions on the approaches and solutions adopted, and attempts to identify the main lines of possible Community action.

That was the goal of a workshop organized by the Commission in 1982 on the issues arising out of a health and welfare policy for the elderly.[2] It was also the aim of two recent seminars organized by Eurolink-Age with the support of the Commission.

1. Preparation for retirement – Dublin seminar – December 1984

While the nations of Europe try to adjust their aspirations and economies to an era in which high unemployment has become the rule rather than the exception, elderly people are finding themselves faced with an entirely new set of problems. Retirement is no longer the simple thing it once was; training is no longer the exclusive preserve of the young; unemployment is hitting the over-60s in a way never before encountered, and the questions of lifestyle and independence are becoming things of greater immediate concern to the individual.

These were some of the main themes emerging from the Eurolink-Age seminar on preparation for retirement. The seminar opened with a discussion on the practical and basic aspects of pre-retirement training, something to which too few old people enjoyed access.

It rapidly became clear, however, that these issues had to be looked at in the broader context of whether life prepares us sufficiently for retirement.

The participants first examined the stereotype of the elderly person handed down to young people, and to the generation gap which separated old from young. It emerged that the negative image of ageing, the misunderstandings about, if not outright antagonism to, the process, took root in the imagination at a very early age. A number of proposals were put forward to remedy the situation.

The role of employers was also examined in detail. What could be done to

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[1] Available from the Commission of the European Communities, Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Education, 200, rue de la Loi, 1049 Brussels.

[2] The proceedings are shortly to be published under the title: Individual choice and enabling structures – European directions in the care of the elderly available from the same address.

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make planning for old age easier? Could the experience gained from working life be turned to use to transform a seeming crisis into an opportunity for personal development? How can education for retirement be extended and adjusted to make it more attractive to employers, with more adequate funding? Could the schemes set up in some private sector companies serve as an example?

The seminar provided an opportunity for an extremely worthwhile exchange of views and experiences. The participants agreed on a series of recommendations for Community and national action, including extending European Social Fund finance to training for non employment-related qualifications and activities. To maintain the job-related restriction was seen as an anachronism in this day and age.

2. Housing and the environment of the elderly – Cologne seminar – January 1985

The Community is as much concerned by the living conditions of its citizens as it is by their working conditions. It should therefore give a higher priority to housing, particularly old people's accomodation. The nature and comfort of their immediate environment play a decisive role in their ability to lead a dignified and successful life.

That was the conclusion of the recent seminar on housing and the environment of the aged. It is a matter of public policy in all Member States to encourage as many old people as possible to remain living in their own homes for as long as they can possibly cope. The elderly themselves show a preference for this and a marked aversion to institutional care.

The seminar had the benefit of the expertise and experience of Mr Alan Butler of the University of Leeds, who has conducted a detailed study for the Commission[1] of the accommodation

[1] c.f. contribution to the workshop on the issues contained in a health and welfare policy for the aged, above.

options open to old people. Specialized or sheltered homes should take their proper place within the broader setting of other policies (particularly health and social services). All those involved had their own experiences to relate of situations in which the correct balance had (or had not) been achieved.

Two Dutch initiatives attracted keen attention: shared housing programmes in which a group of elderly people were enabled to live or share their accommodation with younger people, and a new law making public grants for private old people's homes dependent on their integration into the community.

Integration, coordination and adjustment were the key themes of the meeting. Much work and research still remains to be done, however, and the participants hoped that the Community would throw its weight behind pilot schemes enabling experts in the field (and first and foremost, old people themselves) to deepen and broaden the issues. As one participant remarked, the fact that an idea has percolated through to Community level gives it a better chance of success with national and local authorities.

Alain Coeffard

The reports (in English and French) of both meetings, together with information on Eurolink-Age, can be obtained from:

Mr Alan Leaman, Eurolink-Age, 60 Pilcairn Road, Milcham, Surrey CR4 322, England.

Industry-university cooperation and technological change

(Galway – Ireland, 10-11 December 1984)

A high-level conference was recently organized on the initiative of the Irish Presidency, supported by the Commission, to discuss the issue of industry/university cooperation and technological change. More specifically, its aim was to examine how and why cooperation between industry and higher education, advocated with proven success in the fields of industrial policy, research and development and innovation, was not deemed equally necessary in training for, and the development of, businesses. At a more general level, the aim was to identify the human resource issues involved if the competitiveness of European industry was to be strengthened, and from there to map out the main lines of possible Community action. Some 130 high-ranking experts from government, industry and academic life met to explore the problems emerging and to examine in detail innovative approaches adopted in Member States.

The pace of growth of certain high technology sectors . . . Copyright Pitchal/R.E.A.

The initiative owed nothing to mere chance. First and foremost, it grew out of the proposals put forward by the Commission to the Council in its communication on technological change and social adjustment,[1] together with the conclusions adopted on those proposals by the Councils of Education Ministers and Social Affairs Ministers held in June 1984. It was also the latest in a series of Community initiatives concerning new technologies, both in the field of education and training, and in the field of applied research and development – notably the Esprit programme. Over and above these antecedents, however, three major considerations underlay the conference:

(i) the requirements for skilled and highly-skilled manpower arising out of the introduction and development of new technologies;

(ii) the contribution which education and training can make towards the process of industrial innovation;

(iii) the speed with which knowledge becomes out-of-date and the resulting need – at all levels and in the majority of fields – for regular updating/retraining courses.

Without going into the fine details of each of these considerations, a word or two must be said about the issues arising from the setting in which the problem is placed. Thus, the necessarily incomplete data available show that, whatever may be the difficulty of quantifying current and medium-term needs precisely, **the labour market could undoubtedly absorb more engineers and technicians.** The indications are also that the pace of growth of certain high technology sectors, and more generally, the very rapid dissemination of the new technologies throughout industry and the service trades, will call for qualified staff in numbers exceeding the existing capacity of training systems.

A number of points need to be made to qualify this general statement:

(i) The supply of and demand for skilled and highly-skilled manpower should be analysed against the more general background of the impact of new technologies on employment – in terms of both the

[1] COM (84) 6 final.

transfer and the creation of jobs associated with the introduction (or non-introduction) of a particular process or piece of equipment;

(ii) The shortages of engineers and technicians frequently cited in various contexts concern the supply of qualified young people with a few years' experience at least as much as, if not more than, the numbers completing higher education;

(iii) Shortages tend to evolve in parallel with the technologies themselves. In this context, it should be pointed out that there is an ever-growing demand for young engineers and graduates possessing a combination of skills and qualifications in systems engineering. The very rapid development of technology in these sectors will increase the demand for young graduates and engineers with a sufficiently flexible basic training. Other growth technologies require – and above all, are going to require – skills and occupational profiles which formal training structures are ill-equipped both quantitatively and qualitatively to supply: new materials, 'photonics', biotechnology, etc.

These shortages are not solely quantitative in character: **qualitative inadequacies also occur, primarily as a result of the excessively academic nature of high-level initial training courses and the highly restrictive compartmentalization still to be found within universities, and indeed within firms.** Even now, young graduates leaving universities or similar establishments all too often have very limited experience of industrial and economic realities.

The same mode of analysis could be applied to the contribution made by training to the innovation process, however one chooses to define the innovation – or the process – which, from conception through to development, leads to the introduction of new products, services, production methods or marketing management techniques, there is no question that universities constitute one of the main agents, both as regards research and its application in industry, and as regards the provision of services and, of course, training activities as such.

This strengthening of interaction between the two agents in the innovation process gains its full significance when seen in the light of regional development and the extent of the contribution made by small and medium-sized businesses in the growth sectors. Technological innovation – including innovation in the traditional sectors (the chemicals, engineering, steel, glassmaking, textile and clothing industries, etc.) – does not necessarily take place in a linear fashion following an input/output model.

It develops in a socioeconomic and industrial context heavily conditioned by regional and local characteristics – in terms of human and financial resources and traditions – and by the significance of the role played by innovative small- and medium-sized businesses in carrying through the process. In this respect, the universities, especially the new technically-orientated universities, can make a substantial contribution to the economic development of the regions and communities in which they are located.[1]

It now remains to consider the third facet of the situation outlined above – i.e., the **imperative of continuing education.** It is a frequently stressed fact that engineers and technicians, among others, must retrain and update their knowledge throughout their working lives. This phenomenon is not confined to a single discipline – it is encountered in all occupations as scientific and technological developments multiply, the frontiers of knowledge are pushed forward yet further and new fields of expertise appear which combine and transcend already well-established elements. It is a matter not only of updating scientific and technical knowledge, but also of learning how to apply the latter in the production process, i.e. in industry and the service trades; this entails, amongst other things, the social and industrial management of the technologies involved.

Neither the universities nor the sectoral professional organizations are strangers to this debate. Quite the contrary, in fact. Where the universities are concerned, indeed, continuing education forms an all the more important facet of their role in that it can also represent a very effective instrument for the transfer of knowledge to help them adapt to the socioeconomic and industrial changes in their environment. Given that numerous initiatives of this kind have come into being in the universities, it is not unreasonable to suppose that, through their contribution to continuing education, universities can not only help to improve the quality of their initial training courses, but also find an opportunity to evaluate more accurately their socioeconomic effectiveness, since exposure to a competitive market sensitive to the profitability of private sector provision will enable them to test their capacity to meet the requirements of their environment effectively.

While this general analysis met with overall agreement from the participants, each Member State nevertheless had its own particular direct or indirect ways of strengthening university/industry cooperation over training. Among the initiatives aimed to improve the interface between industry and higher education can be listed the United Kingdom's Teaching Companies, the Centres for the Transfer of Industrial Innovation set up in West Germany and Denmark, and the positive role played by the Science Parks in France and Ireland.

In general, the participants felt that most of the initiatives discussed were directed primarily at applied research, with only an indirect spin-off on training, retraining and updating of know-

[1] c.f. 'Analysis of experiments in the utilization and dissemination of new technologies via the establishment of new businesses with a view to promoting local development.' Social Research, June 1984, Commission of the European Communities.

. . . will call for qualified staff in large numbers

ledge. The quantitative and qualitative shortfalls referred to earlier have led certain Member States to launch operations designed to increase the number of graduates in 'sensitive' areas and foster the adjustment of programmes and training content to industry needs. Conversely, the view was also stressed that it was imperative for European industry to develop a greater understanding of the needs and capacities, not only of the universities, but the educational system generally – only by this could the distortions (including those in the industrial world) brought about by the short-sighted business logic of short-term gains be overcome.

Above and beyond the need to reinforce the quality and quantity of training in new technology, as well as retraining and further training measures, the participants emphasized the fact that collaboration of that order should not be confined to technical and scientific skills only; it was equally essential to **take account of certain social aspects** concerned with the introduction of new technology in firms. Put another way, the implementation of an industrial innovation policy also means that future managerial staff and engineers should be prepared to create and develop new business enterprises. In other words, the participants viewed training for management and social and industrial innovation as important.

The conference organizers did not bind themselves to the goal of coming to any formal conclusions about what action the Community should take in this field. It was felt far more important to ask participants to sketch out the broad lines of possible Community action, the timeliness, not to mention the imperative need, of which had been a recurrent theme of the debate. Without going too closely into all the specific measures proposed by each participant, the following general considerations are worthy of mention:

(i) the establishment of joint training programmes, fostering increased two-way exchanges and training periods at Community level between teachers (and students) and industry;

(ii) the development of training materials and the enrichment of training content in specific areas of common interest, associating university and industrial circles from several establishments;

(iii) the organization of high-level summer schools and seminars for working technicians and engineers;

(iv) teacher exchanges, allowing academics to gain practical experience of the actual needs of the industrial world;

(v) setting up a European network of industry/university resource centres.

It now remains for the Commission to concentrate its attention upon the outcome of the conference to decide whether the time is ripe for a Community initiative – and whether such an initiative is feasible. At all events, it is indisputable that the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the issue of availability of human resources are pivotal to the implementation of an overall strategy directed towards strengthening the capacity of industry and controlling the social and cultural dimensions of new technology.

Andre Kirchberger

Part Three

Employment policy in the Member States

In response to the wish expressed by Member States' delegations in the Council to receive information on developments in national employment policies, the Commission set up a mutual information system called MISEP. The system operates on the basis of contributions from correspondents in public administrations or organizations and a Commission representative.

It provides the relevant authorities in each Member State with regular quarterly information on measures and trends in the employment policies conducted 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.

Developments at a glance

Overall developments

Denmark:	Labour market prospects
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Ireland:	Protection of employees
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United Kingdom:	Enterprise zones

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Germany:	Short-time working
Italy:	Social security contributions

Aid to the unemployed

Germany:	Unemployment allowance coverage
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Germany:	Disadvantaged youths
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Job creation

Belgium:	Replacement contracts Career breaks
Germany:	Job creation ('ABM') changes

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Overall developments

Denmark: Expectations as regards developments on the Danish employment market

In the course of 1984 total employment in Denmark rose by about 40–45000 persons. This represents an employment increase of 2% compared with 1983. At the same time, unemployment had fallen by about 20000 persons at the end of the year. This implies a growth in the labour force of 35–45000 persons compared with a normal increase of about 25000 persons.

Growth in the labour force in 1985 is expected to fall back to its normal level. However, the estimate is surrounded with some uncertainty as the private sector – mainly manufacturing industries – is experiencing a period of strong growth. This may make it possible for more young persons than usual to break off their education in order to get a job. Likewise, it is possible that older workers postpone the timing of their retirement from the labour market as employment prospects improve.

Although the increase in employment is expected to continue throughout 1985 it will not be at the same rate as in 1984. There are three reasons for this: firstly, manufacturing industries cannot be expected to increase their growth rate further, having experienced a growth of about 8% in 1984; secondly, the building and construction sector is expected to stagnate in 1985 as a result of a slight fall in house building and decreasing investments in energy projects – in 1984 it experienced a growth rate of about 8-9%; finally, the remaining occupational and industrial investments are expected to be on a level with 1984.

The overall impact on unemployment will be that the fall which began in 1984 is expected to continue in 1985. Thus average total unemployment will be about 165000 persons or about 13000 persons less than in 1984.

France: ANPE 1985 budget

In 1985 the ANPE (National Employment Agency) budget will amount to FFR 2.667m i.e. an overall increase of 11.7% compared with 1984.

Given the stringency measures within which the State budget has been worked out (a small increase in operating amounts and stagnation in persons employed), the ANPE budget is focused on the guidelines set out in the IX Plan for economic and social development voted by Parliament.

1. Programme for helping jobseekers

(i) There will continue to be an individualized follow-up of jobseekers reaching their 4th and 13th month of unemployment. This programme, which was launched as a prolongation of the scheme for long-term unemployed persons aims to mobilize services provided for jobseekers in order to foster their redeployment: techniques for job search, in-depth guidance sessions, evaluation of the level of vocational abilities, and vocational questionnaires. A budget of FFR 121m has been allocated to this programme.

(ii) Assistance to jobseekers to encourage geographical mobility (transport vouchers and allowances for job search). A budget of FFR 31.5m has been allocated to this programme. The conditions under which this aid is being given are being reexamined by the ANPE managing board to enlarge its use.

(iii) ANPE action for wage-earners affected by industrial restructuring. A specific budget of FFR 7m has been earmarked for the first time in 1985 for ANPE to finance internal actions in this area.

2. Continuation and development of ANPE computerization

ANPE's budget for computerization in 1985 is FFR 128m compared with FFR 56m in 1984. It consists of two parts: operational computerization (managing job offers and demands) and computerizing the administration and financial management of the establishment.

3. Physical facilities

Affected by budgetary restrictions, this programme envisages an additional 17000 square metres.

4. The continuation of the training effort begun in 1984

A budget of FFR 23.4m will enable 100000 trainee days to be provided, 60% of which will be devoted to the recurrent training of the present staff.

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The overall structure of ANPE's budget has continued to change in 1985 as in the previous two years: the increase in the amount of money allocated to financing equipment and intervention materials reflects the greater use of technology in ANPE's operations.

IRELAND: Protection of employees (Employers' Insolvency) Act, 1984

This Act was passed by the Oireachtas (Parliament) in November 1984. It applies to insolvencies arising as and from 22 October 1983, and is designed to protect employees' interests relating to pay in the event of their employer becoming insolvent.

The Act extends the Redundancy Fund which was already in existence and retitles it as the Redundancy and Employers' Insolvency Fund. Under the Act, claims in regard to wages, arrears of statutory minimum wages, holiday pay, sick pay, entitlements under the Anti-Discrimination (Pay) Act, 1974,

the Employment Equality Act, 1977, the Minimum Notice and Terms of Employment Act, 1973, the Unfair Dismissals Act, 1977, civil court orders in respect of wages, sick pay, holiday pay or unfair dismissal and outstanding contributions to company pension schemes, will be met from the Fund subject to certain limits and contributions.

The Act also reduces the weekly threshold for eligibility under the Redundancy Payments Acts from 20 hours to 18 hours and under the Minimum Notice and Terms of Employment and Unfair Dismissals Acts from 21 hours to 18 hours.

European Community reference: Council Directive of 20 October 1980 – approximation of laws of Member States relating to the protection of employees in the event of insolvency of their employer.

Italy: Regional employment commission

Law No 863 of 19. 12. 1984 voted after amendment of DL 726 (decree with the force of law) of 30. 10. 1984 (formerly decree No 94)

Law No 863 has brought new types of work contracts into the Italian legal system. It deals in particular with the solidarity contract, the training and work contract and the part-time contract. It also introduces the possibility of hiring by name (nominativamente) 50% of the manpower which is taken on numerically (numericamente).

Furthermore, Article 4 sets out the composition of the regional employment commission

(a) the Minister for Labour and Social Insurance or an Under-Secretary of State of the same ministry or the director of the regional labour and employment office or else, in the case of his absence or impediment, another officer of equal rank. This member assumes the functions of president;

(b) a member of the regional council appointed by the president of this same council, with the functions of vice-president. The vice-president, with the previous agreement of the president, can convene the commission and fix the agenda;

(c) two members appointed by the regional council of the region in question, having a single vote;

(d) six members appointed by the most representative trade union organizations at the national level;

(e) four members appointed by the most representative employers' associations at the national level; at least one of these must be appointed by the associations of enterprises having State shareholding and one by the associations of cooperatives in areas in which these have special importance as regards employment;

(f) two members appointed by the most nationally representative non-industry employers' associations and by organizations of self-employed persons, provided they are represented in CNEL (National Economic and Labour Council).

Every full member of the regional employment commission, with the exception of the president and the vice-president, will have an alternate.

The regional employment commission is convened by the president or the vice-president and whenever a request is made by half the members plus one.

Meetings of the commission can be attended and addressed by the following persons: the head of the regional labour inspectorate, the director of the regional labour and employment office and one member, appointed by the Minister for Labour and Social Insurance, entrusted with advising on the implementation of principles of equal treatment between men and women as regards work. An officer of the regional labour and employment office having a grade not inferior to that of a divisional director acts as secretary to the commission.

According to the matter to be dealt with and taking into account the characteristics of the labour market, other persons can be invited to participate in the commission's work or admitted without voting rights, such as representatives of trade union organizations of an industry or a sector, the chief regional school inspector or one of his deputies, or representatives of universities of that region, appointed by the respective rectors.

United Kingdom: Enterprise zones

Enterprise zones (EZs) were started as an experiment in the UK to see how far private sector activity could be stimulated **in run-down urban areas** by the removal of some tax burdens and by relaxing or speeding up certain bureaucratic controls.

The individual sites chosen for EZ status vary widely but all are located in areas of above average unemployment. In size they range from about 50 to over 450 hectares. EZs are not part of regional policy nor are they directly connected with any of the government's other policies such as those for inner cities or derelict land. The sites chosen continue to benefit from whatever aid is available under these policies.

There are now 25 EZs in existence. Eleven of these were designated between June 1981 and April 1982 and the remaining 14 were designated between July 1983 and April 1984.

Each EZ lasts for a period of 10 years from the date on which it was designated and during that time the following benefits are available to both new and existing industrial and commercial businesses:

(i) exemption from rates (local property taxes) on industrial and commercial property;

(ii) exemption from Development Land Tax;

(iii) 100% allowances for corporation and income tax purposes for capital expenditure on industrial and commercial buildings;

(iv) employees are exempt from industrial training levies and from the requirement to supply information to industrial training boards;

(v) a greatly simplified planning regime: developments that conform with the published scheme for each zone will not require individual planning permission;

(vi) those controls remaining in force will be administered more speedily;

(vii) applications from firms in EZs for certain customs facilities will be processed as a matter of priority and certain criteria relaxed;

(viii) government requests for statistical information will be reduced.

The Department of the Environment, who have policy responsibility for EZs, commissioned a firm of private consultants to monitor the progress of the first 11 zones. In their third and final report, published in January 1984, the consultants found that by 31 December 1983 the zones had been successful in attracting over 1000 firms providing some 10000 jobs, half of which were new ones.

Further monitoring of the zones is now being carried out using government data. The results of this are not yet available. However, reports received from the promoters of the 14 new EZs, at meetings with ministers, indicate that these zones are particularly successful in attracting new firms.

Employment maintenance

Germany: Extending the allowance for short-time working

The Federal Ministry for Labour and Social Affairs has brought in a statutory order enabling firms which are on short-time working for a protracted period to continue to pay a short-time allowance in 1985 for 24 months. The new order is in force until 31 March 1986. The legal openings for extending the duration of claiming short-time allowances have thus been fully exhausted.

Legally, a company cannot draw on short-time allowances for longer than the maximum period of time set out by law. Firms working short-time which come up against the maximum time limits without being able to revert to full-time working on a permanent basis, are being advised – in accordance with the statutory regulation – to create the necessary conditions for re-qualifiying for short-time allowances by not drawing on them for at least three months.

The maximum length of payment of short-time allowances in 1985 was extended by an order of 17 December 1984 to 24 months. The special ruling for steel companies expired on 31 December 1984.

Italy: Social security contributions

Decree with the force of Law No 900 of 22 December 1984 extends the reduction in social security charges and the relief in contributions in the Mezzogiorno.

The decree provides for:

(i) the extension until 31 May 1985 of the reduction in social security charges;

(ii) the extension until 31 May 1985 of the relief in contributions in the Mezzogiorno.

The cost of implementing the decree is estimated at LIT 4775000 million in 1985.

The decree, which comes into operation immediately, has to be passed by the Chambers within 60 days.

Germany: Improving the unemployment insurance coverage of older workers

The proportion of persons drawing unemployment benefit in the grand total of those drawing benefits for the unemployed (unemployment benefit and unemployment assistance) has declined considerably since 1983. This can be explained in particular by the increasing length of unemployment of older workers.

To counteract this development, the maximum length of time for which unemployment benefit can be claimed was raised as of 1 January 1985 from 12 to 18 months for persons having completed their 49th year at the moment they qualified for unemployment benefit and having been employed and paid contributions for at least six of the last seven years. This extension in the payment of unemployment benefit is included in the amendment to the Employment Promotion Act and the Pensions Insurance Act. Since there is expected to be an improvement in the labour market situation in the foreseeable future, the regulation was limited to 31 December 1989.

Prevention of abuse

As of 1 January 1985, the period of disqualification will be raised from 8 to 12 weeks for persons having brought about their own unemployment. The aim is to improve the prevention of abuses. This regulation is linked with the extended duration of the entitlement to unemployment benefit and is hence also limited to 31 December 1989.

Lowering the contribution rate

The lower demand on resources of the Federal Employment Institute has enabled the contribution rate to be lowered from 1 January 1985 by 0.2% to 4.4% (2.2% each for the employer and the employee). The Act provides at the same time for an increase in the contribution to the pension insurance from 18.5% to 18.7%.

Netherlands: Female jobseekers aided

10%, or HFL 35m, of the financial resources which the regional labour offices (GABs) can draw on in 1985 within the framework of the programme budgeting system (the so-called 'task assigning policy') are earmarked for women wanting to enter or re-enter the labour market. To this end, they can take advantage of training in applying for a job, vocational guidance and work experience projects, training projects, individual training activities and placement promotion measures.

Training

Germany: Training disadvantaged youths

The Federal Government has provided another 5 000 places on a programme for promoting the vocational training of disadvantaged young people. The programme seeks to provide recognized vocational training to young people who have social, personal or educational deficiencies.

The amount allocated to the programme in the 1985 budget has been increased by a further DM 86m to a total of DM 256m. During the 1984/85 training year, this sum will provide 18 500 young people with training in a recognized trade, some 13 500 in general training establishments and up to 5 000 within companies drawing on the support of experienced monitors.

37% of the programme participants are foreigners. In the 1983/84 training year, the proportion of girls among the German participants reached 43%, which exceeded the proportion of girls in the dual system. The proportion of girls among the foreigners was 17% compared with 10% in the first two years.

Training schemes under the programmes are currently being carried out by some 350 programme operators

Helping women to re-enter the labour market

in virtually all employment office areas. Training is in 189 occupations, the greatest proportion being in engineering (39%).

In the framework of the enlarged programme, regions with relatively few training places will be provided with a one-off number of 2 500 training places in the 1984/85 training year which are to be given to unsuccessful applicants for other training places who have completed short-course secondary school ('Hauptschule'). This should provide an additional contribution to improve the situation as regards training places for girls.

European Community reference: Council Resolution of 11 July 1983 on vocational training policies in the Community in the 1980s.

Training the youth

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United Kingdom: Proposed experimental training loans scheme

In the White Paper 'Training for Jobs' (Cmnd 9135, January 1984) the Government announced its intention of examining the possibility of introducing a scheme of loans for adults who want to finance training of their own choice. The results of that examination were published by the Secretary of State for Employment in a consultation paper in November 1984.

Subject to the outcome of consultations, it is proposed to mount an experimental pilot scheme of training loans, to begin in the financial year 1985/86 for which an additional UKL 5m has been set aside. The pilot scheme would be separate from and additional to existing training arrangements.

The proposed scheme could be one way of providing wider opportunities for adults to acquire and improve their skills, which is one of the national training objectives. It is in line with the government's policy to encourage people to regard training as an investment and to encourage individual enterprise.

The main purpose of the proposed pilot scheme is to test the market for people who may want to undertake training independently of either their employer or the government.

The pilot scheme would be closely monitored in order to assess its long-term viability and whether, in time, a permanent scheme might be introduced.

The main features of the proposed pilot scheme are:

(i) loans would be shared between the government and existing financial institutions such as banks;

(ii) individuals would apply directly to a financial institution participating in the scheme, which would handle all administration;

(iii) the loan would be made in commercial terms with payments made to the financial institution according to a timetable negotiated between it and the applicant;

(iv) the financial institution would assess the risks and determine the terms on which it would be prepared to offer the loan;

(v) the loan could cover maintenance as well as fees and the individual would be expected to contribute, for example, 20% of the total cost, with the remainder as a loan;

(vi) the type of courses covered would be vocational full-time, part-time or 'distance learning' courses;

(vii) it would only be open to adults aged at least 21, resident in Great Britain and who do not receive any other form of public support for the course in question.

Scale of the pilot scheme

The Government is prepared to earmark UKL 5m for the pilot scheme to be allocated to participating financial institutions and passed on by them in the form of loans. With matching contributions from the financial institutions this would enable some 10 000 loans averaging around UKL 1 000 each to be made.

European Community reference: Council Resolution of 11 July 1983 on vocational training policies in the Community in the 1980s.

Job creation

Belgium: Extending the replacement contract

Law of 22 January 1985 – Chapter IV – Section 4 – Subsection 1

The principle

To ensure that the work that is available is better distributed and to facilitate hiring temporary workers to replace workers whose contract of employment has been suspended, this law extends to all workers the possibility of signing a replacement contract which has until now been reserved solely for employees.

Furthermore, whereas the current ruling only allows a 'replacement contract' to be signed in cases of military service or of incapacitation for work, the new provision authorizes such a contract to be concluded in all cases where a contract is suspended, except in cases of lack of work resulting from layoffs (economic reasons), the weather, strikes or lock-outs.

The person replacing the worker whose contract is thus suspended can be hired under conditions which depart from the rules of the law of 3 July 1978 relating to contracts of employment in as far as the duration of the contract and the period of notice are concerned.

Given the range of situations, the parties themselves decide whether or not there is a period of notice and its clauses.

Need to put matters in writing

In order to avoid any improper pressure on the worker, the reasons for and the identity of the worker(s) replaced as well as the conditions for hiring must be put into writing for each individual worker at the very latest at the time of his entering service.

Maximum length: two years

The maximum duration of the replacement contract is two years. This holds for successive contracts concluded with the same worker without there being any break attributable to the latter between these contracts.

Where there is nothing in writing or where the two year period is exceeded, the contract falls under the same conditions as contracts concluded for an indefinite period of time.

Belgium: Career breaks

Law of 22 January 1985 (Chapter IV – Section 5)

This scheme consists of two parts: the first enables the King to award, subject to certain limits and conditions, an allowance to a worker whose contract of employment has been suspended: the second contains special provisions for workers so that the National Employment Office (ONEm) can, under certain conditions, pay an allowance to full-time workers who want to carry on working but on a half-time basis.

1. Career break

The law enables workers having at least six months seniority within the enterprise and giving three months notice either:

(i) to suspend their contract of work or employment completely for a period of between six months and one year on the basis of a one-off agreement between the employer and the worker; or

(ii) to request that a collective work agreement be applied which foresees such a suspension provided that the worker is replaced by a person drawing full unemployment benefit.

This claimant of full unemployment benefit can carry out a completely different job from the replaced worker taking a career break.

The law regulates protection against dismissal in cases where a worker makes use of the opportunity of taking a career break. The employer is not allowed to take any action aimed at affecting the work relationship except for serious 'sufficient' reasons. A reason is deemed 'sufficient' if it would be considered so by a judge, and if its nature and origin fall outside the suspension envisaged here.

If, despite these provisions, an employer unilaterally puts an end to a work contract or terminates it without a serious or sufficient motive, he will be required to pay a lump sum compensation equal to six months pay, without prejudice to the compensation due to the worker in the case of his work contract being broken.

2. Possibility of continuing to work half-time

The same law provides for two possibilities for the worker having served the same enterprise for at least six months and giving three months notice:

(i) to request half-time work on the basis of an agreement with his employer; or

(ii) to request that a collective work agreement be applied which provides for such a system.

In both cases the workers have to be replaced by a worker drawing full unemployment benefit.

If a worker aged 50 years or more, who has made such an agreement or has asked for the collective work agreement – which provides for a similar regulation – to be applied, is dismissed by his/her employer, the length of his/her period of notice must be determined as if he/she had still been employed full time.

For calculating the allowance compensating for notice, account must also be taken of the length of the period of notice which would have been required if the worker had continued to work full time.

3. Break allowance

The worker who reaches an agreement with his/her employer either to suspend his/her work contract com-

pletely, as provided for under 1, or to work half time from then on, as provided for under 2, or who asks for a collective work agreement to be applied which covers such a suspension or such a half-time system, will receive an allowance provided he/she is replaced for the same period by a person drawing full unemployment benefit. The rules and regulations concerning the granting of this allowance will be set out in a royal decree.

4. Social security aspects

The necessary measures will be taken to adapt legislation relating to social security for the benefit of the workers included under points 1 and 2 above.

The employer who does not respect the obligation he/she has signed of replacing these persons by a person drawing full unemployment benefit has to pay ONEm a lump sum equal to the amount of the allowance made to the worker.

The conditions laid down under 1 and 2 above can, under certain conditions, be extended to statutory and/or temporary staff employed by the State, provinces, municipalities and public establishments which are dependent on them.

Germany: Changes in job creation ('ABM') regulations

Changes in the rules on implementing job creation measures ('ABM') were introduced on 1 March 1985.

These are spelt out in the order of the governing body of the Federal Employment Institute of 13 December 1984 which is designed to make the whole system more practical.

Changes concern:

(1) The *target group*. That of 'the difficult to place' has been enlarged to include:

(a) the long-term unemployed (those out of work for 12 months or more);

(b) persons over 50 years of age (the previous figure was 55);

(c) young people under 25 years of age who will not in the foreseeable future be able to be placed in vocational training or on a vocational training scheme.

(2) The temporary measures for the benefit of *unemployed trainers* have been extended to 31 December 1987 (5a).

(3) In determining the amount of the subsidy, the interests of the programme operator and his/her own resources have in future to be weighed up against the labour market impact of the scheme (10).

The *subsidy* should amount to 60% to 80% of the remuneration to be paid.

For schemes which deal mainly with workers falling into the difficult-to-place group, the rate of the subsidy can amount to:

(a) 100% in so-called 'bad labour office areas' (according to 87, section 2, p. 3 AFG); and

(b) 90% in the remaining labour office areas (with the exception of those having relatively good labour market situations).

The accounting procedures have been significantly simplified.

Special categories of workers

Belgium: Premium for foreigners to return home

Law of 22 January 1985 (Chapter IV – Section 8)

Foreigners who have been receiving unemployment benefit for more than a year can, on their request, receive a 'reinsertion premium'.

The scheme is based on the *voluntary departure* of the persons in question as well as of their financially dependent relatives and relations living with them. This is defined as any person not having earned income of at least BFR 160000 per year – this amount being linked to the cost of living index of the Kingdom.

The following groups of persons do not qualify for the scheme: beneficiaries of EEC rules and directives as well as comparable categories, political refugees as well as comparable categories, and foreigners who have been detained or expelled.

The decision to grant a premium is deferred if the beneficiary is in custody resulting from an administrative or judicial decision. Granting the premium invalidates the work permit and the residence permit of the beneficiary of the premium and of the relatives and relations who must accompany him. The beneficiary as well as the aforementioned relatives and relations will no longer be admitted as of right to reside in the Kingdom for more than three months.

The *reinsertion premium* is, in principle, equal to 312 times the daily amount of the unemployment benefit received for the last day of indemnification. The premium is increased:

(i) by BFR 50000 for the spouse admitted or authorized to reside in the Kingdom or authorized to set up home within it and living with the beneficiary of the premium at the time of his/her applying for it;

(ii) by BFR 15000 for each single legitimate, natural or adopted child aged less than 18 at the time of making the request who lives under the same roof, as well as for children over 18 years of age who can claim family allowances.

Increases are not granted for persons who could themselves claim a reinsertion premium.

Denmark: Long-term unemployed – training offer and new enterprise allowance

Under the job offer scheme – as it has been operating until now – unemployed persons have been entitled to a job offer of seven months' duration (in the public sector) or nine months' duration (in the private sector) after two years of unemployment during which period they were receiving unemployment benefits. On termination of the job offer period they again qualified for unemployment benefits and they could thus continue in an uninterrupted chain of unemployment benefits and job offers.

These repeated job offers alternating with periods of unemployment do not open up any real perspectives and provide only poor chances of returning to employment. To improve their chances of becoming engaged in some useful and constructive activities in the form of training or setting up a business, the following *proposals* have been made to change the job offer scheme.

Training offer

Unemployed persons who have already been through one job offer and who have reached the age of 25 are now offered 18 months' training during which they receive a training allowance. The training must take place within the first two and a half years with unemployment benefits after termination of the job offer period. The training allowance corresponds to the amount of the unemployment benefits which the unemployed persons would be entitled to, as opposed to the training allowance for young unemployed persons under the age of 25 where the allowance corresponds to half the maximum amount of unemployment benefits.

The normal training period with a training allowance may last up to 18 months, but it will be possible to prolong it by a further period of up to six months.

During the training period the unemployed person is not under any duty to interrupt the training in order to take on appropriate or reasonable work.

The whole training system is open to the unemployed. The government will ensure that a sufficient number of training offers are available in fields with good employment prospects. The training offers are adapted to both the need for further and advanced training of the unemployed and to the demand for labour on the labour market, taking regional differences into account.

Allowance to entrepreneurs

In addition to the training offer it will also become possible to set up a business with an allowance. This will correspond to 50% of the maximum rate of unemployment benefits, i.e., about DKR 52000 per year for persons who are insured full-time against unemployment and nearly DKR 35000 for persons insured part-time. The allowance may be granted for up to three and a half years after termination of the job offer period. During this period it will be possible to revert to the employee status.

A person becoming unemployed after the first job offer will thus have the following options: participating in training with a training allowance, setting up his/her own business with an allowance for entrepreneurs or receiving unemployment benefits as an ordinary jobseeker.

A person having undergone vocational training of at least 18 months' duration will – if he/she becomes umemployed on completion of the training – receive unemployment benefits at the special starting rate for persons who have just completed training, i.e., about DKR 83000 per year. A person who has been in employment for 26 weeks will – as under the old scheme – again be entitled to unemployment benefits. In both cases the person concerned will thus have obtained such an attachment to the labour market that he will be entitled to a job offer after a certain period of unemployment.

If an unemployed person does not undergo vocational training of at least 18 months' duration or does not obtain 26 weeks' employment he/she preserves his/her right to unemployment benefits for a total period of two and a half years after termination of the first job offer in accordance with the existing rules. It is also intended to prolong the period for which an unemployed person is entitled to unemployment benefits but benefits are paid at a lower rate.

Extension of the benefit period

During the first year of the extended benefit period the unemployed person 70% of the maximum amount of unemployment benefits, i.e., about DKR 73000 per year. After this period he will receive 55% of the maximum amount of benefits, i.e., about DKR 57000 per year. There is no time limit as regards this last-mentioned rate of benefits.

For members whose benefit period has been extended the rule concerning refusal of job offers have become stricter. Thus the unemployed person now has a duty to take on 'reasonable' work – and not as previously 'appropriate' work – to which he is assigned by the public employment service. The public employment service has also been asked to intensify its activities to provide jobs for these categories of the unemployed.

Advancing the time of the job offer

As a further improvement of the job offer scheme, consideration is being given to advancing the time at which the job offer is made to unemployed persons who have attained the age of 25 so that the job offer is given after

one and a half years of unemployment. Legislation in this field currently provides for the job offer to be given after 21 months of unemployment, but on average it is given after 22 to 23 months of unemployment.

Advancing the time will take place administratively in line with the diminishing pressure on the job offer scheme.

European Community reference: Council Resolution of 13 December 1984 on action to combat long-term unemployment.

Italy: Special youth employment project

The Ministry of Labour has proposed and the Council of Ministers approved a bill concerning a special project for the employment of young people. The bill is at present (January 1985) being examined by Parliament.

The bill provides for temporarily hiring 30000 young persons aged between 18 and 29 years by means of a training-work contract. Applicants have also to have been, at the date of submitting the project, registered for at least 12 months in the first and second category of the placement lists. Projects are approved by the Minister for Labour after seeking the advice of an appropriate evaluation unit. Hirings can be made either by private companies or by public for-profit corporations. Employers are responsible for the training courses for which LIT 279000 million has been allocated for the two year period 1985/86.

Priority will be given to areas with a high level of youth unemployment, young persons who are difficult to integrate into working life, and employment projects which have been agreed to with the trade unions.

Wage subsidies of 15% to 40% are foreseen for the training period. A grant of LIT 100000 per month for a one year period will be made for each worker who will subsequently be kept in employment for an indefinite period of time.

European Community reference: Council Resolution of 11 July 1983 on vocational training policies in the Community in the 1980s.

Netherlands: Experimental START project

Termed 'JOB', an experiment has been launched in the catchment areas of the Veendam, Enschede and Nieuwe Waterweg-Noord (Schiedam) labour offices. Its *aim* is to provide long-term unemployed youths with work experience through temporary employment agencies. Thus the START project of the Minister for Social Affairs and Employment has been implemented for an experimental period until 1 April 1985.

The Cabinet has allocated HFL 100 m aimed in the first instance at putting some 16000 young people to work in temporary jobs. They represent nearly one third of the total long-term unemployed young people (50000).

Employers from both the market and non-trading sectors have been asked to offer an opening of from 20 to 32 hours per week. The persons concerned sign a subcontracting agreement with START – the temporary work agency in which the State as well as the trade unions and the employers' organizations are involved. This has the advantage for the employer of avoiding administrative bother and of reducing complications at the beginning and end of an employment contract. Furthermore, employers receive a wage subsidy amounting to 33 % of the minimum (youth) wage.

The minister has enlisted the services of START since its administrative set-up enabled it to meet the requirements of carrying out the project.

Netherlands: Proposed amendment to the Sheltered Labour Act (WSW)

One of the amendments to the Sheltered Labour Act (WSW) which has been submitted to the Second Chamber involves the introduction of a minimum age of 18 years for persons to be considered for sheltered employment. The introduction of this minimum age to qualify for sheltered employment links up with other sub-divisions of the social security system. In the explanatory note to the bill the government states its opinion that until the age of 18 young persons should normally count on being provided for by their parents.

A second modification to the WSW aims at having foreigners, legally living in the Netherlands, admitted to sheltered work in the same way as Dutch nationals. Until now in order to be admitted to sheltered employment, foreigners had to go through a procedure for equal treatment.

Thirdly, it is proposed to drop the compulsory registration at the labour office for those in sheltered employment. At present, anyone accepting sheltered work has to remain registered as a jobseeker at the labour office. The regulation is based on the premise that sheltered employment has undoubtedly a rehabilitating character and that many persons will be able to go on from there to normal working life. But it has become evident that compulsory registration is no longer meaningful since only a very few workers move on from sheltered work to other work. The majority remain dependent on sheltered work for permanent employment.

Working time

Netherlands: Early retirement regulations (VUT)

A recent study by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment shows that most workers are covered at present by a regulation on early retirement (VUT). This is the case of almost 90% (more than 2 million workers) who are covered by a collective agreement. Such regulations also apply to civil servants and assimilated persons (known in Dutch as 'trend-followers').

The study indicates that most workers can retire early at the age of 62. In 1982 a first push was given to a further reduction towards 61 1/2 to 61 years, a trend which gained further ground in 1983.

Netherlands: Part-time work – benefits exceed costs

The experience of Dutch companies with part-time work is the subject of a publication produced on the initiative and under the auspices of the Socio-economic Council.

It brings out in particular that there are three reasons for introducing part-time work:

(i) it is of interest to the organization;

(ii) people want it;

(iii) and, for some time now, it has been a means of redistributing work.

Nearly 50% of wage-earning women work part-time, compared to 5% of men. To stimulate part-time work as a means of redistributing work thus requires targeting on men as much as women.

Whether part-time work fosters emancipation cannot be determined in advance. On the one hand, there are more openings for women to find paid employment but, on the other, part-time work is exclusively found in lower positions and concerns lower paid work. Furthermore, labour law and social security cannot be easily adapted to part-time work.

As regards the economics of part-time work, the benefits are in many cases greater than the costs. However, every enterprise needs to make its own cost/benefit analysis.

Placement

France: Computerizing ANPE

One of the prime objectives given to the National Employment Agency, ANPE, in the 'Acting for employment' programme of the IX national plan is that of its computerization. This should be one of the key conditions for improving its services to users by changing its working methods.

This computerization covers two areas:

1. Operational computerization

Developing the computerization of the Agency's operations during the IX Plan (1984–88) lies within the framework of the overall computerization scheme drawn up for the public employment service (ANPE, AFPA and the External Services of the Ministry of Labour).

Four computerized programmes are under way in 1985:

(i) Setting up a *computerized job demand system (GIDE)* linked in with UNEDIC's computerized system

This scheme computerizes the enrolment of jobseekers in real time, updates the files of jobseekers and periodically brings demand up to date. All units will be equipped with this system and will be operational by early 1986.

(ii) *Computerized operational management system of job offers (SAGE system)*

Initiated experimentally in February 1983 in some units in the Rouen region, this application was evaluated in depth in 1984. It computerizes incoming job offers, their handling within the local agency, the help in matching job supply and demand, the follow-up of placement offers and the system for displaying job offers. This application enables all job offers in any one of the units of the Rouen employment catchment area to be consulted in real time.

(iii) *Testing a computerized system for the operational management of job demands (GIDE 2)*

GIDE is being applied in Upper Normandy in a special way: in addition to computerizing job demand management (enrolment, updating) the data of job demand which is needed for its operational processing (help in matching, the follow-up of job demands and implementing services) is also being computerized.

This improved version of computerized management of job demand will be experimented with in 1985 in Upper Normandy jointly with the SAGE system which has itself undergone some improvements after the trial period.

Extending the joint use of these two applications of computerized job supply and demand will be considered as the regions are equipped with computers.

(iv) *Computerizing flows of job offers (MECODE)*

This application is based on using telematics for circulating job offers in an employment catchment area to the agencies and making the data available to jobseekers in certain points outside the agencies (town halls). It has been experimented with since 1984 in the Riviera area and will be tried out in 1985 in Upper Normandy.

Developments relating to the last three applications are, in certain

regions, being financially helped by the regional councils (the regionally elected assembly).

2. Computerizing management tools

Devolving to regional officers some of the responsibilities previously borne by ANPE headquarters is part of a new move to set up smoothly functioning and reliable management tools.

This is the setting within which the following will be achieved by the end of 1985:

(i) computerizing personnel management and payments;

(ii) procedures for accounting and financial administration;

(iii) the file of the network's resources (local agencies and supplies);

(iv) a computerized system of following up operations (operating statistics).

Bringing in these management tools will be done in an integrated way so as to enable data to be entered and consulted in real time according to the various levels of responsibility.

Netherlands: Temporary employment agencies

The 1983 report on the working of the Law on Temporary Agencies shows that there was a considerable increase over the previous year in the number of people finding temporary work through a temporary employment agency. Since 1970, temporary work agencies have to be licenced by the Minister for Social Affairs and Employment. The most important regulation continues to be that subcontracting (supplying workers on contract) has to be restricted to temporary work.

As from 1 January 1985 the minister has brought in modifications to some of the regulations. Thus temporary employment agencies can now supply workers on contract for a maximum period of six months. Previously subcontracted workers have only been allowed to stay with a company for three months at the end of which there could be a three months' extension. From now on workers can be hired out for a maximum of six months without the term being prolonged. The new regulations also lift the ban on supplying workers on contract who are under 18 years of age.

Miscellaneous

Germany: Discussions with Yugoslavian and Turkish authorities

A German delegation led by Dr Manfred Leve, subdivision head in the Federal Employment Institute (BA) negotiated with Turkish authorities in Turkey in November on improving information and advice to Turkish nationals in the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG).

These negotiations followed in content the agreement which had been reached in October between BA's President, Dr Franke, and Professor Djordjevic, head of the Yugoslavian Federal Office for Employment Affairs.

The negotiations in both cases covered in essence the following matters:

(i) intensifying the advisory and information services for Yugoslavian/Turkish workers in the FRG;

(ii) taking account of the occupational and labour market situation in the country of origin when advising young people and adults living in the FRG;

(iii) exchanging information to these ends between the Yugoslavian/Turkish labour administrations and BA;

(iv) advising and enhancing the linguistic and vocational training of Yugoslavian and Turkish nationals living in the FRG;

(v) providing the necessary material for advising and informing Yugoslavian/Turkish workers and their families who are willing to return to their country of origin in so far as the requisite material can be provided by the Yugoslavian/Turkish authorities;

(vi) arranging regular exchanges of experiences between the labour administrations concerned;

(vii) contributing to the vocational further training of the staff of the Turkish labour administration provided that the financial and linguistic conditions are fulfilled;

(viii) it was agreed with the Yugoslavian authorities to include those subjects in vocational training measures that will lead to recognized vocations in Yugoslavia;

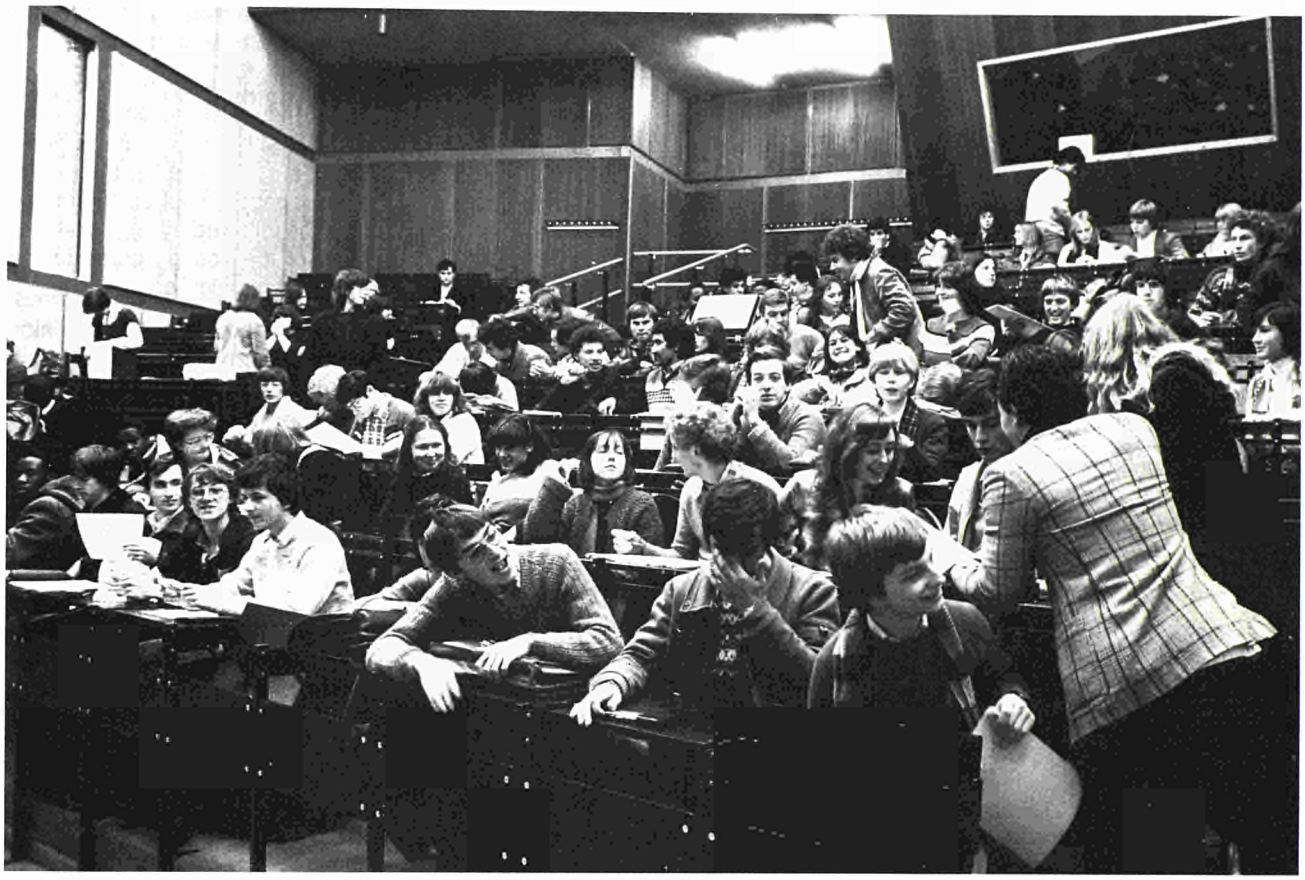
(ix) the importance of cooperation with Yugoslavian training establishments in the FRG was underlined.

Ireland: School leavers' survey

The main results of the Department of Labour's annual survey of the career paths of second level school leavers from the 1982–83 academic year were published in November 1984. In line with the practice in previous years almost a full year was allowed to elapse before conducting the survey in May/June 1984.

The *main findings* are that an estimated 28400 leavers, just under 46% of the total, were in employment and more than 15600 leavers (25%) were enrolled in further education. A further 13400 (21.6%) were still seeking their first job, while 2300 leavers (3.7%) were unemployed after having had a job and lost it. Emigration accounted for 1500 leavers (2.4%).

These findings show an improvement in the position of school leavers with a 3.1% increase in employment compared with the previous year while unemployment showed a 2.1% decline. There was a small decline of



Most young people want to go on to further education or training before looking for a job

1.5% among those pursuing further education. The number who had emigrated showed an increase of 1.1% over the previous annual survey.

The results are based on a *national sample* of 2050 school leavers from an estimated total of 62200 students who left second level education.

Ireland: 'After school' – AnCO report of a national survey on attitudes to work and training after school

What are the job hopes of young people in Ireland and their attitude to work and career guidance activities? Are they attracted to work in industry and how interested are they in AnCO training? These were just some of the questions a national survey of almost 4000 young people set out to answer. The survey was carried out by AnCO – The Industrial Training Authority.

As much as half the young people surveyed said they did not expect to get the job they really wanted and less than half the parents actually expected their children to get the job they most wanted for them. Most school-going young people have their sights set on the traditionally popular careers and the overall impression of employment in a factory is, still, negative. About 75% of the young people associated such work with the image of repetitive tasks and the threat of redundancy. Boys were more inclined than girls to see industrial work in a positive light.

The opportunities that exist in industry for training and acquiring new skills need to be highlighted for young people. They also need to be shown how certain career aspirations (particularly in new technological areas) can be met within the industrial sector. The most important feature of any job in the eyes of the young people was that it should offer them the opportunity to use their talents and abilities. Less than one in ten regarded money as the most important factor. Generally young people preferred to look for career advice from their parents or career guidance teachers rather than from an official agency. Leaflets were seen as the best source of career information.

Most young people wanted to go on to further education or training before looking for a job. While almost all knew about AnCO in a general way they lacked real knowledge of courses and allowances. Over half were interested

in training with AnCO though interest was confined to a narrow range of courses – evidence of an information gap.

Given young people's job hopes, and their interest in acquiring further education/training as established by this survey, two major recommendations emerge:

(i) first, that young people be helped to appreciate the value of any formalized work situation and the transferable skills that can be used in a variety of areas;

(ii) that the content of educational and training programmes reflect the scope for development the young people so clearly desire.

United Kingdom: Trade Union Act 1984

The Trade Union Act 1984 has now received the Royal Assent.

Its main purposes are to:

(i) provide for the members of trade union governing bodies to be directly elected by individual secret ballot of the union's members;

(ii) make trade unions' immunity for organizing industrial action conditional on the holding of secret and properly conducted strike ballots;

(iii) enable members of trade unions with political funds to vote at regular intervals on whether their union should continue to spend money on party political matters.

Timing of implementation

The act's provisions come into force as follows:

(i) provisions requiring trade unions to begin work on compiling a register of their members' names and addresses for use in union elections come into force immediately; trade unions are under a duty to complete the register by the time the remaining provisions on union elections come into force which will be towards the end of 1985;

(ii) the strike ballot provisions came into effect on 26 September 1984 and apply to any industrial action which is initiated by a trade union after that date;

(iii) The political fund provisions will come into effect on 31 March 1985 and will mean that all trade unions with political funds will need to hold review ballots by 31 March 1986 unless they have already balloted their members in the previous 10 years.

In more detail the act:

(i) requires trade unions to ensure that all voting members of their executive committees are directly elected at least once every five years;

(ii) provides that all elections for voting members of union executives must be conducted by secret postal ballot unless the trade union can be satisfied that a workplace ballot (the only permitted alternative to a postal ballot) will:

  (a) be secret and free from any interference or constraint;

  (b) provide a convenient opportunity for members to vote during, or immediately before or after, working hours without direct cost to themselves;

  (c) be one in which voting is by the marking of a ballot paper and in which votes are fairly and accurately counted;

(iii) requires trade unions to compile and maintain an accurate and up to date register of their members' names and addresses;

(iv) makes it a condition of legal immunity that trade unions do not organize strikes or other industrial action without first ascertaining by means of a ballot held not more than four weeks before the action begins that a majority of those voting wish to take such action;

(v) provides that ballots on strikes and other industrial action must be conducted by post or at the workplace, must involve the marking of a ballot paper, must be secret and must be followed by an announcement of the voting figures to the members concerned;

(vi) provides that any trade union which has adopted a political fund resolution under the Trade Union Act 1913 must pass a new resolution by means of a secret ballot of all its members at intervals of not more than 10 years if it wishes to continue to spend money on party political matters;

(vii) updates the balloting provisions of the 1913 Act by providing that the Certification Officer will not approve rules for political fund ballots unless they provide for postal or workplace ballots;

(viii) updates and clarifies the 1913 Act's definition of the 'political objects' on which a trade union may spend money only if it does so from a separate political fund;

(ix) places a duty on employers who have 'check-off' arrangements deducting trade union subscriptions from their employees' pay not to continue to deduct the political levy from any employee who certifies that he has contracted out of paying the levy.

New information technologies and social change – US and Japan

The technological transformation raises a number of critical questions. How will computerized manufacturing automation affect employment in the coming years, both the quality and the quantity of the jobs that will be available? What will be the effects on the organization of the workplace and the quality of life on the job? What government policies are being pursued in this area and how adequate are they? What is the response of labour and management?

This article will seek to examine some of the current events in the United States and Japan that address these essential questions.[1]

United States

Diffusion

In many respects the application of microelectronics to the workplace is in its infancy in the United States. Although the capabilities of new forms of automation are impressive, it is impossible to extrapolate the extent of their use on the sole basis of their technological promise. Economic and social factors also strongly influence diffusion. To take a little known example, computerized machining or numerical control (NC), a pivotal technology in factory production, was developed in the early 1950s at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Its early diffusion disappointed its proponents, as it lagged far behind many projections. Its sophisticated capabilities, high price, and poor reliability limited its use to large technologically sophisticated users such as aerospace companies. Consequently, only 4.7% of the total machine tool population or slightly over 100000 machines are NC.[2]

In the last decade however, the utilization of NC has increased dramatically. In 1982, for example, 35% by value of machine tool sales were NC.[3]

Another example is the robot industry. Although it has received a great deal of attention, 1982 sales were only about USD 200 million while 1983 sales were estimated at approximately USD 240 million. Projections of future sales vary widely with most falling between USD 1000 million and USD 2000 million annually by 1990.[4] This would result in a robot population of between 50000 and 150000 units.

The computer-aided design (CAD) market was over USD 1000 million in 1981. By 1983 there were 32000 CAD workstations in the US and the worldwide sales of US CAD manufacturers were USD 1700 million.[5]

Computerization could have a much greater impact in the office than in the factory because the amount of capital equipment in the office is so much lower to start with. The Electronics Industries Association estimates that only about 3% of all managers and professionals used desk top computers in 1982 but the International Data Corporation projects this share could rise to 65% by 1990. 11% of all secretaries used word processing equipment in 1980, a share that could rise to between 40 and 70% by 1990. Overall, there were an estimated 12.5 million video display terminals, computer terminals, personal computers, and word processors in use in 1984. Some analysts expect this to rise to 41 million by 1987, with home use representing a significant share of the personal computer market.[6]

Government policies

The United States does not have an overall government policy guiding and coordinating the development, implementation, and use of new technologies. This has to be seen in the context that the Reagan administration has argued against an overall industrial policy, essentially maintaining that economic prosperity will be fostered by minimizing rather than enhancing the government's role in the economy.

In the area of research and development (R&D), government policy is especially critical given the importance of R&D for future generations of automation. In the United States, both private industry and the government are major funders of research and development in the areas of computer-based automation with the private sector spending a minimum three to five times as much as the government. Although precise definitions of what constitutes R&D are hard to come by, private sector spending in robotics, machine tools, and computer-aided design (CAD) came to between USD 250 million and USD 400 million in 1983. The Federal Government appropriated about USD 80 million for work in this area in the fiscal year 1984, most of it defence related. This automation research is only a small part of the USD 97000 million expenditure on R&D, by both private and public sources, projected for 1984.[3]

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[1] The article is prepared on the basis of information provided by Mr Harley Shaiken, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Mass. (USA) and Mr Koichi Iio of Japan Economic Research Centre, Tokyo.

[2] 'The 13th American machinist inventory of metalworking equipment', *American Machinist*, November 1983.

[3] 'Computerized manufacturing automation: employment, education and the workplace', Office of Technology Assessment, US Congress, Washington DC.

[4] Computerized manufacturing automation and 'CAD/CAM keeps climbing' *Automation News*, 27 August 1984.

[5] Wassily Leontief and Faye Duchin: 'The impacts of automation on employment, 1963–2000', Institute for Economic Analysis, New York University.

[6] William Serrin: 'Electronic office conjuring wonders, loneliness, tedium', *New York Times*, 28 March 1984.

Computerization in the offices

Most of the Department of Defence (DOD) funding for automation research is housed in the Manufacturing Technology (Man Tech) Programme. This programme started with USD 200 million in 1984, with about USD 56 million appropriated for work related to computer-based manufacturing.

The largest single Man Tech programme is the Air Force's Integrated Computer-Aided Manufacturing (ICAM) programme funded at USD 18 million in 1983. ICAM has sought to develop overall 'architectures' that will define the manufacturing environment in the 'factory of the future'.

The transferability of much defence related automation research to the private sector is difficult to estimate. As the Office of Technology Assessment US Congress express. 'While DOD's funding of automation technology R&D has had some benefits for civilian manufacturing, its programmes are not aimed at technological developments that would have wide application outside of defence needs'.

There are of course other defence programmes related to automation research that are not included in the above funding assessments because they are not directly linked. The Defence Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA), for example, has extensively, funded artificial intelligence research. It is now proposing a new programme for 'Strategic Computing' to which Congress has allocated USD 50 million in the fiscal year 1984. DARPA plans to spend USD 600 million between 1984 and 1988.

Recently some unusual consortia of private firms have emerged, geared towards stimulating automation or related research. One research effort targeted for advanced semiconductor and computer technologies is the Microelectronic and Computer Corporation (MCC). Thirteen medium-sized electronics firms contributed a USD 75 million annual budget that supports 50 in-house researches as well as other activities.

The Federal Government has in the social policy area a limited involvement in protecting workers during technological restructuring. The programmes that do exist focus on providing short-term income for individual workers and some opportunities for disadvantaged groups of workers. Consequently, an important part of the burden of technological change falls on the individual and the community. The Office of Technology Assessment states that the existing situation allows:

'. . . US companies to rely on quick

and massive layoffs (sometimes with plant closings) when business declines. Companies can achieve relatively quick, large-scale movements of capital to more productive facilities. However, this practice causes employees and communities to bear most of the costs of economic adjustment.'[1]

According to existing legislation, unemployed workers are eligible for 26 weeks of benefits and if the local and state rates exceed certain limits an extra 13 weeks are available. The formulas for calculating benefits vary from state to state but aim at about 50% of former wages. A Federal State network administers the programme with funds generated by contributions from both employers and employees. Occasionally there are emergency allocations from Congress.

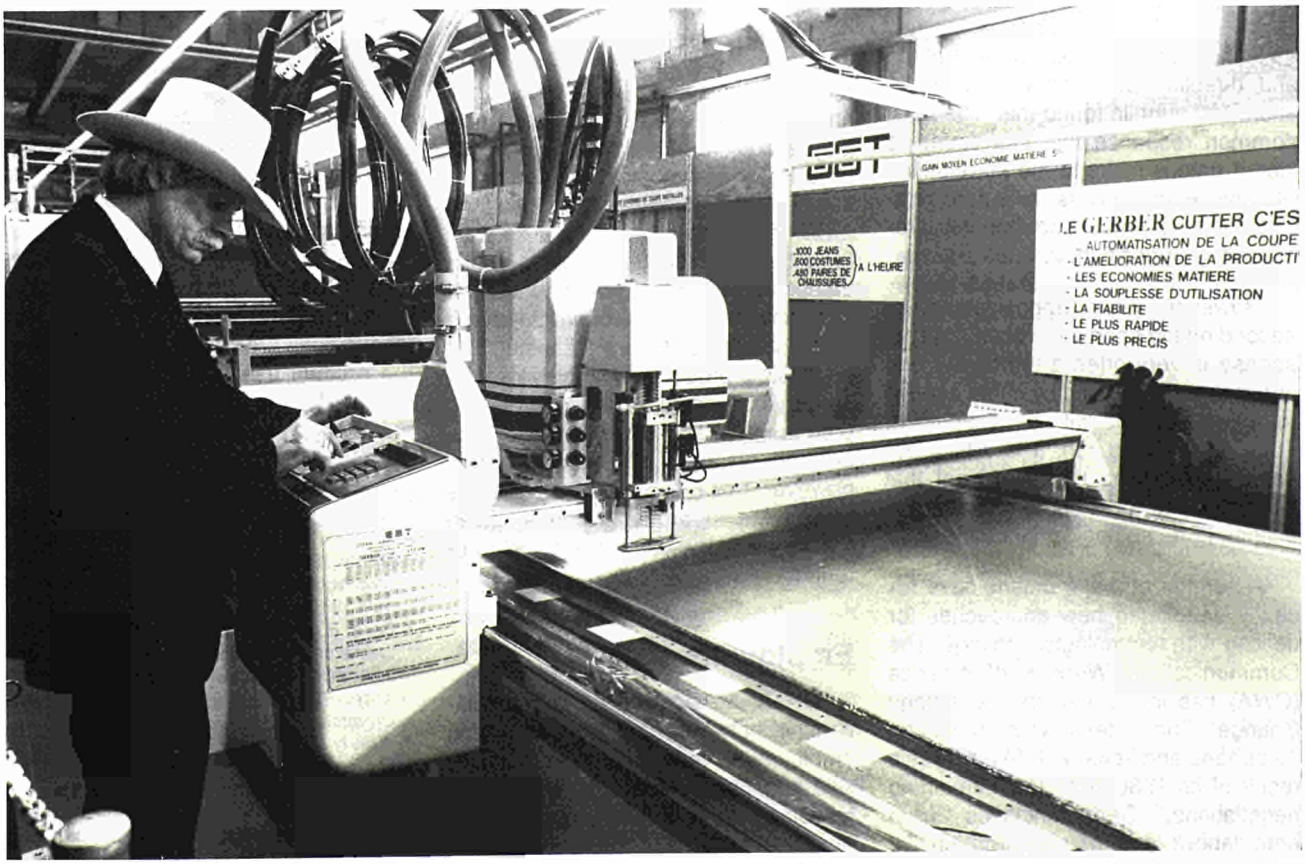
There is more recent legislation that affects the work environment, principally in the area of health and safety. Under the provisions of the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970, for example, the Department of Labor is responsible for creating and enforcing safety and health standards in the workplace.

In the field of education and training the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA), enacted in October 1982, replaced the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) as the Federal legislation authorizing occupational training and retraining. While the primary purpose for most of the programmes authorized under JTPA is to help economically vulnerable youth and adults without marketable skills, Title II includes provisions for the retraining of displaced workers. The act gives important responsibilities to the states, which jointly with businesses design and operate local retraining programmes. Over 11 000 employers were involved in these local initiatives in the act's first six months of operation. About 65 000 of the 500 000 people who participated were displaced workers. Title III has a USD 223 million budget for the 1984 programme year which is disbursed to the states in block grants.[2]

Recent budgetary cuts have accelerated a decline in federal assistance for employment and training programmes that has been continuing since the mid-1970s. Between 1970 and 1981 federal expenditure for real training per unemployed worker dropped by 25%. In the fiscal year 1982 this expenditure

[1] 'Computerized manufacturing automation: employment, education and the workplace'. Office of Technology Assessment, US Congress, Washington DC.

[2] Dwight B. Davis, 'Workplace High Tech spurs retraining efforts', *High Technology*, November 1984.



New technologies in manufacturing

was cut by one half again and it appears that further cuts could be in store. Overall, the Federal Government was spending almost four times as much per unemployed worker on training in 1970 as today.[1]

Labour and management response

The introduction of new forms of automation into the workplace has the potential to put severe strains on labour-management relations. Managerial concern to minimize labour costs and union concern over job security can cause serious conflicts. Moreover, the way technology is used to revamp work organization and skill can cause disagreement over work rules and job classifications. While many observers assume and many industries fear union resistance to technological change, this has not been the formal response of unions in the past. In a study done for the National Science Foundation, Doris B. McLaughlin[2] analysed the impact that labour unions have had on the rate and direction of technological innovation. McLaughlin found that 'The most common response that this country's labour unions make to the introduction of new technology is willing acceptance. The next most common initial response is opposition. . .

However, while opposition ranks second on the short-term basis, that response is very often a temporary one and is usually followed by either a move to adjustment or willing acceptance. Thus, in the long run, it is willing acceptance followed by adjustment that constitute the most common union reactions to technological innovation.'

A number of major unions have recently developed new approaches for dealing with technological change. The Communications Workers of America (CWA) has jointly set up Technology Change Committees with American Telephone and Telegraph (AT & T) as a result of its 1980 collective bargaining negotiations. Representatives from both labour and management in 12 union districts serve on the committees, which seek to identify areas of technological innovation and to develop programmes to cushion the impact of these changes on workers. In more recent negotiations, joint training and retraining committees have been established. In addition, the union and the company are heavily committed to joint quality of work life programmes, about 2000 of which now exist throughout the union. The union has stressed a cooperative approach with management in developing and implementing new technologies.

The United Auto Workers (UAW) also stresses a cooperative approach with employers in the auto industry. One of the early unions to support quality of work life programmes, the (UAW) participates in major efforts in this area at both Ford and General Motors. The 1982 collective bargaining agreement, in which the union gave up some projected wage increases and benefits, also established a jointly administered employee development and training programme. An independent training centre responsible to a joint union-management board was established and funded by five cents for each employee hour worked. In the 1984 negotiations, job security was the central issue. The final agreement provided for a *USD 1 thousand million* job security fund over the next six years. Within these financial limits, no one with at least one year of seniority will be laid off due to outsourcing, new technology, or negotiated productivity improvements. Moreover, funding for the joint training programme was increased to 24 cents per hour worked. Critics have charged, however, that these provisions may be inadequate to protect workers, given the scope of the corporation's restructuring.

Employment

Given the significance of the relationship between new technology and employment, there has been relatively little quantitative work done in the United States – like in the European Community – concerning future trends. For the United States two exceptions are a study done by Wassily Leontief and Faye Duchin of the Institute of Economic Analysis at the New York University[3] and a series of projections for the middle of the next decade done by the Bureau of Labour Statistics (BLS) of the US Government.[4]

Although the studies reach somewhat different conclusions, neither predicts sustained structural unemployment as a result of technological change.

The Leontief-Duchin study is an input-output analysis of the employment effects of computer-based automation. It is based on the first economy-wide model that seeks to relate directly technological innovation to changes in future employment. The model divides the entire economy into 89 individual industries and 53 different occupations. Four different scenarios are laid out that trace alternative paths technological diffusion could pursue between 1980 and 2000. The scenarios are meant to define the upper and lower limits of the rates of diffusion of computer technology throughout the economy.

The study concludes that an intensive use of automation will allow a significant reduction of the labour necessary to produce the same mix of goods compared to no further technological change by the year 2000. In fact, an intensive use of automation will require 20 million fewer workers of 11.7% less labour compared to a maintenance of the present use of automation for the rest of the century. But total employment is still projected to reach 156 mil-

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[1] Michael Podgursky, 'Labour market policy and structural adjustment, in policies for industrial growth in a competitive world', Joint Economic Committee, Congress of the United States, 27 April 1984.

[2] Doris B. McLaughlin, 'The Impact of labour unions on the rate and direction of technological innovation', Institute of Labour and Industrial Relations, The University of Michigan, Wayne State University.

[3] Wassily Leontief and Faye Duchin, 'The Impacts of automation on employment, 1963–2000', Institute for Economic Analysis, New York University.

[4] Valerie A. Personick, 'The job outlook through 1995: Industry output and employment projections', *Monthly Labour Review*, November 1983.

Manufacturing a personal computer

lion in the year 2000 and 124 million in 1990 compared to about 100 million at the beginning of the 1980s.

The Bureau of Labour Statistics has produced comprehensive occupational forecasts every two years since the 1940s. The most recent projections for the year 1995 are based on the BLS Economic Growth Model, an input-output model within a larger econometric framework. The entire system is composed of a series of related processes that produce projections in five areas: Labour force, aggregate economic performance, industry final demand and total production, industry employment, and occupational employment by industry. The model comprises three alternative economic projections: low growth, moderate growth, and high growth.

The BLS moderate growth projection shows that the rate of unemployment is projected to drop from 9.7% in 1982 to 6.3% in 1990 and then to 6.0% by 1995. Total employment is expected to rise from 102 million in 1982 to 118 million in 1990 and 127 million in 1995.

According to the BLS model the contribution of high-tech industries to total job growth will be relatively small although employment is expected to increase more rapidly than total employment between 1982 and 1995. The BLS utilizes three definitions of high-tech based on indicators such as expenditure on research and development and the utilization of workers in technology orientated occupations. Under the broadest definition which is the latter mentioned, high-tech will account for 17% of all new jobs. Under the two other definitions high-tech will account for 3–8%. This has lead the BLS to conclude that '. . . displaced workers and others seeking jobs, and governmental and community organizations seeking to attract jobs to their regions, would be well advised not to limit their search to high-tech industries only'.

Although the models are similar in many respects, it is difficult to directly compare the BLS and Leontief-Duchin projections because they focus on different areas and are based on somewhat different assumptions. Overall the BLS model is more comprehensive, including for example labour supply projections, while the Leontief-Duchin approach more directly focuses on the impacts of technological change.

Whatever the projections for the future, however, technological change in the US today occurs against a backdrop of consistently rising unemployment in the post-World War II period. The unemployment rate averaged 4.5% dur-

ing the 1950s, 4.8% during the 1960s, 6.2% during the 1970s, and over 8% during the first three years of this decade.[1] Moreover, during the 1970s the unemployment rate at the peaks of the new recoveries following recessions has continually risen.

Some observers feel that the official unemployment figures understate real unemployment because of structural changes in the economy. As employment shifts from manufacturing to services, there is an increase in part-time work. In 1983, for example, the average weekly hours worked in manufacturing were 40.1 compared to 29.8 in retail trade and 32.7 in services.[2] What is of special significance is the increase in involuntary part-time work, that is people working part-time who would prefer to work full time. The number of part-time workers soared over the decade of the 1970s, increasing by 57.9% from 1970 to 1982 or to 18.3 million from 11.5 million. During the same period the number of employees rose by 26.5%. Although voluntary part-time workers rose by 32.6% from 9.3 million to 12.4 million, involuntary part-time workers increased by 166% from 2.19 million to 5.8 million.[3]

This structural transformation has raised a sharp debate over the quality of the new jobs that have been created. Overall, the US has done a stunning job of creating employment. In the decade following 1973, jobs in the United States grew by 16% compared to 7% in Japan and a slight decline in Europe.[4] Much of this job growth has been in the service sector. Employment in services, for example, increased by 5.5 million or by 8.6% while employment in the goods producing sector declined by 1.4 million or by 5.5% between December 1979 and September 1984, two periods of economic growth.[5] What does this mean for the quality of employment? Robert Z. Lawrence of the Brookings Institute argues that many of the new jobs are attractive. He points to the fact that 48% of the employment growth from 1972 to 1983 was in professional, technical and managerial jobs. Lawrence and another Brooking colleague, Charles L. Schultze, main-

Young people familiarise themselves with data processing

[1] Russell W. Rumberger, 'High technology and job loss', Institute for Research on Educational Finance and Governance, School of Education, Stanford University, Project Report No 84-A12.

[2] Current Labour Statistics, *Monthly Labor Review*, September 1984.

[3] William Serrin, 'Up to a fifth of US workers now rely on part-time jobs', *New York Times*, 14 August 1983.

[4] Robert Z. Lawrence and Charles L. Schultze, 'Hardships lie ahead for workers, but structural change is a benefit', *Boston Globe*, 30 October 1984.

[5] William Serrin, 'Jobs increase in number, but trends are said to be leaving many behind', *New York Times*, 15 October 1984.

tain that further technological change will not squeeze out middle-class jobs. Using a definition of middle-class as paying from 30% less to 30% more than the income of the average male worker, Schultze and Lawrence show that the proportion of middle-class jobs in high-tech industries is in fact higher than in the rest of manufacturing.[1] Others are, however, not so optimistic.[2]

The real star of employment creation, according to the BLS, will be the miscellaneous service sector, creating about twice as many jobs as manufacturing. In fact, these service industries, from medical care to business and professional services, will account for almost a quarter of total employment in 1995 or more than 31 million jobs.[3]

The BLS projects that about one half of the 25.6 million new jobs that it expects will be created between 1982 and 1995 will occur in only 40 of the 1700 occupations for which projections were developed.[4] There is a critical distinction between the jobs that will have the fastest relative growth and those with the fastest absolute growth. Many of the former are high-tech related but since they are starting with a small base relatively few new jobs will be created. The occupations that will contribute the most actual jobs are decidedly 'low tech' such as building custodians and cashiers.

[1] Robert Z. Lawrence and Charles L. Schultze, 'Hardships lie ahead for workers, but structural change is a benefit', *Boston Globe*, 30 October 1984.

[2] Bennet Harrison and Barry Bluestone 'Insufficient jobs, inadequacies spell trouble for American labour', *Boston Globe*, 30 October 1984.

[3] Valerie A. Personik, 'The job outlook through 1995: Industry output and employment projections, *Monthly Labour Review*, November 1983.

[4] George T. Silvestri, John M. Lukasiewics, and Marcus E. Einstein, 'Occupational employment projections through 1995', *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1983.

Japan

In October 1982, the Japanese Ministry of Labour[5] conducted a survey on the effect of technological innovations on labour. The survey included approximately 10000 private manufacturing establishments which have production divisions regularly employing more than 100 blue-collar workers.

This was the first time that a survey had been conducted with such a large-scale sampling, and the results of the survey answer a great number of the questions which are raised as to the effect of technological innovation.

The present chapter on Japan comprises the main findings of the survey as well as further information about the present situation in Japan concerning the introduction of new technologies, particularly the position of the unions on the effects of the new technologies.

Diffusion

The results of the survey show clearly that it is first of all the large enterprises that are introducing the new technologies.[6] Almost all enterprises employing more than 1000 workers have introduced new technologies. The following table gives the details:

Size of enterprise	Enterprises having introduced new technologies
All industries surveyed	60%
Employing more than 1000 workers	96%
Employing less than 1000 workers but more than 300 workers	77%
Employing less than 300 workers but more than 100 workers	51%

It was found that approximately half of the smaller enterprises had introduced new technologies.

The highest degree of penetration of new technology is found in four manufacturing industries (non-electrical machinery 74%, transport equipment 73%, electrical machinery 72%, and precision instruments 68%. The printing industry also has a high rate of penetration of new technology (69%).

In contrast, the percentage is small in such industries as foodstuffs and tobacco, textiles, wood and wood products, reaching only about 40% of the enterprises.

The penetration rate of new technology differs for the various kinds of production processes as can be seen from Table 1.

The new technologies are implemented in 89% or almost all manufacturing processes, in about 50% of the assembling, inspecting, and other processes and in only 27% of the transport processes. However, less than 10% (less than 5% for transport and other processes) of the enterprises which have introduced new technology have done so in a large part of the processes. This means that the processes are not totally automated through the introduction of new technologies but that machines and humans share the work.

According to the results of the survey, about 30% of the enterprises implemented new technology before

[5] Ministry of Labour, Gijutsukakushin to Rodonikansuru Chosa (A survey on technological innovation and labour), November 1982.

[6] The term 'new technologies' in this chapter on Japan is mainly used in the sense of information/computer technology.

Table 1

(in %)

Industrial processes	New technologies introduced			New technology not introduced	Total
	Total	Greater parts of the processes	Some parts of the processes		
Manufacturing	89.0	8.6	80.4	11.0	100.0
Assembling	48.3	6.1	42.2	51.7	100.0
Inspection	52.1	7.4	44.7	47.9	100.0
Transporting	26.7	2.6	24.1	73.3	100.0
Other	46.3	4.0	42.3	53.7	100.0

1975, about 40% during the period 1975–80 and the remainder (25–30%) did so after 1980 and up to the end of 1982 when the survey was conducted.

A general trend is that larger firms have automated earlier than smaller ones, that the manufacturing and inspection processes used new technologies earlier than in the assembling, transporting and other processes.

Notes to Table 1: the processes have been defined as follows:

(i) Manufacturing processes: those in which raw material are changed in their physical forms or chemical natures and manufactured into other industrial raw materials, parts or final products.

(ii) Assembling processes: those in which the parts that have been manufactured in the fabricating processes are assembled and made into machines, appliances or their parts.

(iii) Transporting processes: those in which raw materials or parts are brought in, or semi-finished products are moved, or final products are carried out.

(iv) Inspection processes: those in which raw materials, parts finished or semi-finished products are weighted, inspected or analysed.

(v) Other processes: processes other than those mentioned above, including filling-in, wrapping, packing, bandaging, storage, air-conditioning, electric power, water, etc.

Employment

Changes in the number of jobs following the introduction of new technologies was one of the main points examined in the survey carried out by the Ministry of Labour. In about two-fifths of the companies introducing new technology, the number of jobs decreased. In fewer than 5% an increase took place (see Table 2).

One of the main conclusions of the survey is as may be seen from the table that the introduction of new technology caused a decrease in the number of jobs. In about two-thirds of the companies, however, the decrease was below 20%. It is noted that the percentage of companies where the number of jobs decreased is larger for the companies where the value of production (per unit) increased vastly than for the companies where the value of the production (per unit) increased less.

The number of working hours following the introduction of new technologies tended to be reduced.

The survey also revealed that companies often take employment adjustment measures in one form or another, notably in order to transfer workers in their twenties or thirties to jobs into which new technologies have been introduced. On the other hand older workers are transferred to jobs where new technologies have not been introduced.

Education and training

Up to 60% of the companies which introduced new technologies conducted education and training programmes for the workers assigned to the jobs concerned. The programmes in question are those which are given to workers while they are separated from their jobs for a certain period of time.

While 65% of the firms employing more than 1000 workers conducted such education and training programmes, as many as 58% of smaller firms employing only 100 to 300 workers also gave such training to their employees. Very often the companies

Table 2. Changes in the number of jobs following the implementation of new technologies:

New technology	Number of jobs (in %)			Total
	Increased	Decreased	Unchanged	
Implemented	4.5	39.9	55.6	100.0
Not implemented	2.3	2.7	95.0	100.0

Japanese robotics

which had manufactured and delivered the equipment also provided the education and training programmes.

In reply to the question in the survey as to whether there had been any change in the skills required for production line jobs when the new technologies were introduced, the answer was that changes had occurred in two-thirds of the jobs; more often in the manufacturing processes and in only about 50% of jobs in the inspecting and transporting processes.

Content of work

Two-thirds of the firms reported in the survey that there had been changes in the work content of their employees as a result of the introduction of the new technologies. For example, about half of the firms found that 'the work of watching the processes has increased', and more than one-third that 'heavy and muscular work has decreased'. A similar attitude was found to 'dangerous or harmful' work. One-third of the firms found that it had decreased.

Composition of the labour force

Considerable changes have taken place in the composition of the labour force in the industrial processes where new technologies have been introduced. The percentage of male workers has tended to rise. The survey also found that the introduction of new technology leads directly to a decrease in the number of skilled workers and tends to divide the labour force into two groups; one a group of workers with sophisticated knowledge and techniques, and the other a group of workers which is not required to possess such knowledge.

Labour and management response

The labour unions in Japan recognize clearly that the 1980s are the age of the microelectronics revolution and that its rapid progress has been exercising tremendous effects on the economic society, the industrial structure, business management, manufacturing processes, employment as well as labour management relations. It has hitherto been thought in Japan that the negative effect of the microelectronics revolution would be small, particularly on employment. However, this is now being reconsidered, among other things, as a result of the survey carried out by the Ministry of Labour.

Under these conditions the unions consider it necessary to cope with the current technological innovations so as to link the results of such innovations with the betterment of overall working conditions and the 'humanization of labour', including sharing the fruits of productivity growth, shortening working hours, improving work processes and the environment; and improving safety.

The unions have established the following points for their political activities in coping with the current technological revolution:[1]

(i) A system should be set up whereby entrepreneurs consult closely with labour unions before they install microelectronics equipment; it would be prohibited to introduce such equipment without the approval of the unions.

(ii) When new technologies are introduced into firms, the employment and working conditions of employees should not be adversely affected. Where such technologies will have direct negative effects on employment, such as a reduction in personnel, their introduction should not be allowed.

(iii) Management should be obliged to give greater consideration to the safety of workers; the labour union itself should conduct periodical checkups even after the installation of the equipment in question.

(iv) The introduction of new technologies is expected to bring about an improvement in productivity. Therefore, it should be contrived from the viewpoint of work-sharing that the fruits are allotted to the improving of working conditions, such as shorter working hours.

(v) Labour unions should recognize that the relocation of employees or changes in their occupational categories would help mitigate the unfavourable effects which technological innovations may have on employment. The union should request management to tender a plan for relocation of employees and conduct tripartite consultations among individual employees respecting the will of individual workers.

(vi) Business enterprises should be responsible for the education and training of employees as it is essential to the smooth operation of the business. In order to adapt fully to the advance of technologies, business enterprises should increase refresher training for their employees, introduce a system of continous education and aim at establishing the 'paid leave' system necessary for that purpose.

(vii) Entrepreneurs should provide more training for the transfer, relocation, or change of occupational category of their older employees who are likely to be unable to adjust to new technologies.

According to the survey carried out by the Ministry of Labour Japanese workers are mainly concerned about job transfer and education and training questions arising from the introduction of new technologies. Almost two-thirds of the employees in the survey expressed such a concern. They were also concerned about such items as safety and health (41%), working hours (31%), stability of employment (13%), and wages (8%).

In general, workers are mostly concerned about whether their old knowledge or skill could be used effectively through job transfers, etc.

[1] Koichi Ilo, Japanese Economic Research Centre, Tokyo.

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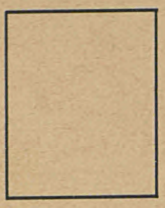

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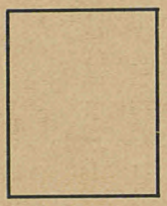

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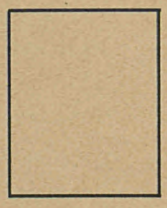

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