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Report

drawn up on behalf of the Ad Hoc Committee on Women's Rights

on the position of women in the European Community

PART II – EXPLANATORY STATEMENT

General rapporteur: Mrs Hanja R.H. MAIJ-WEGGEN

Page 23: This correction does not apply in English

Page 26: The last paragraph of Point 6.1.1. to read as follows:

'In Belgium no specific legislation has been passed. Belgium opted for a national interprofessional collective labour agreement. The law on equal treatment for men and women in matters of employment and on the retention of rights during business transfers (adapting Labour Legislation to EC requirements) came into effect in West Germany on 21 August 1980.

Page 27: The following new sentence to be added to the end of Point 6.1.3. third paragraph:

'In West Germany, the employee also has the option of applying direct to the courts.'

Page 30: Point 6.2.1. Paragraph 2 to read as follows:

'In West Germany it was initially considered unnecessary to make any adjustment to national legislation in view of the provisions contained in the Basic Law. However, since then the law on equal treatment for men and women in matters of employment and on the retention of rights during business transfers (adapting Labour Legislation to EC requirements) has come into effect in West Germany on 21 August 1980.'

Page 38: Point 6.4.2. Paragraph 1 to read as follows:

'The most striking point here is that the available financial resources have been spread very unevenly between the Member States with about 65.5% of the available resources going to West Germany in 1979. The final figures for 1980 are not yet available.'

Page 60: Fourth line to be amended as follows:

'A Bill was tabled in the Bundestag providing for the entitlement of full-time housewives to such support. However, this was defeated by a majority vote on 22 May 1980 at the 218th session of the Bundestag.'

Page 61: The last sentence of the sixth paragraph to read as follows:

'Finally, West Germany is the only country where parents are entitled to leave to care for a sick child.'

Page 101: The following new sentence to be added to the end of the penultimate paragraph:

'In addition to this, West Germany has technical colleges for vocational training in home economics; both men and women may train for a recognized career in home economics.'

Page 128: The following new sentence to be added to the end of the paragraph on West Germany:

'In the Federal Republic the 'Bundesministerium für Arbeit und Sozialordnung' has a special committee of experts on social security for women and their surviving dependants. This committee completed its work in May 1979. The 'Bundesministerium für Familie, Jugend und Gesundheit' has a special group of officials for policies concerning women. Other federal ministries such as the Ministries of Agriculture, the Interior and Education and Science have special departments for the implementation of equal rights. At regional level Hamburg, Hessen and North-Rhine-Westphalia have special advisory committees concerned with the emancipation policy pursued by the regional governments. (Delete Berlin). In its 7th and 8th period of legislature, the Bundestag set up a committee of enquiry on Women and Society, to prepare recommendations for the legal and social equality of women in our society and submit them to the Bundestag. The committee submitted its report in September 1980. The committee itself no longer exists. The report is to be considered in the 9th German Bundestag.'

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ANNEX Summary of work carried out by members of the 'ad hoc' committee on women's rights

EXPLANATORY STATEMENTIntroduction1. The heart of the problem

Some 260 million people live and work in the European Community. Some 130 million of them are women; together they make up 51.6% of the Community's population.

In the age group 14 to 60 about 70% of men and 38% of women are in gainful employment. In addition to gainful employment there is a large area of unpaid work, i.e. work in the home and voluntary work.

There are no Community statistics to show the percentages of men and women performing this unpaid work. It is however known that in the various Member States 80 to 90% of unpaid work in the home is carried out by women. Tens of millions of women find this to be a full day's work.

Of the 38 million women in employment a large proportion also have to cope with work in the home. These women therefore have to do two jobs. Again, there are no reliable figures to show how many there are.

Besides gainful employment and unpaid work in the home, many Europeans are engaged in unpaid voluntary work. The Community does not have any statistics about this important type of work. Data from the individual Member States indicate however that women perform more voluntary work than men.

These figures lead one to conclude that paid and unpaid work are distributed extremely unevenly between citizens of the Community, male citizens being mainly engaged in paid work with a very limited number acting in the sector of unpaid work and female citizens, while making up a not inconsiderable share of persons in employment, accounting for by far the larger proportion of those performing unpaid work.

The situation is similar in other parts of the world: the sector of unpaid work and particularly work in the home is allotted almost exclusively to women throughout the world.

The proportion of women in the paid sector varies from one region to another. It is highest in the Soviet Union and the 'Eastern Bloc' (approx. 49%). In the countries of South-East Asia it is about 40%, in Western Europe and North America between 35% and 40% and in Latin America about 22%¹.

¹ Source: 'Women's participation in the Economic Activity of the World', ILO, Geneva, 1980.

2. The main features of women's employment in Western Europe¹

2.1. The period before the industrial revolution

The history of the employment of women in the countries of Western Europe exhibits some clearly distinguishable features. Until the time of the industrial revolution (1750-1850) women in gainful employment were usually to be found in the 'lower classes'. Women in this group were mainly employed as workers on the land, in emergent industry or as servants in middle and upper class households.

Long working hours and poor social conditions were frequent. Remuneration took the form of money or goods, but it was always lower than that received by men. Sometimes women were forced to work without payment for their husband's employer. As well as being in employment, many of these women were still performing their usual tasks in the home.

Amongst the middle classes, i.e. farmers, artisans and merchants, women were mainly engaged in work in the home. Families were generally larger than they are today. They would be made up not only of parents and children but often also included grandparents, unmarried and dependent brothers and sisters, and unmarried servants. Women were mainly occupied with work within these large families and carried out specific tasks within the family business. Domestic and occupational work were not always clearly differentiated. Much work was done at home, even by men. Remuneration could equally well take the form of an exchange of goods or services as the payment of a sum of money.

In the upper classes women often did little work. Household duties were usually left to the servants and a paid occupation was unusual. These women restricted themselves to their job of reproduction and to the limited tasks involved in bringing up their children. Some kept themselves busy with handicrafts or charitable work, others devoted themselves to art or science.

In short, the nature and extent of women's work before the industrial revolution was largely a function of their social class, with working class women in by far the most difficult position.

¹Sources:

- 'Geschiedenis en Sociologie van de Vrouwenarbeid', Evelyne Sullerot (1968), Nijmegen, Netherlands, SUN 1979
- 'Women workers and the industrial revolution 1750-1850', London, Cass & Co., 1969
- 'De sociale geschiedenis van de Europese Arbeidersbeweging', Nijmegen, Netherlands, SUN 1972

2.2. The effect of the industrial revolution

The industrial revolution brought about great changes in the socio-economic system and the nature of women's work. Work on a small scale gave way to large-scale industrial activity. The number of jobs within small craft and agrarian family businesses fell.

The labour system, based partly on the production and exchange of services and goods within a small area, gave way to mass production and work outside the home. Money and capital played an increasingly important role. There was increased migration towards the centres of industry.

One of the effects of this was that many of the large family units disintegrated into small nuclear families. The family, once separated from the protective family structure and from a small community in town or country, had to maintain itself in an increasingly urban industrial society.

This process led to widescale impoverishment and pauperization not only for the working class but also for large sections of the middle class.

In the struggle for survival whole families went out to work, men, women and children together in the factories, in order to obtain by means of direct remuneration those goods and services which previously they had obtained through work at home and within the family organization. Working conditions were frequently poor, wages low and working hours very long.

Women workers and children received considerable lower wages than male workers. In addition to their paid work, women still had to take care of work in the home which was made particularly difficult and burdensome by the high birth rate.

Those in the middle classes who were able to maintain their position found there were less servants available to help with work in the home. Many women now had to face often quite considerable tasks within the family alone and large groups of women had in addition to carry out professional work within the family business.

In the upper classes many women remained free of both many of the jobs in the home and of occupational work. However, there was an increasing desire within this group, particularly amongst the unmarried, to exercise some occupation and to receive the necessary education for it. Despite much resistance a small number of women in this group managed to accede to more highly-qualified work particularly in the

health services and education. After some difficulty the first women gained access to the universities.

To sum up, the industrial revolution saw a widening of the gap between the rich and poor sections of the population. The lower classes in particular - but also a large proportion of the middle class - were greatly impoverished to the advantage of the property-owning class. The number of women in employment increased, but their position was often extremely bad. They were exploited to a greater extent than male workers by low wages, bad working conditions and long working hours. Furthermore, many of these women still had to carry out a considerable amount of work within the home.

In the middle class the work of many women became more difficult because servants became more scarce and, in spite of this, a contribution often had to be made to the family business. In the upper classes particularly, the struggle began for women to be granted access to qualified employment and better education.

2.3. The situation at the beginning of this century

Towards the end of the 19th century there was a growing wave of protest against the socio-economic working conditions suffered by the impoverished groups of the population. Opposition to the increasing exploitation of workers, especially of women and children, came from various quarters, including political circles, the emerging trade union movement, the churches and women's organizations.

At the same time, general ideas developed about the employment of women outside the home, especially women with family commitments. The employment of women came to be associated with poverty, disordered households and fathers unable to provide for their families.

Attempts were made to increase men's wages so as to make the employment of women outside the home unnecessary. In all Western European countries legislation was enacted with a view to improving and protecting the position of workers and their families.

Under these circumstances there was a considerable drop in the number of women employed outside the home during the first half of this century. Only during and after the First and Second World Wars did a temporary increase take place, this being mainly due to the large number of jobs available and the lack of men to fill them.

However, certain groups of women remained in employment - particularly the lowest paid groups of workers, women assistants in family businesses and single women from the middle and upper classes working mainly in health, education and certain administrative sectors.

2.4. Women in work since the 1960's

Since the 1960's there has been a new increase in the numbers of women in gainful employment and this for a number of reasons:

Political factors: After the Second World War the notion of equal rights and duties for all citizens has gained much greater acceptance and has been embodied in international treaties and national constitutions. This has been extended by analogy to equal rights and duties for both men and women in many areas, including employment.

Social factors: A number of tasks traditionally carried out by women have been taken over by social institutions and legislation. Day nurseries and kindergartens relieve women of some of the never-ending work involved in caring for and bringing up young children. The expansion of institutionalized care of the old, the chronically ill and the handicapped has also lifted some of the burden from individual women's shoulders. Social legislation has replaced part of the traditional assistance given to farmers and their families.

Economic factors: Industrial progress since the 1950's has altered and limited the economic role of the housewife. The increasing number of ready-to-use products, particularly clothing and food, the availability of clean water, gas electricity and the greater number of domestic appliances has made housekeeping considerably easier.

These socio-economic factors have meant that work in the home has not only been reduced but also become less interesting. As the number of productive and creative tasks has fallen, the housewife has become principally a consumer.

Furthermore, in the 1950's and 60's, almost all the countries of Western Europe experienced economic growth coupled with an increase in employment, sometimes even a labour shortage. Women, as a consequence, were very welcome entrants on the labour market.

Educational factors: The level of women's education and training has improved slowly but surely, with the result that increasing numbers of women have become more qualified for gainful employment.

Medical factors: The increasingly wide availability of reliable contraceptives has led to a considerable fall in the number of pregnancies per woman. At the same time the risk factor in pregnancy has been greatly

reduced which has resulted in a considerable drop in the death rate of expectant mothers and young children. Now that the time of birth and the number of children can be controlled in accordance with women's wishes, women are more able than ever before to plan their lives and careers.

Women on average now expect to live for 40 years after their reproductive phase. A few decades ago this was less than half.

The average proportion of women in gainful employment in Western European countries has now reached approximately 38%.

2.5. The effect of women's emancipation movements

In European history there have always been individual women who refused to submit to existing structures and traditions and who climbed to important positions in society. Usually they came from the upper classes and were the exception rather than the rule. Nevertheless one should not underestimate their pioneering role.

In addition, there have been special women's movements devoted to improving the position of women. Their objectives were usually concerned with the problems of their time. These movements have played a very important role in the history of women's employment.

Movements calling for the emancipation of women had already been active before the industrial revolution. These groups demanded, in particular, an improvement in the position of women workers in factories and on the land and were dedicated to promoting the ideals of the French Revolution. It is notable that, as the French Revolution made headway and achieved some success, the solidarity of the male revolutionaries with these women diminished. After 1793 revolutionary women's organizations in France were in fact prohibited.

Between 1830 and 1850 new women's movements arose in France and England, not only amongst women workers but also in the bourgeoisie. They fought for an improvement in the position of women at work and at the same time supported the political demands of this period, particularly the campaign for the franchise. These women's movements were emulated in many other European countries but to no very great result.

Again it was striking that, although the right to vote was gained with the help of women, it was nowhere extended to them. Male citizens kept these rights for themselves and women were more or less excluded from having any influence on government policy and national legislation. The effects of this are still felt today.

A new wave of emancipation movements emerged at the turn of the century. The deplorable position of large groups of women at work and particularly the double burden of work inside and outside the home again became issues. A greater response was elicited this time, particularly from political organizations, trade unions and churches. The result was not an improvement of the position of women, but an improvement of the position of men on the labour market and the isolation of large groups of women working in the home. There was still hardly any discussion of a sharing of household tasks. For many women this situation was nevertheless an improvement in comparison with the double burden they had had to carry in the past.

The emancipation movements around the turn of the century also fought for political rights for women and for a decent education. The question of women's suffrage was again raised. Tough action was necessary to achieve results and it was only gradually, even in the countries of the European Community, that first the right to vote and then the right to stand in elections was granted - in Denmark in 1915, in Germany around 1919, in the Netherlands in 1922 and in the United Kingdom in 1928. Belgium and France did not introduce women's suffrage until after the Second World War.

In almost all western countries women's emancipation movements were in decline between 1930 and 1960. There was an expectation that the right of women to vote would produce a more equal position for men and women in society. The women's movement however underestimated the obstinacy with which established structures and positions would be defended. Impatience and discontent increased and during the 1960's a new wave of movements calling for women's emancipation emerged.

The present upsurge of interest in emancipation appeared at the same time as with the broad movement for greater democracy in the 1960's. A number of specific characteristics distinguish it from previous women's emancipation movements:

- It is made up of large groups of women from all sections of the population.
- The combined demands for the improvement of the position of women are concerned with almost all sectors of social life, a strong emphasis being given to the improvement of the socio-economic relationship between men and women.
- The demands made are not exclusively directed towards women; important political issues are being raised such as national and international socio-economic relations, the questions of peace and security, the shortage of raw materials, energy and the environment.

- Apart from the apparently inevitable resistance it has stirred up, this call for emancipation has evoked a greater response from governments, political parties, trade unions and churches than ever before.
- This emancipation movement has, thanks partly to the aid and activities of the United Nations, acquired a strong international dimension.

3. International action on behalf of women

Not long after its creation the United Nations Organization had given some attention to the subordinate position of large groups of women in the world. In 1975, partly under the influence of the latest upsurge of interest in emancipation, it organized a world conference in Mexico City on the role of women in national and international society. At this world conference the period 1975-1985 was declared to be the 'Decade of the Woman'. At the same time a 'World Action Plan for the Improvement of the Position of Women' was drawn up and adopted. The Action Plan was approved by a large majority of the General Assembly of the United Nations in the autumn of 1975. Partly as a result of the Plan, work started on improving the position of women in almost all countries of the world.

In the summer of 1980 a new UN World Conference was organized in Copenhagen to evaluate the first five years of the Decade. It was found that, while limited progress had been made, women from the lower classes and the poorest developing countries had derived little benefit from it. In a number of developing countries their position had even become worse.

It was decided to amend the World Action Plan drawn up in Mexico and to concentrate on a number of priority points: the improvement of the socio-economic participation of women, the improvement of the position of women in education and health, the improvement of the legal status of women and the setting up of special programmes to help groups of vulnerable women.

In addition the revised Action Plan laid special emphasis on the need for a New International Economic Order as a condition for improving the position of women in the lower classes and from the poorest developing countries (see Annex B).

Although some of the passages in the revised Action Plan referring to specific programmes are to be regretted, it does have some important lessons for the Member States of the European Community and for the European Community itself for creating a national and common policy of emancipation.

In order to improve in particular the legal status of women, in December 1979 the General Assembly of the United Nations approved the text of a special 'Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women'. The Convention was recently signed in Copenhagen by approximately 50 countries, including 7 countries of the European Community (see Annex C).

The activities of the United Nations are important because:

- they identify the great problems caused by the subordinate position of women,
- they vindicate the demands of women for an improvement in their position,
- they encourage national governments and intergovernmental organizations to pursue their policies to improve the position of women with greater vigour, and
- they emphasize the important role women have to play in creating a just world and striving after peace.

4. The role of women in the European Community

Some 130 million women live and work in the European Community. Historical and cultural developments in the countries in the European Community has produced an unequal and inequitable relationship between their male and female citizens and large groups of women have experienced an unacceptable position of inferiority in almost all sections of society.

- Tens of millions of women exclusively perform unpaid work often supplemented with unpaid voluntary work.
- Women in gainful employment are found mainly in a limited number of occupations usually with low status. Their average wage is considerably lower than that of male workers.
- In addition to gainful employment, many women carry out almost all the duties in the home which means that they have a double work load.
- The disadvantages suffered by women in education are still considerable.
- In spite of progress in the provision of health and social services there are important medical and social problems for women which have not found a satisfactory solution.
- The legal status of women leaves much to be desired in comparison with that of men.
- Vulnerable groups of women suffer more than others from all of these forms of discrimination.
- A number of out-of-date traditional ideas and prejudices reinforce and consolidate the social inferiority of women.

For large groups of women this situation is responsible for damage to the individual, damage in socio-economic terms as well as physical and mental damage. This discrimination also does great damage to society as a whole. Because of the discrimination against them, women form a minority group in almost all policy-making bodies: in governments, parliaments, political parties, employers' organizations, trade unions and the leadership of the churches.

This means not only that they exercise insufficient influence on the improvement of their own position, it also means that their voice is not sufficiently heard in all policy sectors concerned with the development of modern society in the Community.

It is therefore gratifying that the present-day emancipation movement is not only calling for an improvement of the situation of women but also making critical statements about general developments in society, developments on which women have scarcely had any influence.

The European Community is faced with considerable problems. A solution to these problems will require the creative application of all available talents, the talents of both men and women. A solution to these problems also requires wide and unflagging support, the support of all citizens, the support of both men and women. If we are to rely on these talents and this support, discrimination against women must be abolished and an equal and fair relationship between European citizens must be introduced. The European Community has an important contribution to make towards the achievement of this goal.

Measures so far taken by the European Community to improve the position of women

5. A review of European action¹

5.1. Article 119 of the Treaty of Rome

The European Community has devised various schemes in recent years to improve the position of women. The primary legal basis for this action has been Article 119 of the Treaty of Rome (1957) which lays down that:

'Each Member State shall during the first stage ensure and subsequently maintain the application of the principle that men and women should receive equal pay for equal work.'

For the purpose of this article, 'pay' means the ordinary basic or minimum wage or salary and any other consideration, whether in cash or in kind, which the worker receives, directly or indirectly, in respect of his employment from his employer.

The article was not originally included in the Treaty in order to improve the position of women. Competition was a more important consideration. Since the Treaty was intended to bring about a common market (as stated in Article 2), the parties to the Treaty endeavoured from the outset to remove differences in social and economic practices between Member States which had the effect of inhibiting competition within the Community. The low, sometimes very low, wages of large groups of women workers was one such difference and the article was principally intended to provide the Member States with protection against unfair competition from each other which might arise from it.

When after some years it became apparent that there had been no improvement in the relative pay of men and women at work, the Commission issued a recommendation to the Council in 1960 making it clear that the object of Article 119 was not merely to harmonize social policy but that it imposed an obligation on the Member States to take measures to implement the principle of equal pay.

The Council meeting in Paris in 1961 adopted a resolution which upheld the view taken by the Commission.

¹ Source:

'Women and the European Community' Community action/Comparative national situations, Commission of the European Communities, Brussels, 1980, Catalogue No. CB-24-78-218-EN-C.

Although some progress was made after that date, there remained considerable differences in the pay of men and women performing equal work.

Partly under the influence of the most recent upsurge of interest in emancipation which arose in the 1960's, women workers began to take action to demand their rights.

In 1966 3,000 women struck at the Fabrique Nationale at Herstal in Belgium demanding the application of Article 119 of the Treaty of Rome. Women trade unionists in other Member States also went on strike in solidarity with the Belgian strikers. The strike resulted in a settlement conceding 70% of the women's wage claim. A later strike in the same company gained improvements in working conditions and a reclassification of women's jobs.

In 1968 a Belgian stewardess, Mrs Defrenne, lodged a claim for damages against her former employer, the Belgian airline Sabena, on the basis of Article 119 of the Treaty of Rome. Mrs Defrenne was protesting against three injustices: she had had to terminate her career because she had reached the maximum age for stewardesses. This age limit did not apply to her male colleagues. This adversely affected her pension rights and in recent years she had received lower wages than her male colleagues even though stewardesses and stewards perform the same work.

After she lost her case before the Belgian Industrial Tribunal, she appealed to the Belgian Industrial Court. The Industrial Court upheld the Tribunal's decisions on the first two counts but suspended judgment on the pay claim pending a decision by the European Court of Justice.

The European Court of Justice ruled that the Member States of the European Community were bound by Article 119 of the Treaty of Rome to guarantee the principle of equal pay for equal work. Mrs Defrenne received backpay dating from 1962.

5.2. The directive on equal pay

Once it had been shown that even after this clear ruling wide disparities remained between the wages of male and female workers for equal work, the Commission submitted a proposal to the Council for a directive creating a national legal obligation to guarantee the principle of equal pay for equal work. On 10 February 1975 this directive

'on the approximation of the laws of the Member States relating to the application of the principle of equal pay for men and women',

better known as the directive on equal pay, was adopted by the Council (OJ No. L 45, 19.2.1975, p.19).

The directive required the Member States to introduce legislation within one year to ban all forms of discrimination on the grounds of sex in any legal or administrative measure having regard to the principle of equal pay for equal work. The directive relates to both collective agreements and individual employment contracts. (Article 8).

The Member States are also required to take measures to bring the provisions of national implementation legislation to the attention of employees 'by all appropriate means', e.g. at their place of employment (Article 7).

Employees who consider they are not receiving equal pay have the right to take judicial proceedings against their employers and to protection against reprisals for asserting their rights (Articles 2 and 5).

The Member States are further required to report to the Commission within two years on measures taken in application of the directive (Article 9).

(For the full text of the directive see Annex D).

5.3. The directive on equal treatment

The Commission became aware that the equal pay directive would have limited effect if the more complex problems of unequal opportunities and unequal treatment of male and female workers were not tackled at the same time and therefore subsequently submitted a proposal to the Council to promote the equal treatment of men and women in employment. On 9 April 1976 the directive

'on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training and promotion, and working conditions',

better known as the directive on equal treatment was adopted by the Council.

This directive, which will have much greater influence on the relative position of men and women at work than the equal pay directive, lays down that the Member States shall within a period of 30 months take all legal and administrative measures necessary to implement the directive (Article 9).

Special attention is given to the obligation on the Member States to bring the provisions of the directive to the attention of employees by all available means, e.g. at their place of employment (Article 8).

At the same time the Member States are to introduce 'into their national legal systems' such measures as are necessary to enable workers to pursue their claims by judicial process after possible recourse to other competent authorities (Article 6), those concerned having to be given protection against dismissal as a reaction to their complaints (Article 7).

The Member States are also required to report to the Commission within two years on the implementation of the directive (Article 10).

(For the full text of the directive see Annex E).

5.4. The directive on 'equal social security'

In one of the paragraphs of the preamble to the directive on equal treatment it had already been stated that the principle of equal treatment for men and women in employment had also to be applied to social security.

In December 1976 the Commission drew up proposals for a directive in this field.

It was not however until December 1978 that the Council adopted this directive

'on the progressive implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women in matters of social security', better known as the directive on 'equal social security'. Some Member States experienced great difficulty with this directive.

The directive is applicable to the whole working population, including self-employed persons, those unfit for work and the unemployed, as well as retired and invalided workers (Article 2).

The provisions apply to statutory schemes which provide protection against the risks of sickness, invalidity, old age,

accidents at work, occupational diseases and unemployment and to social assistance in so far as it is intended to supplement or replace such schemes (Article 3).

The forms of discrimination which must be eliminated are concerned particularly with the scope of the schemes, including the conditions of access, the obligation to contribute and the means of calculating contributions and benefits (Article 4).

At the special request of Italy and the Netherlands the Member States were given 6 years to implement the directive (Article 8) and they may, in addition, exclude from its scope some regulations concerned with old age pension schemes etc. (Article 7).

(For the full text of the directive see Annex F).

5.5. Activities of the European Social Fund¹

One of the instruments underpinning the European Community's social policy is the European Social Fund set up in 1958 under Article 123 of the Treaty of Rome. Since 1 May 1972 it has been possible, pursuant to Article 5, to grant aid to women over 35 years of age who wish to return to work after a period outside work.

However not a single project has been carried out under this provision, principally as a result of the 'regional' character of Article 5 which provided that projects had to be situated in a 'priority region', i.e. a region with serious development and employment problems.

The regions concerned showed no interest in this specific offer of a subsidy and gave their preference to other schemes.

In order to make the conditions for the eligibility of projects more flexible, the Council, acting on a proposal from the Commission, decided on 20 December 1977 to remove women from Article 5 of the Rules of the Social Fund and put them under Article 4. In this way the restrictive regional criteria were eliminated and the granting of aid became possible on a much wider scale².

(For the full text of the decision, see Annex G).

¹ Source:

'Women and the Social Fund', Doc. 599/X/78, Directorate-General for Information, Commission of the European Communities, Brussels 1978

² Council Decision of 20 December 1977 on action by the European Social Fund for women (77/804/EEC).

The revised version of Article 5 is applicable to women of or over 25 years of age with no vocational qualifications or with insufficient vocational qualifications and who have lost their jobs or who wish to exercise an occupation for the first time or after a long break (Article 1 of the Decision).

The project must be accompanied by measures to prepare women to exercise an occupation or help them to make a new choice, e.g. information courses on the labour market and the availability of jobs, opportunities to exercise occupations traditionally reserved for men etc.

Measures to facilitate entry into occupations where there are real job prospects, e.g. acting as an intermediary for those seeking employment and assisting women in their new jobs, are also eligible for assistance.

The European Social Fund moreover supports pilot schemes and preparatory studies to give guidance to Community institutions in deciding where the Fund should intervene. As a result, a number of projects have been carried out since 1975 concerned exclusively with special problems encountered in the field of the employment of women.

5.6. Action in the field of education

The Commission has realized that, if one wishes to promote equal pay and equal treatment of men and women in employment, there are important changes which need to be made to the education and vocational training of girls and women.

Article 118 of the Treaty of Rome expressly mentions 'basic and advanced vocational training' as one of the areas in which the Community has responsibilities.

One problem is that nowhere in the Treaty of Rome is there any mention of the Community's responsibilities with regard to education in general. Nevertheless, on the basis of this limited indication of responsibility in Article 118 of the Treaty of Rome, the Community has conducted a number of activities in the field of education and vocational training, some of them in favour of women and girls.

In November 1975 the Commission organized a seminar in Paris on vocational guidance and training for women workers¹.

¹ See: 'Vocational Guidance and Training for Women Workers', final report by Mrs Claude du Granrut, Secretary-General of the Comité du Travail Féminin in Paris, European Communities, Brussels, 1976.

In February 1976 the Council of Education Ministers, acting on a proposal from the Commission, adopted a resolution comprising a first programme on cooperation in the field of education. The programme gave most attention to the transition from education to working life because of the concern which was felt over increasing unemployment amongst young people and the difficulties which young people experienced in finding their first job¹.

Following on from studies and proposals made by the Commission, a second resolution was adopted by the Council of Education Ministers in December 1976 'concerning measures to be taken to improve the preparation of young people for work and to facilitate their transition from education to working life'².

¹ 'From Education to Working Life', report of the Education Committee: Bulletin of the European Communities, Supplement 12/76, European Communities, Brussels, 1976.

² See the Resolution of the Council of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council on 13 December 1976, OJ No. C 308, 30.12.1976, p.1.

The resolution particularly stressed the need to offer girls equal opportunities. Having established this new priority, a number of pilot projects were initiated in various parts of the Community, one of the objectives being to throw some light on the typical problems faced by groups experiencing the greatest difficulties in the transition from education to work such as girls and young women.

At the same time the Directorate-General for Research, Science and Education commissioned the British expert on education, Dr Eileen Byrne, to conduct an enquiry into the position of girls in secondary education in the various Member States of the European Community.

The report appeared in 1978 under the title 'Equality of Education and Training for Girls (10-18 years)'¹. Using this study as a basis the Commission submitted a proposal to the Council for a Community action programme on 'Equal Opportunities in Education and Training for Girls'².

Unfortunately in 1976 the Council was so startled by the forthrightness of this move that it failed to meet for another four years, so making further decision-taking and action impossible.

To follow on from the seminar in Paris in 1975, in 1977 the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training in Berlin organized a seminar on the position of women in vocational training in which representatives of the governments, employers' organizations and trade unions of the nine Member States took part³. The participants requested the Centre to draw up programmes to improve the position of women in vocational training.

After the seminar the Centre, aided by a specially created 'follow-up working party', drew up a programme for implementation in three phases:

- registering innovations in vocational guidance recently introduced by the Member States,
- encouraging companies to improve the promotion chances of working women and create wider opportunities for them to fill vacant jobs and
- helping to bring about a change in attitudes by distributing information about these initiatives.

¹ 'Equality of education and training for girls' Dr Eileen Byrne, Collection Studies, Education Series No. 9, Brussels, July 1978

² See COM(78) 499 final of 3 October 1978

³ A report on this seminar was included in CEDOFOP Bulletin No. 3/4 of 1978

The first part of this programme is almost ready and the Centre is now working on a summary report.

At the same time thought is being given to how the results of this stock-taking can be given the widest possible publicity.

Since no reliable data is available on the efficiency of the special vocational programme in favour of women, the Centre began a new inquiry in 1980 in four Member States (Belgium, West Germany, the United Kingdom and France) into the results of 17 specific vocational programmes. The results of this study are expected after 1981.

After an interval of four years the Council of Education Ministers met again in July 1980.

During this Council meeting there was a discussion on the Commission's 1978 proposal to set up an 'action programme to promote equal opportunities in education and training for girls'.

The Council gave its approval in principle to this programme.

5.7. Research into the situation of women farmers in the Member States of the European Community

Finally it may be noted that, as part of its agricultural policy, in 1977 the European Community commissioned the agricultural high school in Wageningen in the Netherlands to carry out an inquiry into the situation of women farmers in the Member States of the European Community. The inquiry was completed at the end of 1978 and contains a large amount of information about:

- the social and economic situation of farmers' wives in the countries of the Community,
- the work of farmers' wives on the farm and in the home,
- the facilities available in the home,
- the standard of training of farmers' wives, and
- social security for the family farms.

Unfortunately the translation of the report into the six official languages of the Community is taking an extremely long time and it was not officially published until the late Spring of 1980.

Policy proposals on the basis of the results of the study have not yet been presented.

6. Notes on the policy which has been conducted and proposals for improving schemes¹

6.1. The directive on equal pay

Pursuant to Article 9 of the equal pay directive the Member States were to forward, within two years of the directive's notification, all necessary information to the Commission to enable it to draw up a report on its application.

The Commission's report on the application of the principle of equal pay for men and women appeared in 1977².

Having studied the debates held in Parliament on 10 April 1978 and 8 May 1979³ together with some new material, the Ad Hoc Committee has examined in depth the nature of national implementing legislation, the arrangements for publicity, the arrangements for providing protection under the law and the supervision of the effect of the directive.

6.1.1. The nature of national implementing legislation

In seven of the nine Member States legislation or administrative regulations were either already in existence or were enacted in order to implement the directive. In the United Kingdom (including Northern Ireland) legislation on equal pay has been in force since 1970 (Equal Pay Act).

In 1975 this act was amended and consolidated within the Sex Discrimination Act.

In France legislation establishing equal pay for men and women has been in existence since 1972. This law came into force in 1973 by means of an implementing decree.

Ireland drew up legislation to prohibit discrimination in the field of pay in 1974 (Anti-Discrimination Pay). This was later amended by the Employment Equality Act 1977.

The Netherlands and Denmark passed legislation in 1975 establishing the right to equal pay for equal work.

Sources:

¹ Working documents of the Ad Hoc Committee on Women's Rights: No. 1 (Mrs Maij-Weggen), No. 18 (Mrs Squarcialupi), No. 19 (Mrs Von Alemann), No. 22 (Miss Roberts), No. 25 (Mrs van den Heuvel), No. 37 (Mrs Gaiotti de Biase), No. 44 (Mrs Lentz-Cornette), No. 53 (Mrs Wieczorek-Zeul) and an unnumbered one by Mrs Spaak and Mrs Lizin

² 'Report of the Commission to the Council on the application as at 12 February 1978 of the principle of equal pay for men and women', COM(78) 711 final, 16.1.1979

³ Doc. 6/78: Dunwoody interim report on equal pay for men and women in the Member States of the Community (Resolution adopted on 11 April 1978, OJ No. C 108, 8.5.1978, p.15), and Doc. 98/79: Dunwoody report on equal pay for men and women in the Member States of the Community (Resolution adopted on 9 May 1979, OJ No. C 140, 5.6.1979, p.46)

In Luxembourg a Grand Ducal Decree providing for equal pay for men and women has been in force since 1974.

In Italy the principle of equal pay is enshrined in the Constitution of 1947. In addition, a special law providing for equal treatment for men and women in matters of employment came into force in 1977 (Law No. 903/1977) and this also covers the principle of equal pay.

In Belgium and West Germany no specific legislation has been passed. Belgium opted for a national inter-professional collective labour agreement, while West Germany already had provisions on equal pay in its Basic Law and therefore saw no need to introduce any new specific legislation.

6.1.2. Arrangements for publicity

Pursuant to Article 7 of the directive the Member States are obliged to take measures to bring its provisions to the attention of employees by all appropriate means, e.g. at their place of employment.

In the United Kingdom and Northern Ireland a publicity campaign was conducted through the media. In addition, a brochure on the Equal Pay Act was drawn up and distributed free of charge amongst the population. This material was also on display at employment exchanges.

The Equal Opportunities Commission also provided full information.

In France Article 6 of the law of 1972 stipulates that posters explaining the principle of equal pay must be displayed in places of work and at the places where those seeking work are recruited.

In Ireland a publicity campaign was conducted through the mass media in 1974 and explanatory leaflets were distributed to workers.

In West Germany the text of the EEC directive was published in the Bundesarbeitsblatt in 1975 and sent to employers and unions with the request that they ensure its observance. In the Netherlands a brochure entitled 'The right to equal pay for men and women' was widely distributed. The brochure contained a pull-out section which victims of discrimination could use for reporting their case to a special commission.

In Belgium a brochure was drawn up on the collective labour agreement concerning equal pay for equal work and sent to all works councils.

In addition, the text of the collective agreement has to be attached to companies' conditions of employment.

In Luxembourg the authorities did not take any special information measures. However, the trade unions and women's organizations printed various articles in their own publications.

In Italy the trade unions in particular have given publicity to the legal obligation to pay equal wages.

In Denmark the 'Equality Board' distributed a brochure explaining the provisions of the new law. This brochure also contained advice on how to lodge complaints.

6.1.3. National arrangements for protection under the law

Workers who consider that they are not receiving equal pay (pursuant to Article 3) have the right to take legal action against their employers and the right to be protected while so doing (pursuant to Article 5).

In France, Italy, Belgium and Luxembourg it is the task of the labour inspectorate to ensure that the directive is observed.

Women workers (or their representatives, who may be the trade unions) who feel that their rights have not been respected may take their case before the appropriate legal authorities. Fines or prison sentences may be imposed on negligent employers (particularly in France).

In the United Kingdom, Denmark and West Germany employees (or their representatives) first have to refer their grievance to the trade unions, works councils, arbitration committees etc. Only where no satisfaction is obtained through these channels, may the individual concerned refer the matter to the competent tribunal.

In the United Kingdom there is also the possibility of applying to the Equal Opportunities Commission for legal assistance.

In Denmark and West Germany no administrative supervision is carried out by the authorities.

In the Netherlands the employee may apply to the 'Committee on Equal Pay for Men and Women', after which he or she may refer the matter to the competent tribunal.

In Ireland the employee must first take his case to an 'equal rights officer'. If the said officer is unable to solve the problem, application is made to the Labour Tribunal.

Moreover, in Ireland, if the employee concerned is loath to take legal steps, the Employment Equality Committee is entitled to take action on his/her behalf.

To protect employees against reprisals, it is possible in six countries (Belgium, Denmark, France, Ireland, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom) for fines to be imposed on employers who infringe this provision or for them to be required to pay compensation.

Furthermore, the employer is obliged to reverse any dismissal decision which has been taken. If this has meanwhile become impossible,

a further fine or compensation may be awarded against him.

In West Germany and Italy dismissals in such circumstances are null and void and in the Netherlands unilateral dismissals are always subject to the approval of the director of the provincial employment authority.

In Luxembourg and Denmark use has not yet been made of the right of recourse to the courts.

In Belgium, France, Netherlands and Italy the number of complaints has been low. Only in the United Kingdom has the number been spectacular.

6.1.4. Proposals for improvements

Although all the Member States now have a legal basis to support the principle of equal pay it is noticeable that the national implementing provisions are quite varied and not always applied in accordance with the directive's objectives.

Serious divergencies have been found with regard to very important provisions.

It is thus gratifying to note that the Commission has initiated infringement procedures under Article 169 of the EEC Treaty to compel the Member States to respect all of the directive's provisions. This has since led to a number of improvements.

It appears, however, that even when national law is correctly adapted to the directive, this is not sufficient in practice to solve the problem of equal pay for equal work. It is evident that large groups of women are still being underpaid. In spite of this the number of complaints submitted has been extremely small.

In some countries no complaints at all have been submitted, in others all that is known is that the number has been very low and it has been possible to collect actual figures from only three countries (see the working documents of the Ad Hoc Committee).

Thus, in 1977 in the Netherlands 32 women and 10 men lodged complaints with the commission set up for this purpose.

In Italy last year (1979) less than 10 cases were taken through the courts.

It seems that implementing legislation is working well only in the United Kingdom. In 1976, 1977 and 1978, 1,742, 751 and 343 complaints respectively were made and of these 213, 91 and 24 were upheld.

An analysis of national implementing legislation shows that there are large differences between one Member State and another as regards both the way in which publicity has been handled and the way in which legal steps may be taken.

In practice it appears that the best results have been achieved in those countries which organized a large-scale information campaign and then set up a special committee to provide information and receive complaints.

In this connection it is recommended that in order to improve implementation of the directive Member States should be asked to launch and information campaign at regular intervals, say once a year, preferably with the cooperation of the mass media (TV, radio and press).

At the same time special committees ought to be set up in all the Member States in order to give those concerned any assistance needed when approaching the legal authorities. These committees might also be entrusted with the task of registering complaints so as to make more information available about where and how the equal pay rule is evaded.

The Dunwoody report has already urged that such committees be set up.

A survey of complaints may provide some idea of the effect of the directive. Such information is however only the 'tip of the iceberg' since it will clarify the situation of only those cases in which complaints are actually lodged.

If any real insight into the whole problem of unequal pay is to be gained, adequate statistics must be drawn up in each Member State, statistics which clearly identify the special position of women at work, e.g. in part-time employment.

One important requisite for the drawing up of reliable statistics is an adequate system of job classification. Unfortunately, the resources are lacking in most Member States to carry out the checks needed.

The Dunwoody report has already stressed the importance of both job classification systems and reliable statistics but so far nothing has been done. An urgent recommendation ought therefore to be made that the directive contain express requirements on these two points.

Finally, one should point out that the directive makes provision for an assessment to be made on only one occasion. Since one cannot expect the problem of equal pay to be solved in just a few years and in fact, particularly in a period of economic recession, one ought to be prepared for some back-sliding into old ways, there is a pressing need for regular assessment over a long period.

An addition to the directive which will require the Member States to make reports annually is urgently needed.

6.1.5. National fiscal legislation

It is unfortunate that even when employers have met all the demands relating to the principle of equal pay, the principle is not fully realized because there are differing fiscal rules applicable to male and female workers, married and unmarried. In practice this means that the net wage of a woman worker after tax deductions is often considerably lower than the net wage of her male colleagues. These arrangements are found in all the Member States and are considered by women to be unacceptable discrimination. The Commission is urgently requested to draw up a proposal for a directive for equal treatment of men and women workers in fiscal legislation using as a model the directive for equal treatment in social security.

6.2. The directive on equal treatment

Pursuant to Article 10 of the directive on equal treatment the Member States had to inform the Commission within a period of two years of the notification of the directive, of the way in which it had been applied. On the basis of this information, the Commission is now completing its first assessment report.

The Ad Hoc Committee has received a provisional version of the report and finds that the provisional data give little cause for optimism.

On the basis of the provisional report and of its own working documents the Ad Hoc Committee has made an evaluation of national implementing regulations, the rules governing exceptions, the way in which the information campaigns have been organized and provisions concerning the right to apply to the responsible legal authorities.

6.2.1. The nature of national implementing legislation

As far as is at present known, legislative or administrative measures have been introduced in seven of the nine Member States in implementation of the European directive on equal treatment.

In West Germany it was initially considered unnecessary to make any adjustment to national legislation in view of the provisions contained in the Basic Law. However, since then, a bill has been introduced which the Bundestag is expected to consider in the course of 1980.

In Luxembourg a bill has been introduced but it has not yet been debated by Parliament.

In France the constitution of 1946 provides for the equal treatment of men and women. In addition to this, a law (No. 75/625) amending and complementing labour law and specifically aimed at ensuring equal

treatment for men and women, was adopted in 1975. Further adjustments were made to the law on social insurance and the penal code.

In the United Kingdom the Sex Discrimination Act of 1975 also provides for the equal treatment of men and women in employment. (This act came into force in Northern Ireland in 1976).

In Ireland the Employment Equality Act was introduced in 1977.

In Italy equal treatment for men and women in employment is provided for in the constitution of 1947 (Article 37). In addition, the Law on the Equal Treatment of men and women employees came into force in 1977.

In Belgium the directive is covered by Article 6 of the constitution. In addition, a law was passed in 1978 establishing equal treatment for men and women as regards terms of employment and access to employment, training and career advancement as well as access to the professions.

In Denmark three new laws have been passed since April 1973 in implementation of the directive: a law amending various other laws so as to make them comply with the principle of equal treatment, a specific law establishing equal treatment for men and women in employment and a law setting up an 'Equality Board'.

In the Netherlands a bill was introduced in 1979 to meet the requirements of the directive. This law came into force in the spring of 1980. In the summer of 1979 emergency legislation was passed in the Netherlands prohibiting the dismissal of married women on the grounds of their marital status. Such legislation was necessary because hundreds of married school-mistresses were threatened with dismissal in connection with increasing unemployment amongst teachers.

6.2.2. Rules governing exceptions

Under Article 2(2) of the directive, the Member States are entitled to exclude certain occupations from the provisions of the directive.

France has drawn up a list of posts in the civil service which are reserved for men or women. Moreover, the jobs of forester and land agent and certain positions in the police force and in the post office, are among those reserved for men. The following are reserved for women: certain positions in education, certain senior posts in boarding schools and certain customs jobs (Decree No. 77.359, March 1977). Decree No. 78.872 provides for certain distinctions to be made between men and women as regards posts in nursery education, particularly where there is an imbalance in the teaching staff sex ratio.

The law in the United Kingdom provides for the following exemptions: domestic staff, businesses with less than five employees, church functions and certain positions in the armed forces. Exceptions can also be made for actors, singers, prison staff, staff in psychiatric institutions, etc.

In Ireland there are certain exceptions in respect of the armed forces, the police and prison services. Jobs in family businesses and domestic service also fall outside the scope of the directive. Further exceptions are made in respect of jobs which entail spending the night in buildings in which no separate accommodation exists for men and women.

Italy: the law provides for exceptions in the fashion, artistic and theatrical worlds.

In Belgium a Royal Decree was drawn up by the Council of Ministers after consultation with the Committee on the Employment of Women and the trade unions which applies to both the private and public sectors and provides for a number of exceptions. These are for actors, actresses, fashion models etc. Employees from other European Community countries are treated according to the legislation of their own country. These exemptions are only valid for the offer of employment and do not apply to the work itself or to training. Exemptions also exist for certain positions in the armed forces, the police force and the fire brigade, precision work in laboratories (women) and posts in the prison service.

In Denmark the minister responsible can grant exemptions to the law in respect of actors and models and work in public baths.

6.2.3. The way in which the information campaigns have been organized

Under Article 8 of the directive, the Member States are obliged to ensure that the provisions of the directive on equal treatment are brought to the knowledge of women employees by all available means.

Although not a single country has introduced special legislation for this purpose, something has nevertheless been done in each of them.

In France the office of the Secretary of State for Employment and the Comité du Travail Féminin have distributed information on the directive.

In the United Kingdom, information has been distributed by the Home Office and the Equal Opportunities Commission. The provisions of the law have also been publicized by the media.

In Ireland information has been distributed through employment offices and the Employment Equality Agency has brought out brochures and posters.

In Italy information has been given through the media, the trade unions and women's organizations. The Ministry of Labour and the Institute for Social Services have distributed a brochure amongst the labour inspectorate, regional and provincial employment offices and employers' and employees' organizations.

Belgium has also taken various measures to promote information on this directive: a brochure was prepared by the Ministry of Labour and Employment on how to draw up non-discriminatory job advertisements, broadcasts were made on radio and television and information meetings were organized for the labour inspectorate.

In Denmark the Equality Board has published a great deal of information on the new legislation.

In the Netherlands a large-scale information campaign was mounted recently involving all the mass media: radio, television and the press. Employers' and employees' organizations received specific information material.

6.2.4. Provisions concerning the right to apply to the responsible legal authorities

Under Article 6 of the directive the Member States are obliged to provide an opportunity for claims to be pursued by judicial process.

Furthermore, any citizen of the European Community may, if necessary, institute proceedings at the European Court of Justice, this channel has not yet been used, however, in connection with this directive.

France has not introduced any special measures in this respect. However, any citizen who feels that he or she has been unfairly treated in the matter of employment is entitled, by virtue of the Constitution and the Law of 1975, to take the matter to court. The law provides for civil law measures and penal sanctions.

In the United Kingdom victims of discrimination may take their case to an industrial tribunal. The parties to such an action may be represented by a person of their own choice, e.g. a lawyer or a trade union representative.

The Equal Opportunities Commission can also assist victims of discrimination to present their complaints, especially where matters of principle are concerned in respect of which the complainant cannot be expected to make a proper assessment of the situation.

In Ireland an individual who feels he or she has been discriminated against in his or her employment has the right to take the matter to an industrial tribunal. Section 19 of the Employment Equality Act lays down the legal procedure to be followed with regard to conciliation, the mediation of the Equality Officer, etc. If a claim is rejected, an appeal can be made to the civil court.

The Employment Equality Agency set up by virtue of Sections 35 and 36 may take initiatives to prevent or eliminate discrimination. It may hold inquiries, publish model non-discriminatory advertisements, make proposals to the government and bring cases before the industrial tribunal.

In Italy Article 15 of the law of 1977 allows employees to appeal to the courts, if necessary through the intermediary of the trade unions.

The court is competent to issue an order, which must be acted on immediately. The law also provides for the subsequent procedure. The right of appeal of civil servants is governed by legislation passed in December 1971.

In Belgium any individual who feels that he or she has been unjustly treated as regards 'equal treatment' is entitled to take his or her case to the appropriate legal authority in order to enforce compliance with the law. Representatives of employees' organizations or of organizations of persons exercising professions may go to court to defend their members' interests in those cases stipulated by the law.

The judge may issue instructions that an end be put to discriminatory situations and, if necessary, for instance where a person is denied vocational training, recourse may be had to a swifter procedure.

The law also makes provision for civil law measures and penal sanctions.

In Denmark the law contains no special provisions on the right of appeal.

6.2.5. Proposals for improving the application of the directive

The Ad Hoc Committee is of the opinion that a considered judgement cannot yet be made of the initial effect of the directive until the first evaluation report is available in the final version. The Commission is therefore requested to draw up the report and submit it to the competent committee of Parliament as quickly as possible.

However, a number of comments can already be made on the basis of information at present available.

One must first recognize that in their national implementing legislation, the Member States have included a larger variation of exceptions and exemptions than is reasonably necessary.

It ought perhaps to be recommended that a provision should be added to the directive very clearly stating the number of permissible exemptions which should be as low as possible.

There are also wide differences in the way in which the various Member States have met the obligation to disseminate information about the content of the directive and its objectives, some countries having only done what is absolutely necessary while others have initiated large-scale publicity campaigns.

As in the case of the directive on equal pay, one cannot stress too often the importance of ample and regular information.

There should perhaps also be a recommendation here that a provision be added to the directive to the effect that a national information campaign should be organized once a year to draw attention to the implementation of the directive and involving all the appropriate media: television, radio and the press.

Here, too, we note that the right to take legal action is subject to very different rules in the various Member States.

As with the implementation of the directive on equal pay, only some Member States have set up special commissions to render assistance to employees who wish to go to court on the basis of the directive's provisions. The setting-up of such commissions must be seen as a very positive development.

Experience shows that the effect of these commissions is to lower thresholds, i.e. women are more inclined to take their complaints to the responsible authorities. Furthermore, these commissions can be instrumental in registering the number of complaints and their nature so that some insight may be gained into the situations in which the provisions of the directive are evaded.

It is once again to be recommended that the directive be extended with a provision whereby national commissions would be entrusted with the task of gathering information, helping women who wish to go to court and with registering and documenting complaints.

Finally the directive requires an assessment to be made after four years (Article 9) and requests the Member States 'periodically' to undertake a study into its effect. In view of experience with the sluggish implementation of the directive by the various Member States, it seems advisable to make a stricter arrangement for the assessment of the directive, e.g. by requiring the Member States to provide an accurate report every two years.

Such a provision could be added to the directive.

6.3. Implementation of the directive on 'equal social security'

It is extremely regrettable that the Member States should have obtained six years, should they want it, to incorporate the directive on equal social security into their national law. This was done principally in answer to a request from the Netherlands and Italy who would have to make the most changes in their legislation with considerable financial consequences. One has the impression that those Member States which need to change much less in their legislation are now dragging their feet on introducing the directive. Millions of women will continue to be cheated for a number of years because of this.

Furthermore, the Ad Hoc Committee has received indications that some Member States are inclined first to adapt those social laws which are to the advantage of women and only after that to make a start on the much larger group of laws which are to their disadvantage. This will create a temporary financial advantage to the Member State concerned and a temporary financial disadvantage to the women who are affected.

It was certainly not the objective of this provision in the directive to delay the putting of men and women workers on an equal footing in social legislation or to put women temporarily in an even more disadvantageous position.

It would therefore be useful if the Commission were to set up an inquiry into the nature and content of the regulations adopted in application of the directive in order to determine whether these are acting in accordance with its objectives.

It is also regrettable that a number of regulations connected with pension rights are not required to be included within the sphere of action of the directive, viz:

- the determination of pensionable age,
- the advantages conferred in accordance with old-age pension schemes on persons who have brought up children and the acquisition of entitlements after a period away from work in order to bring up children,
- the granting of an entitlement to old-age or invalidity benefit by reason of the derived entitlements of a wife, and
- the awarding of increases in old-age or invalidity benefits for a dependent wife.

The Ad Hoc Committee has found that the pension arrangements for citizens and employees in the Member States show wide differences but considers that it is not possible or even desirable that uniform arrangements be introduced.

This does not mean that it is not possible to lay down a number of principles in European legislation with regard to pension arrangements, for example, the principle of equal treatment of men and women workers in all pension schemes with regard both to the calculation of individual pensions and to pensions for widows, widowers and orphans. The Commission ought in the near future to draw up proposals for a supplementary directive.

6.4. Action by the European Social Fund

Under the provisions of the revised Article 4 of the European Social Fund special funds have been appropriated since 1978 for projects to benefit women of or over 25 years of age who have lost their jobs or wish to return to work after a long break. This appropriation amounted to 0.5 million EUA for 1978, 6.6 million EUA for 1979 and 14.1 million for 1980.

6.4.1. The implementation of Article 4¹

Hardly any applications were submitted in 1978. In April 1979 (the final deadline for the submission of projects for 1979) the total

¹Source: 'Eighth report on the activities of the European Social Fund - financial year 1979', Brussels, 29 July 1980, COM(80) 365 final/2.

volume of aid requested stood at 4.5 million EUA, equivalent to little more than half of the available amount. The Commission therefore gave extra attention to its publicity and extended the deadline for the submission of projects. Letters were sent to national ministries, a special meeting was held in Lyons and the brochure 'Women and the Social Fund' (see 5.5) was given the widest possible distribution. Taking 1979 as a whole, 62 projects were submitted amounting to a total of 31.259 million EUA.

These applications were very unevenly spread throughout the Community. 78% by volume of aid requests originated in West Germany (14 projects), 8% from France (32 projects), 8% from Italy (5 projects), 2% from the Netherlands (2 projects), 2% from the United Kingdom (2 projects) and 1% from Denmark (1 project). Belgium submitted one very small project and Luxembourg applied for nothing at all.

Of the projects commencing in 1979 nearly 2/3rds were concerned with the orientation of women towards traditionally male jobs. Some 750 women took part in these projects, the majority of which were run by private bodies. Six projects were designed to train women for new occupations and involved approximately 200 women. The remaining projects were directed towards training in traditionally female occupations (approx. 8,000 women) or training in areas in which both men and women are employed (approx. 7,000 women). Altogether some 16,000 women were involved in these projects of whom about 1/3rd wished to return to work after a long break and 2/3rds were unemployed.

As a result of the problems experienced with the 1980 budget a selection procedure has been in operation since December 1979 for applications, with priority being given to projects concerned with the training of women for traditionally male jobs and the training of women for new occupations. As far as is known at present the total number of applications for 1980 amount to 71 million EUA. However, more than 80% of these applications again come from West Germany.

6.4.2. Notes and proposals on improvement

The most striking point here is that the available financial resources have been spread very unevenly between the Member States with about 80% of the available resources going to West Germany in both 1979 and 1980. Further examination shows moreover that West Germany has submitted a large number of programmes in the traditional sphere. It is perhaps worth recommending that, in view of this lop-sided effect, a new information campaign should be mounted particularly in those Member States which have been very reticent about submitting projects. A rule should also be made that no single Member State may receive more than 30% of the available resources.

Furthermore, a relatively large number of women were involved in programmes concerned with training in the traditional sector. Since the end of 1979 the Commission has, for budgetary reasons, operated a selection procedure in which priority is given to projects directed towards traditionally male jobs and projects directed towards new occupations.

This scale of priorities in the selection procedure is certainly welcome and should not be solely dependent on the availability of resources. It is to be recommended that the Commission should simply give priority to these projects and be sparing in its grants for training in traditionally female occupations.

Finally it is to be noted that the report on the European Social Fund only gives some general information about the carrying out of special projects for women. In view of the great importance which Parliament and others attach to this item, it would be desirable for the Commission to issue a report once a year before the summer recess on the nature and the content of the projects to be subsidized and on the distribution of finances between the various projects and countries in order to be able to determine whether any changes are needed in the budget before the commencement of the budgetary procedure.

6.5. Proposals for improvements to action in the field of education

Endorsement must be given to the Commission's contention that it will not be possible for men and women to attain an equal position in employment unless measures are taken in the sphere of education. It must be assumed that the Commission has made correct use of the opportunities which the Treaty of Rome provides for conducting a policy in this area.

It is therefore extremely regrettable that the implementation and evaluation of the relevant proposals should be delayed and hampered by the fact that the Council of Education Ministers meets so infrequently. Parliament should make an urgent appeal to the Council that it should meet at least once a year in order better to direct, coordinate and assess European policy to improve the position of girls and women in education.

On 27 June 1980 the Council gave its approval in principle to an action programme to create 'equal opportunities in education and training for girls in second level education'. The programme set out the following priorities:

- the management and implementation of co-education;
- the design of compensatory programmes specifically for girls in the first cycle of second level education and in vocational guidance;

- the design of core curricula and the introduction of new compulsory subjects such as technology and home management;
- the creation of new staff development policies, designed to achieve a better sex balance in the teaching force, particularly in the context of policies for teacher recruitment and promotion;
- the design of new training modules to increase the awareness of teachers and guidance personnel of the social and psychological factors involved;
- the improvement of data and research on educational equality for girls and the exchange of information on this subject between Member States.

The Commission is to be commended for the tenacity with which it has initiated activities to prepare this programme despite the attitude of the Council. Without a doubt the contents can be endorsed in their entirety. One must, however, point out that discrimination against girls in education is not limited to secondary education. Discrimination begins in primary education and continues at all levels and almost all areas of education. If a programme to improve the position of girls in education is to be successful, it must cover all levels and all areas of education.

The Ad Hoc Committee is therefore of the opinion that this initial step must be followed up by a more detailed programme. Its proposals are set out in Chapter 9 of this report. The Ad Hoc Committee also much appreciates the work of the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training but has found that far too little is known of its research work in the Member States. Since the purpose of the Centre is to prepare policy and not simply to undertake research, its information and publicity function is just as important as its research work. The Commission ought therefore to see to it that the Centre's information policy is effective enough for it to fulfil its task as well as it can.

6.6. The improvement of the situation of women farmers in the Member States of the Community

It is particularly gratifying that the Commission has given attention to the position of women farmers in the Member States of the Community. The study prepared by the Agricultural High School in Wageningen contains very useful information on which a policy to improve the position of this group may be based. It is therefore regrettable that the Commission has taken so much time to draw up the report and formulate policy proposals. In order to stimulate this policy, the Ad Hoc Committee will, therefore, in Chapter 11 of this report, examine in detail the position of women

working for family businesses, and particularly the position of women farmers, and formulate proposals for a policy to improve the position of this group.

7. The need to expand European policy in favour of women

The European Community has so far made a good beginning on developing a policy to improve the position of women. By making use of Article 119 of the Treaty of Rome, a policy has been instituted to improve the position of women in employment and by using Article 118 a start has been made on Community action to improve the position of women in education.

The Ad Hoc Committee nevertheless considers that, in order to meet the objective of Article 119, which formulates the principle of equal pay for equal work, something more is necessary than limited action in the field of employment and education.

The unbalanced socio-economic relationship between men and women in the Community, of which unequal pay is only one of the most blatant manifestations is to some extent caused by shortcomings in almost every sector of society. The Ad Hoc Committee therefore concurs with the UN Action Plan drawn up in Mexico City and Copenhagen and with the UN 'Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women' that a change and improvement in the position of women requires a broad integrated policy involving all sectors of our society.

When extending the policy to improve the position of women, certain priorities will have to be fixed. Priority will have to be given to those sectors in which discrimination against women is greatest and which directly or indirectly influence their socio-economic position. Particular attention must be given at the same time to those groups which appear to be especially vulnerable.

With these considerations in view, the Ad Hoc Committee would propose the following priorities for the development of a European policy to further the equality of male and female citizens:

- improving the socio-economic participation of women and encouraging the equal distribution of paid and unpaid work amongst all European citizens;
- improving the position of women in education;
- improving the position of women in the health services;
- improving the legal status of women;
- improving the position of vulnerable groups of women such as migrant women, women working in family businesses, women working at home and women living in sparsely populated rural areas;

- greater concern for the improvement of the position of women in the acceding countries (Greece, Portugal and Spain),
- more concern for the improvement of the position of women in developing countries as part of Europe's policy on development aid and external economic relations.

The second part of this report will contain an explanation of these priorities together with detailed policy proposals.

C. Proposals for the improvement of European policy in favour of women

8. Improvement of the social and economic position of women

The historical and cultural development of the countries of the European Community has led to a division of labour whereby men are engaged mainly in gainful employment and women are predominantly engaged in unpaid work or occupy a limited and subordinate position in gainful employment.

8.1 The position of women in the unpaid work sector

The position of women in the unpaid work sector, particularly where it involves domestic duties, is largely invisible to the authorities both at national and international level. Very few overall data are available on the specific problems of such women and how they can be solved. The main cause of official indifference towards housewives lies in their 'economic invisibility'.

The result of their labours is not quantified and their work is unremunerated. Interest is only shown in the housewife insofar as her duties bear some relation to the visible economy, for example in her position as a consumer (market surveys are regularly made) or when she takes up gainful employment.

The Ad Hoc Committee takes the view that there is insufficient appreciation of, or interest in, the position of housewives, their role in the household and their contribution to the national and Community economy. In this connection it refers to the great importance of resolution 1-443/79 by Mrs Lenz and others on the basis of which a report on family policy in the European Community is now being drawn up by the parliamentary Committee on Social Affairs and Employment.¹

The ad hoc Committee feels that, pending the drawing up of this report and to comply with the parliamentary rules in this field, it should observe appropriate restraint and brevity in analysing the problems of households and housewives.

However, this does not mean that a number of remarks on the overall position of housewives are not called for in the context of this report:

¹ Source:
Doc. 1-443/79 European Parliament. Motion for a resolution on family policy in the European Community, under consideration by the Committee on Social Affairs and Employment.
Rapporteur: Mrs Cassanmagnago Cerretti

- Large numbers of women were restricted to the domestic duties sector at a time when women had no political rights.
- During the period of history concerned women had hardly any choice. It was a question of either holding an exploited position in gainful employment while bearing the entire burden of domestic duties or exercising an isolated occupation within the household.
- The restriction of women to domestic duties meant acceptance of a situation whereby they would only be able to develop a limited range of one-sided abilities and have to abandon wholesale any talents which had no bearing on their domestic duties.
- The restriction of women to domestic duties meant above all acceptance of a socially isolated and economically dependent position.

8.1.1 Image of the modern European housewife

There are few Community data on the overall position of the European housewife. However, the unpaid working life of women is known to follow a very specific pattern which differs from that of many other occupations.

The working life of housewives can be broken down into various phases. Each of these phases has its own possibilities and problems. Owing to the lack of Community data, the Dutch housewife will serve as a model for this report.¹

In the Netherlands most women begin performing unpaid work immediately after marriage, although in most cases they also continue in gainful employment until the birth of their first child.

From the very first phase of the marriage, roles are cast according to the traditional pattern where women are made responsible primarily for domestic duties and men are primarily concerned with gainful employment.

¹ Source:
'Sociale Atlas van de Nederlandse Vrouw', Dr J.L. Meyers, SPC,
Volume 11, Staatsuitgeverij, The Hague, August 1977

Although the readiness of husbands to perform a share of household duties is greatest during the early years of marriage, it is nonetheless true to say that the total burden of work borne by women during this early period increases whereas the total workload of men tends to decrease.

The consequences of marriage are therefore greater for the woman than for the man.

Moreover this is the result not only of the unequal division of household duties but also of the fact that a number of traditionally male occupations are implicitly based on the assumption that it is the duty of 'a wife' to perform a number of fundamental tasks which will enable her husband to perform his job as well as possible.

These consist not only of indirect tasks such as fulfilling basic domestic needs (food, clothing, accommodation, etc.) but also tasks directly arising out of the husband's occupation, such as catering for the special needs of shift workers, helping in the family business (shopkeeping and agriculture) and a whole range of those duties associated with business executives, senior civil servants and politicians.

It is therefore not surprising that the average employer looks more favourably on male employees getting married than on female employees getting married.

Actually, partly thanks to contraception, the first phase of marriage is constantly getting longer. Ten years ago it lasted roughly one year. Now it lasts about three years.

Children tend to be conceived later in the case of women with a higher level of education or employed at a higher occupational level than in the case of women with a lower level of education and occupying a lower occupational position.

There is a small but increasing number of women who voluntarily refrain from bearing children.

The arrival of children marks the beginning of the second phase of the working life of housewives.

The number of women who leave working life upon the arrival of their first child is falling but it is still very high (80 to 90%). The absence of any form of parental leave and the great shortage of

child-minding facilities are partly to blame for this situation. Furthermore, women are subject to great social pressure to care for their own children and they look favourably upon this task.

In the period spent caring for young children, women have to shoulder an extremely heavy burden of unpaid labour. A 12-hour working day during the first year after the birth of the child is not unusual. It should be noted that during this period assistance from husbands hardly increases. Moreover, husbands tend to be selective about the duties they perform.

If the woman continues to follow an occupation during this period, her total workload becomes very heavy. During this period many working women switch to part-time employment. What is striking is that the help given by the average husband to his working wife with young children is no greater than that given to the full-time housewife with young children. A Dutch survey indicated that the help received by the full-time housewife amounted to 9.7 hours a week whereas the wife working outside the home could expect 8.9 hours of marital help a week.

Women employed outside the home have greater recourse to help from outside for their domestic duties than full-time housewives. According to the survey, 18% of gainfully working housewives seek such help as against 6% of housewives who only work in the home. The lack of adequate assistance is one of the most important problems confronting women with young children.

In the event of illness, help is only provided when the illness is very serious, i.e. when it is long-lasting or after a period in hospital.

In addition to this, women working outside the home also have to cope with the problem of sick husbands. In many cases they are obliged to use their holiday entitlement in order to cope with the additional tasks at home.

It is in this period that the full-time housewife begins to be socially isolated and economically dependent. This may lead to specific types of stress and health problems.

The woman's workload becomes lighter when her children start to attend school. 90% of Dutch children enter nursery school as from 4 years of age.

A relatively large number of women fill their new-found free time by taking up courses or performing voluntary work, which makes less demands than paid employment and involves interesting and rewarding activities. There is also a large number of women who see this new period in their lives as a great vacuum which they can find no way of filling. Specific health problems arise within this group, such as excessive consumption of alcohol and tranquillisers. Those women who have remained in gainful employment now enjoy a favourable period during which some of them are still able to make a worthwhile career. Yet, as a result of the excessive long-term demands on them, women in this situation tend to suffer more from chronic health disorders than their male colleagues. Many working women retire prematurely. Housewives in fact never retire. Many women continue to perform domestic tasks till very late in life. This can be a very heavy burden on women who have health problems, have had large families or have had a job outside the home as well. Other women are happy with their household chores. Older women devote more time to being grandparents than older men. Husbands tend to help more with the household chores after retirement, but the help they provide remains modest and selective.

The question which must be asked is what present-day women think of their position and how men view the position of women within the family. Community data are available on this subject.

8.1.2 Attitudes to unpaid domestic work

In 1975 and in 1978 the Commission conducted a survey amongst European citizens in order to obtain a deeper insight into these matters¹.

One noteworthy fact to emerge from the 1975 survey was that there was far too little realization on the part of men about how women viewed work in the home and about their desire to engage in gainful employment.

In the 1975 survey it was in particular noted that:

- a clear majority of women, both married and single, wished to continue or resume their outside work,

¹ Source:
'Men and women of Europe in 1978', supplement No. 3 to
'Women of Europe', Directorate-General for Information,
European Communities, Doc. X/72/79 Report on a Community survey

- there was always a far stronger desire on the part of women to work in gainful employment than men realized,
- many men preferred their wives to stay at home - even the men who admitted that their wives preferred to go out to work,
- women underestimated their husbands' reservations about their going out to work.

In 1977 the results of the 1975 survey were amplified. Amongst other things, the feeling of regret amongst full-time housewives at the lack of a gainful occupation was measured. To the question 'Do you regret not having a paid job?' roughly half the housewives answered in the affirmative. More precisely, 47% said they regretted it, 47% said they did not regret it and 6% gave no answer. The replies varied according to nationality. French, Italian, British and Dutch housewives expressed the most regret, Luxembourg housewives the least, whereas Belgian, Danish, West German and Irish housewives occupied an intermediate position.

From answers to a question in the 1978 survey on the reasons why women were not engaged in gainful employment, it emerged that by far the most commonly given reason was domestic duties. Half of the housewives interviewed gave this as the main reason. In Ireland, Britain and France the figure was even above 60%. The second most frequently quoted reason was that the husband preferred his wife to remain at home. On average, 15% of women gave this as the reason. (In Belgium 24%.)

Survey: Reasons given by women for not going out to work (per country)¹

	B	DK	D	F	IRL	I	L	N	UK	EC ²
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
1. Household duties did not permit	51	(44)	51	61	63	40	(39)	47	62	52
2. Husband preferred her to remain at home	24	(20)	16	19	9	17	(17)	10	5	15
3. Did not consider it when it was still possible	10	(8)	2	5	7	20	(33)	8	4	8
4. Could not find a job she liked	8	(3)	10	3	12	11	(-)	12	8	8
5. In her area married women did not work	1	(-)	6	-	3	4	(-)	-	4	3
6. Lost her job and could not find another	3	(15)	2	3	-	2	(-)	2	4	3
7. No answer	3	(10)	13	9	6	6	(11)	21	13	11
8. Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
9. Basis	74	(39)	83	114	99	133	(18)	129	111	849

¹ The reasons are arranged in descending order of frequency of replies

² Weighted average

Another important question in the second survey concerned the attitudes of men and women towards household duties. One striking result was that, with the exception of Danish men, a majority of both men and women in all countries said that 'housework could be quite enjoyable'.

Important differences between countries and sexes were:

- in all countries men had a less positive image of housework than women,
- men's image of housework was the most positive in Luxembourg and Ireland and the least positive in Denmark and Italy,
- women's image of housework was most positive in Luxembourg, Ireland and Belgium and least positive in Denmark and Italy.

It emerged moreover that women's image of housework was influenced by their level of education. On average, women with a higher level of education showed an attitude to housework which was three times less positive than women who had only received lower education. Furthermore, women who went out to work showed (regardless of education) a less positive attitude towards housework than full-time housewives.

The survey endeavoured to obtain a deeper insight into the division of tasks within the household, in particular with respect to the help given by husbands. It was notable that in all countries there were more men who considered that they assisted their wives sometimes or frequently than there were women who felt they were helped occasionally or frequently by their husbands. On average 82% of men said that they helped their wives sometimes or often, whereas only 69% of women said that they were occasionally or often assisted by their husbands. The men's 'margin of exaggeration' was on average 13%, but varied greatly from country to country. It was narrowest in Denmark (5%) and broadest in Italy (21%) and Luxembourg (19%). Men appeared to be the most helpful in Denmark and the Netherlands and the least helpful in Italy (49% never helped their wives).

Survey: Help given with housework by husbands

	B	DK ¹	D	F	IRL	I	L	N	UK	EC ²
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
<u>Husband's reply:</u>										
<u>'I help my wife'</u>										
often	38	37	28	39	32	15	32	41	48	33
sometimes	44	46	57	45	51	54	51	52	39	49
never	17	11	13	11	16	30	15	6	12	16
no reply	1	6	2	5	1	1	2	1	1	2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Basis ³	336	342	334	419	271	364	126	330	478	3065

And this period also gives rise to new problems. Owing to the traffic situation in the densely-populated Netherlands, many children up to around 8 years of age have to be taken to school. 90% of Dutch schools follow a 'split timetable', 3 hours of lessons being given in the morning and 2 in the afternoon.

The opening and closing times of nursery and infant schools vary greatly as do the times of lower and higher classes in junior schools. The job of accompanying the children to and from school means that many mothers are faced with an extra workload of two or three hours a day. This makes it impossible for many women to return to gainful employment. For women who are already in paid employment these school times are often an additional burden. There are very few schools which provide child-minding facilities during the lunch hour or after school.

The number of women who make use of this period in order to take up training courses is increasing. Participation by women in voluntary work is also increasing. The burden is alleviated further when the children go on to secondary education. However, the effect should not be overestimated. Caring and catering for the needs of teenagers demands a lot of time and energy and this task is carried out to a large extent by women.

The third phase in the unpaid working life of women comes when their children leave home. This third phase is longer than the first and second phase together and lasts almost thirty years. This long 'childless' period is a very recent phenomenon and is closely connected with the limited size of modern families. The present generation of women is hardly prepared for this new situation. In their youth they were groomed through upbringing and education for a lifelong career as full-time housewives. The average level of education of this generation of women is low, limited and one-sided. Surveys into how people spend their time show that during this period full-time housewives continue to devote a great deal of time to domestic work; they seek to improve their efficiency and 'devote more time to pleasant pursuits'. Some women try to re-enter working life, which is frequently particularly difficult. In many cases these women have to content themselves with employment requiring a low level of skill not commensurate with the education they have received. Re-integration in working life is frequently a failure.

	B	DK	D	F	IRL	I	L	UK	N	EC
<u>Wife's reply</u>										
<u>'My husband helps me'</u>										
often	28	37	22	28	25	13	15	27	32	24
sometimes	40	41	54	44	50	35	49	54	45	45
never	31	18	23	27	24	49	32	18	22	29
no reply	1	4	1	1	1	3	4	1	1	2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Basis ³	338	351	353	425	281	358	91	421	503	3187
<u>Men's 'margin of exagqgeration'</u> ⁴	14	5	9	12	8	21	19	12	10	13

The surveys quoted are important in that they indicate the attitude of men and women to unpaid housework.

It emerged from the first survey, amongst other things, that men (who are greatly in the majority in all policy sectors) overestimate the positive attitude of women to housework and underestimate women's desire for paid employment.

From the second survey it emerged that a fair majority of men and women 'found housework quite pleasant' and that a minority of men and women found housework 'merely a chore'.

However, it also emerged that women's desire for gainful employment is far greater than the readiness of men to perform household duties, in which connection it should be pointed out that men have a tendency to claim to be more helpful in the home than they really are.

8.2 The position of women in the gainful employment sector¹

According to recent statistics, women account for roughly 38% of the working population of the European Community.

¹ Sources:

'Women in the European Community', Community action and comparisons between national situations, Commission of the European Communities, Brussels, 1980, Doc. C.B. 24/78/218/HL/C

'Working documents of the Ad Hoc Committee on Women's Rights: No. 3 (Mrs Maij-Weggen), No. 4 (Mrs Vayssade), No. 5 (Mrs Groes), No. 13 (Mrs Roudy), No. 35 (Mrs Van den Heuvel) and No. 34 (Mrs Gaiotti de Biase)

National reports from France, United Kingdom, West Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, Denmark and Italy in connection with 'High Level Conference on the Employment of Women' from the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 16-17 April 1980, Paris

However, the percentage of women engaged in paid employment varies greatly from one Member State to another. In all Member States it is considerably lower than the percentage of men engaged in gainful employment.

Percentage of men and women engaged in gainful employment
(between the ages of 14 and 60)

	D	F	I	UK	NL	B	DK	IRL	L	EC
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
<u>Men</u>	81	80	74	82	74	76	74	73	84	77
<u>Women</u>	46	48	27	52	25	38	51	30	33	38

It is striking that in three countries - the Netherlands, Ireland and Italy - 30% or fewer women are engaged in gainful employment. Moreover, in these same countries the number of men in paid employment is also relatively low. The percentage of women engaged in remunerative work is highest in the United Kingdom, Denmark, France and West Germany. Belgium and Luxembourg occupy an intermediate position. Figures on the percentage of women who go out to work must be treated with caution. The fact is that some women who are gainfully employed are not always registered as such. For instance, many women do part-time or seasonal jobs. There are also many women who work in businesses belonging to their own families. In some countries there are also large numbers of women engaged in home-based gainful employment (outwork). Registration of this sort of work differs from one country to another. In some countries these women are registered or partly registered as employed. In other countries they are classed as non-working or unemployed because the nature, duration, regularity and remuneration involved do not fall within the same terms of reference as male employment.

Not only is the number of women engaged in gainful employment limited, but the quality of the jobs which they perform is lower than that of male employees. The inferior position of women on the employment market can best be illustrated by means of a comparison of average hourly earnings. In all Member States the average hourly earnings of working women are lower than those of working men:

Differences in hourly earnings between male and female employees in 4 industries (Index 100 = general average hourly earnings)

Source: 'Women in the European Community'

	Textile Industry		Food Industry		Electronics Industry		Chemical Industry	
	m	f	m	f	m	f	m	f
West Germany	100	74	100	68	102	78	114	82
France	100	78	102	80	108	88	116	88
Italy	100	78	108	96	104	92	116	94
Netherlands	100	74	98	76	98	78	106	74
Belgium	100	72	98	78	106	88	118	78
United Kingdom	100	68	102	76	102	74	116	76

The difference in remuneration can partly be attributed to the continuing practice of 'unequal pay for equal work'. However, the main cause lies in the fact that women generally perform work that is less skilled than that of their male counterparts.

The inferior position occupied by women in employment both in qualitative and quantitative terms is a result of various factors such as:

- The large amount of unpaid work which women perform, particularly in the home. (See 8.1)
- The specific employment curve of women.
- The unsatisfactory arrangements for parental leave and child-minding.
- The high concentration of women in the part-time, seasonal and home-based employment sectors.
- The unsatisfactory through-movement of women into executive and supervisory positions.
- The high concentration of women in a limited number of branches of industry and professions.
- The effect of the development of modern technology on the employment and the work status of women.
- The under-representation of women in specific social interest groups.

- A range of outdated traditional attitudes and prejudices which in many cases weaken the position of women on the labour market very unfairly.

8.2.1 The large amount of unpaid work performed by women

One of the main causes of the restricted and marginal position of women on the paid labour market is the major share they hold in the unpaid work sector. As a result of this a large number of women disappear completely from working life. Some disappear temporarily and some remain in gainful employment. A Dutch survey showed that on average working men perform roughly nine hours of domestic work a week. On the other hand working women devote on average roughly 34 hours a week to domestic duties (as against an average of 42 hours a week in the case of a full-time housewife).¹

Time utilization in average hours per week of married women who stay at home, married women in gainful employment and married men in gainful employment: age 35

	Women who stay at home	Women in gainful employment	Men in gainful employment
Occupation	-	17.5	33.6
Housework	26.2)	23.2)	3.8)
Childcaring	9.8) 42.2	5.3) 34.2	1.9) 8.9
Errands	6.1)	5.7)	3.2)
Own needs	5.1)	5.3)	5.1)
Eating and drinking	10.4) 74.6	10.1) 73.2	11.1) 73.3
Sleeping	59.0)	57.7)	57.1)
Education and training	1.3)	1.0)	1.3)
Community work	1.7)	1.6)	3.0)
Entertaining and socializing	13.3)	11.5)	11.1)
Going out	3.8)	4.5)	6.1)
Outdoor recreation	0.4)	0.5)	1.3)
Hobbies, sport & games	5.8) 51.3	4.0) 43.5	4.1) 52.6
Voluntary social work	2.7)	2.2)	3.6)
Radio and television	10.3)	8.8)	12.1)
Reading	5.6)	4.5)	6.4)
Relaxation	1.3)	1.0)	1.0)
Other pursuits	5.1)	3.7)	2.3)
Total (rounded off)	168	168	168

¹

Source:

'Een week tijd, verslag van een onderzoek naar de tijdsbesteding van Nederlanders in oktober 1975'

W.P. Kuulst,

Cahier van het Sociaal Cultureel Planbureau Nederland

From this comparison it is clear that women in gainful employment have to shoulder by far the heaviest workload compared with both men in gainful employment and full-time housewives. The consequences of this heavy burden have an effect on women's position on the labour market: their great preference for part-time working, the fact that they have too little time and energy to follow training courses and little time or energy to pursue a career and their acceptance of and resignation in respect of work which does not correspond to their level of education, poor chances of promotion and poor pay. Employers tend not to take much account of any ambitions women may have. It is often the case that women have to work extra hard in order to demonstrate their desire to get on in their jobs. The complaint which women often make that they have to work twice as hard as men in order to achieve the same result is explained not only by the fact that women also have domestic duties to perform but also by the extra evidence they have to furnish in order to be promoted or make a career. The position of working women compared with their male colleagues is weakened both directly and indirectly by the double work-load they have to bear.

8.2.2 Women's specific employment curve

The specific employment curve for women is also a major cause of their restricted and inferior position in the employment sphere.

This specific employment curve results from the fact that owing to household duties many women disappear temporarily from working life.

In all countries of the Community a high percentage of women are in gainful employment between the ages of 16 and 21, and the figure peaks at around 21. In almost all countries the percentage falls steeply between 21 and 35 years of age, the lowest point being reached between 25 and 30 years of age. After the age of 35 the percentage of women in gainful employment rises again, peaking at around 50. This is followed by a further regression whereby it is to be noted that women disappear from the gainful employment sector earlier than men.

In general, women's lives in gainful employment follow the following pattern: an early beginning, an interruption or regression during the family-raising period, a gradual return and an early end.

In the case of men, the overall curve is considerably more regular and stable with a somewhat later start, a high percentage in employment for a long time and an abrupt late end.

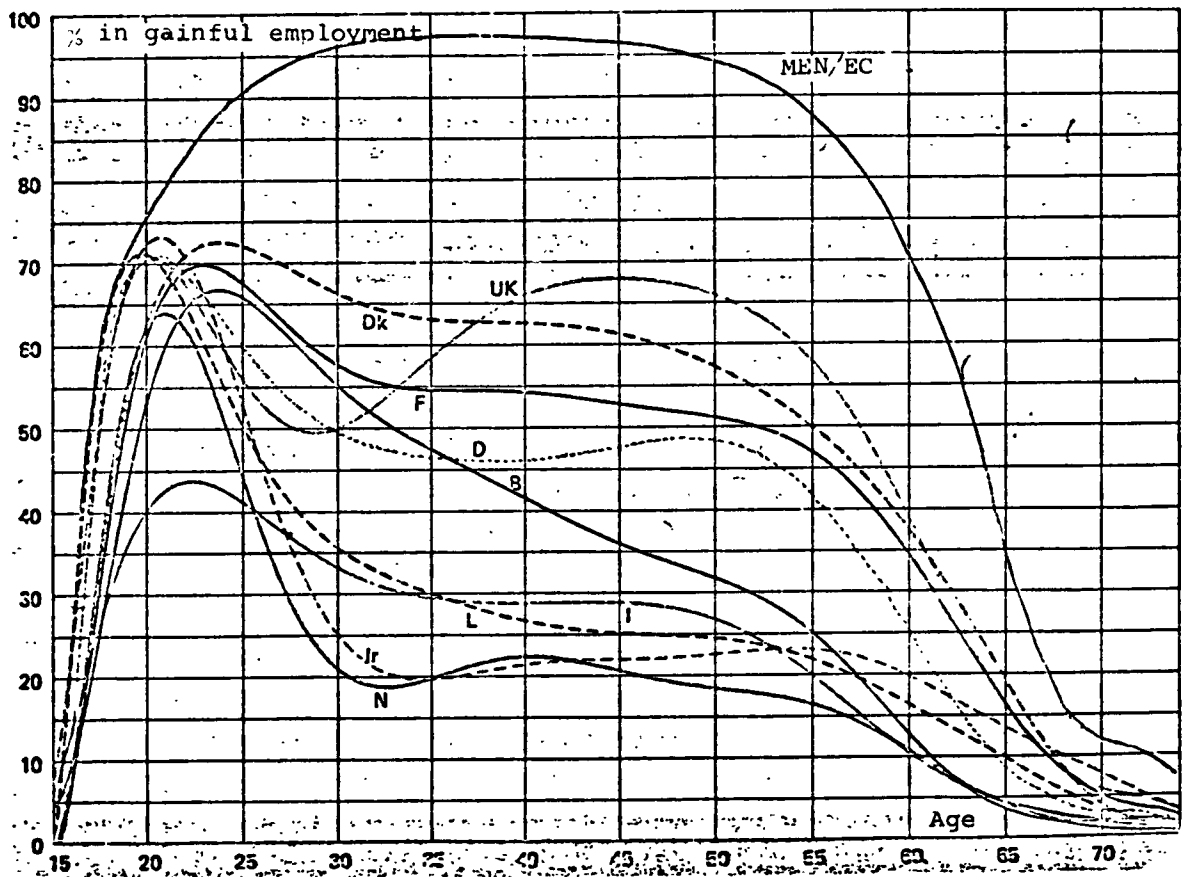
Yet the employment curve for women is not the same in every country of the Community. (See statistics, page 43). In most countries women enter gainful employment between the ages of 14 and 20. The highest average is around 21 years of age. In the United Kingdom the highest percentage is to be noted as early as 19 years of age, while in Belgium and France only at around 23 years of age. In most countries, 65% to 75% of all women are in gainful employment at around 21 years of age. This figure is highest in Denmark and Ireland (around 80%) and lowest in Italy (around 45%).

In most countries there is a steep fall after 21 years of age. This regression is most marked in Ireland, the Netherlands and Luxembourg. It is the least pronounced in France, Germany and Denmark. The return to working life is shortest in the United Kingdom and longest in Belgium.

The percentage of women who return to the employment market after the age of 35 to 40, which peaks at around 50, also differs from one country to another. The highest percentages are in the United Kingdom, Denmark, France and Germany (50% to 75%) and the lowest in Belgium, Italy, Ireland, Luxembourg and the Netherlands (20% to 25%).

The specific employment curve for women is connected in large measure with the extent of their domestic duties during a specific period. These duties are greatest while women have young children to care for and bring up.

A clear correlation exists between women's participation in gainful employment and the number of children to be cared for. However, this correlation is not the same in each Member State. In the Netherlands, Ireland, Luxembourg and Italy, few or very few women go out to work after the birth of two or more children. In other Member States the number of women going out to work falls less steeply even after the birth of several children.



The differences between these countries may be the result of two factors: social pressure on women to give up their jobs when they have several children to care for and the social arrangements for young children and schoolchildren (parental leave, nursery schools, school times, etc.).

The specific employment curve for women has a major effect on their position on the labour market.

- In the period during which many men are gaining a secure position for themselves in paid employment or building up a career, large numbers of women disappear from the labour market or, should they choose to continue working, are obliged to perform a double work role.

- The large number of women who disappear temporarily from gainful employment to return at around 30 to 35 years of age are confronted with major problems on their return: the training which they had received is no longer relevant, they are no longer used to a work routine, they lack experience and their domestic duties are still quite considerable.
- Experience shows that women in this category encounter much difficulty in finding a job again and in many cases have to be content with work below their previous level of training and relatively low wages.

As a result women are obviously placed in a far inferior position to their male colleagues and their position on the labour market is very precarious.

8.2.3 Unsatisfactory parental leave and childminding schemes

The specific employment curve for women, which shows that they disappear from working life completely or partially for a long period, is influenced, amongst other things, by the existence or non-existence of an adequate system of welfare facilities for young families. Parental leave and childminding arrangements play an important part in this connection.

Parental leave schemes vary greatly from one Member State of the European Community to another. What is striking is that most are intended for working women and very few for working men.

In some cases it cannot be otherwise, for example in the case of maternity leave, but in the main it is the result of the pre-conceived idea that only women perform domestic duties and that men are exempt from them.

Examples of parental leave schemes in the Member States:¹

In West Germany maternity leave amounts to 14 weeks at full pay. Since July 1979 it has been possible to obtain additional maternity leave of four months. In this case the maximum pay is

¹ Source: 'Transnational No. 16, Frauenpolitik in Europa', pp. 19-25: Maternity leave regulations in the countries of the European Community, Ursula Schleicher, Member of the European Parliament

750 DM per month. Women also enjoy guarantees that they will not lose their jobs. Following the introduction of this scheme in the Federal Republic, a debate arose as to whether full-time housewives should not also be entitled to comparable financial support. In the meantime a Bill has been tabled in the Bundestag providing for the entitlement of full-time housewives to such support.

In Belgium, maternity leave is of 14 weeks' duration, at 79.5% of gross pay.

In Denmark, maternity leave is of 14 weeks' duration, at 90% of the average weekly income (= 1,349 DKr in 1978). If the woman works for the civil service then she is entitled to three months' extra leave at full pay and five months at half pay. A debate is taking place at present in Denmark on the introduction of parental leave. Parental leave of up to nine months after the birth of a child has existed in Sweden since 1974. Such leave can either be taken entirely by one parent or shared between them. In Norway, similar legislation was introduced in 1977.

In France, maternity leave is of 16 weeks' duration at 90% of pay. However, there are minimum and maximum limits to the amount which may be paid. It has recently become possible to obtain supplementary maternity leave of up to 10 months after the birth of a child together with a guarantee that the mother will be able to return to her job. This facility applies to employees of businesses with not less than two hundred employees and is conditional upon the woman having been employed there for at least one year. The father may claim leave under this arrangement providing the mother is in agreement. Meanwhile, this arrangement has also been introduced in the civil service. It is of course unpaid.

In Ireland, maternity leave is of 12 to 14 weeks' duration. A special insurance provides cover for illness before or after the birth for a maximum of 381 days. For the first 147 days this amounts to 40% of wages and for each subsequent period of 78 days to 30%, 25% and 20% respectively.

In Italy, maternity leave is of 5 months' duration (2 months before and 3 months after the birth). In the civil service (if one discounts certain supplements) 100% of wages continue to be paid and in private industry 80%. (In practice many businesses pay 100% too.)

There is a new facility whereby female employees can claim supplementary leave of up to six months. In the civil service they then receive 100% of their wages for the first month, 80% for the second month and 30% for the following four months. This facility also exists in private industry, where 38% of wages are paid throughout the entire period. The woman retains the right to return to her job. In addition, it is also possible in Italy to take leave in the event of illness of a child of up to three years. Both the additional leave period of six months and the facility for leave in the event of a child's illness can also be claimed by the father.

In Luxembourg, maternity leave is of 16 weeks' duration at full pay.

In the Netherlands, maternity leave is of 12 weeks' duration at full pay.

In the United Kingdom, maternity leave is of 18 weeks' duration during which time the mother receives a fixed amount (£14.70 in July 1978).

The maternity leave schemes clearly vary greatly. Each country has a maternity leave scheme of something between 12 and 22 weeks. Maternity leave is shortest in the Netherlands and Ireland and longest in Italy. The financial arrangements are even more varied. Since the duration of maternity leave varies so greatly, it is difficult to compare the financial arrangements.

There is an increasing tendency to extend traditional maternity leave by a period of child caring/rearing leave. Germany, Denmark, France and Italy have gone furthest in this direction. In some countries this facility can also be used by the father. This is already the case in France and Italy and is being considered in Denmark. Finally, there is only one country where parents are entitled to leave to care for a sick child.

A recent survey of the relationship between parents and children in the Community¹ gauged the attitudes of European citizens to a system of parental leave. Those interviewed were asked if they

¹ 'Europeans and their children', survey of the countries of the European Community, October 1979, Doc. V/30/80 European Communities Brussels

were interested in parental leave without pay. The replies were very interesting:

	EC	B	DK	D	F	IRL	I	L	NL	UK
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Interested in parental leave of two years (Question 138/139)										
. Yes, interested ...	60	59	64	54	83	45	59	51	44	52
. No	30	24	17	31	12	42	29	42	55	41
. No opinion	<u>10</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>19</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>7</u>
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Interested in parental leave of one year										
. Yes, interested ...	55	47	63	41	76	40	61	51	36	52
. No	34	32	16	41	20	46	26	43	61	41
. No opinion	<u>11</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>7</u>
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Interested in parental leave of six months										
. Yes, interested ...	48	39	61	33	59	41	56	30	30	50
. No	38	38	16	44	36	43	31	62	67	43
. No opinion	<u>16</u>	<u>23</u>	<u>23</u>	<u>23</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>7</u>
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Considerable interest was shown for each of the three parental leave schemes suggested. 60% showed interest in an unpaid period of parental leave of two years (with right to return to job), 30% did not and 10% expressed no view on the matter. 55% were attracted by unpaid parental leave of one year (with right to return to job), 34% were not and 11% had no opinion. As regards an unpaid period of 6 months, only 46% found this attractive, whereas 38% found it unattractive and 16% had no opinion.

Striking was the very great interest shown by French and Danish interviewees and the great interest shown by Italian and British interviewees. Germany, Belgian and Luxembourg interviewees showed moderate interest. Irish citizens were in fact only interested in a period of two years and those least attracted by any of the proposed schemes were the Dutch.

Closer analysis showed that women were more interested than men. Furthermore parents with a high level of education were more interested than those with a low level of education.

The results call for the following additional comments :

- Parental leave schemes in the Community are inadequate and vary greatly from one country to another. There is a link between the quality of the leave schemes and the percentage of women in paid employment. In countries where a very low percentage of women are in paid employment the provisions are for the most part very limited. An exception in this respect is Italy, but it should be borne in mind that the parental leave scheme is quite a recent innovation there.
- Parental leave schemes apply mainly to women. This puts employed women in an unequal position compared with their male colleagues and is detrimental to the position of women on the labour market.
- Research shows that both men and women feel that the present provisions regarding parental leave are inadequate.

Women in all the Member States are dissatisfied with childminding facilities. The lack of such facilities prevents many women from returning to work after the birth of one or more children. Those women who do continue to work are confronted with major problems due to the lack of good childminding facilities.

Unfortunately no Community survey has been made of the facilities available in the different Member States. The recent survey 'Europeans and their children' clearly shows, however, that a great gulf exists between the need for childminding facilities and what is actually available. This survey also provides an insight into parents' preferences for specific forms of childminding.

The survey covered parents employed outside the home who have one or more children under three years of age.

Survey: Minding of children under three years of age
(comparison between Member States)

A. <u>SOLUTION PREFERRED BY</u> <u>'PRESENT PARENTS'</u> (QUESTION 136)	Day nursery	Paid help at home	Recog- nized child- minder	?	TOTAL
<u>TOTAL</u>	43	28	17	12	100
. BELGIUM	23	33	22	22	100
. DENMARK	21	31	38	10	100
. GERMANY	36	30	18	16	100
. FRANCE	27	36	28	9	100
. IRELAND	21	58	8	13	100
. ITALY	65	19	9	7	100
. LUXEMBOURG	23	37	17	23	100
. NETHERLANDS	25	28	26	21	100
. UNITED KINGDOM	50	25	11	14	100

B. <u>SOLUTION ADOPTED BY</u> <u>'PRESENT PARENTS'</u> WHO REPLIED TO <u>QUESTION 137</u>	Day nursery	Paid help at home	Recog- nized child- minder	?	TOTAL
<u>TOTAL</u>	22	17	14	51	104
. BELGIUM	10	12	15	70	(1)
. DENMARK	22	27	38	25	(1)
. GERMANY	21	25	12	46	(1)
. FRANCE	11	14	30	51	(1)
. IRELAND	12	29	1	62	(1)
. ITALY	26	15	1	58	(1)
. LUXEMBOURG	(Number too small to be able to calculate percentages)				
. THE NETHERLANDS	10	16	10	68	(1)
. UNITED KINGDOM	40	13	12	42	(1)

(1) The total exceeds 100% since some parents use more than one method.

What is striking is that a large number of parents (43%) would prefer to put their child (children) in the care of a day nursery. However, day nurseries are available for only 22% of working parents. 28% of parents would prefer paid help at home. 17% were actually able to use this form of childminding. 17% would like to leave their child with a recognized childminder and 14% were actually able to do so.

Preferences and practices varied greatly, though, from one country to another: German, British and Italian parents generally preferred the day nursery solution. Belgian, French, Luxembourg and Irish parents preferred paid help at home. Danish parents preferred to

take their child to a recognized childminder. However, practice and preference were two different things. Italian and British parents, who mainly preferred the day nursery solution, were also those to make the greatest use of such facilities. By contrast, German parents, who would also prefer to use day nurseries, had to resort mainly to paid help at home. Of the four countries which preferred paid help at home, Ireland was the only one where this solution was fully available. It was in Denmark that parental wishes seemed to correspond most closely to practice.

Preferences for specific methods of childminding appear to differ not only from one country to another but, according to this survey, also from one social group to another. Parents in occupations ranging from unskilled to lower managerial show a clear preference for day nurseries. Parents at the upper end of the scale show a definite preference for paid help at home.

Finally, it is remarkable that half the working parents with young children (51%) do not use any of the solutions described. Presumably the problems are solved by means of private arrangements with neighbours, parents, etc. Those who do not make use of any of these solutions are greatest in number in Belgium and the Netherlands (70% and 68% respectively) and smallest in number in Denmark (25%).

The problem of childminding is largely solved when the children go to school. However, this still depends greatly on school times. Split timetables (morning lessons, an interruption and afternoon lessons) give rise to great problems. In the Netherlands, where this system is common, it is one of the main impediments to the return to the labour market of many women between 25 and 35 years of age. Problems also arise when lessons are concentrated in the morning (from 8 to roughly 1 o'clock) but the woman does at least have an opportunity to take up part-time employment. The best way of enabling women to continue working would be a solution whereby their children could stay at school during the lunch hour as well as after lessons.

Unfortunately, no survey has been made of school times in the various Member States. Split school timetables are, however, known to be the most common in the Netherlands. School times concentrated on the morning are to be found mainly in Germany, and continuous timetables in the United Kingdom, France and Belgium.

A number of conclusions may be drawn from the foregoing:

- The great dissatisfaction with the inadequate childminding facilities

is justified. There is a great gulf between the need for such facilities and what is actually available. This is true not only for very young children but also for children of primary school age.

- The consequences have to be borne mainly by the woman. In many cases she is obliged to give up her job. If she continues working, she is confronted with considerable problems.
- This situation helps perpetuate the unequal position of working women compared with working men and weakens their position on the labour market.

8.2.4 High concentration of women in part-time, seasonal and outwork¹

Statistics on the paid employment of women often take no account of the specific characteristics of female employment because the nature, duration and regularity of such employment do not fall within the usual terms of reference. As a result a whole category of working women falls below the line of vision of the authorities and the policy-makers. Women who are employed in this sector are thus particularly vulnerable: low wages, poor working conditions and poor social provisions are commonplace. This sector includes amongst other things part-time, seasonal and outwork (home-based employment).

Part-time work has long been part of the 'unprotected' employment sector. However, since part-time work is increasing in importance, particularly amongst women, the authorities and the trade unions are paying more and more attention to this type of employment. For some years now part-time work has been included in Community statistics. These statistics show that 9 million people in the Community are already employed in this sector. About 90% of them are women. Men working in this sector are mainly students, handicapped or old people.

The percentage of men and women in full-time and part-time employment varies greatly from one country to another:

	women		men	
	full-time	part-time	full-time	part-time
Germany	36%	10%	81%	---
France	42%	6%	80%	1%
Italy	24%	3%	74%	2%
United Kingdom	32%	20%	82%	---
Netherlands	20%	5%	74%	1%
Belgium	34%	4%	76%	---
Denmark	31%	20%	74%	---
Ireland	27%	3%	73%	---
Luxembourg	28%	5%	84%	---

The number of people engaged in part-time work is highest in the United Kingdom, Denmark and Germany and lowest in Italy, Ireland and the Benelux.

¹ 'Voluntary Part-time Work' (Communication from the Commission) Doc. COM(80) 450 final, Brussels, 17 July 1980.
Working Document No. 12 of Ad Hoc Committee on Women's Rights on part-time work, author: Mrs Squarzialupi - 66 - PE 67.021/b./fin

The number of men engaged in part-time work is highest in Italy (2%). However, these statistics (Eurostat 1978) are not entirely reliable since the rules governing the registration of part-time work differ from one Member State to another.

Part-time employment occurs mainly in the services sector, particularly in the retail trade, education and health care, but also in some industrial sectors such as the textile, food, and electronics industries. Part-time work is also a major feature of the agricultural sector especially as this sector makes great use of the labour of family members.

Since part-time work has come more into view, it can be seen that the situation of people working in this sector leaves much to be desired:

- Part-time work is relatively poorly paid; in many cases the pay is not enough to ensure economic independence.
- There is poor provision for job protection both in labour and social legislation.
- Part-time employees are more vulnerable to unemployment than full-time employees.
- The promotion prospects of part-time workers are very poor.
- Part-time employees have hardly any technical or industrial training facilities open to them.
- Part-time employees are seldom members of trade unions.

Despite the fact that part-time work presents many disadvantages compared with full-time work, it is preferred by many women. In Germany for example the number of applications received by employment offices for part-time work is five times greater than the jobs available. However, this preference is not a consequence of free choice but is mainly the result of the double work-load borne by large numbers of women.

Although part-time work must be viewed with the necessary reservations; it has to be admitted that this type of employment has attractive features for many women. They are under less of a strain than if they were in full-time employment and at the same time they are active in the gainful employment sector. However, improvements to the situation of part-time employees are urgently needed.

No Community data exist regarding outwork. Nonetheless, certain facts do emerge from time to time¹. For example it is estimated that in Italy alone, almost two million people, of whom 80 to 90% are women, are engaged in home-based employment.

¹ Working Document No. 33 of the Ad Hoc Committee 'Undeclared employment and home-based employment in Italy, rapporteur: Mrs Squarcialupi

Some of these women perform this work in addition to an 'ordinary' job and in addition to housework. The industries which rely on such home-based employment are mainly: the paper-processing, clothing, jewellery and toy industries.

In northern Italy many people are registered as employed at home. However, in central and southern Italy the situation as regards home-based employment is far less clear.

Recently a large number of Sicilian women employed at home (embroiderers) hit the headlines with their claim for better pay. It emerged that these women earned the same in one day as women doing comparable work in northern Italy earned in one hour. The Court found in favour of the women, but they received no further contracts. A survey conducted in the Naples area revealed a number of facts concerning the working conditions of women employed at home. Of the 978 women interviewed, 469 worked in the kitchen, 180 in the dining-room or bedroom and 60 in the garage. In addition it emerged that the work regularly involved the use of dangerous substances, for which special safety measures were not observed. It also came to light that in many cases the children of the women involved also assisted in the work, which meant that a considerable degree of illegal child labour was involved. Legislation governing home-based employment has been in force in Italy since 1973. There are many positive sides to this legislation but its provisions are widely circumvented, particularly in southern Italy.

Home-based employment is presumed to exist also in the other Member States of the Community. There are reports from the United Kingdom in particular concerning the increase in the number of women working at home. The main example is thought to be contract work for the electronics industry. However, no details are available.

Although home-based employment does not have to be totally rejected - there are some occupations which are always carried on at home - there are many reasons for not involving the home in factory work. It is usually unskilled routine work performed under contract. Such work is badly paid, there is no control over working conditions and working hours, social provisions are very limited or non-existent and the terms of employment the worst possible. The people - mainly women - who work in this sector do so rarely out of choice. Owing to their family circumstances they generally have no alternative. An investigation into the nature and extent of this sort of employment is urgently needed, as is protective legislation with proper supervision.

8.2.5 Unsatisfactory through-movement of women into executive and managerial positions

In almost all sectors employing women, the latter are over-represented in unskilled and semi-skilled positions, moderately represented in executive positions and under-represented in higher managerial positions. Education serves as a good example in this respect.¹ There are roughly as many women as men employed in education. However, closer examination of the levels of education shows that in nursery education almost all the staff are women.

In primary education the male/female ratio is more or less equal or weighted in favour of women. In secondary education there are more male than female teachers and in higher education there is a great preponderance of men. Nursery school teachers are the lowest paid while teaching staff in higher education are the highest paid. Even so, women have more opportunities to move up the scale in education than in many other sectors.

The great preponderance of women in unskilled and semi-skilled jobs is to a large extent the result of the inferior position of women in education and vocational training (see chapter 9). However, there are also a number of other factors which come into play.

- As a result of their double work-load, married women with family responsibilities have a great deal of difficulty in moving into higher categories of employment.
- Women who, as a result of their domestic duties, have been absent from the paid employment sector for a long period are often given jobs below their original level of training.

¹ See 'Equal opportunities in education and training for girls', Dr Eileen Byrne, Collected Studies, Education Series No. 9, Brussels, July 1978.

- Semi-skilled women, particularly those who have been trained in traditional domestic skills, are often classified as 'unskilled' for the purposes of paid employment.
- Far fewer women than men take part in technical courses, courses for managerial staff, etc.
- Employers and male employees in many industries are still against women holding positions of authority.

All these factors lead to an overconcentration of women in lower-skilled occupations and the underrepresentation of women in more highly skilled occupations.

8.2.6 Heavy concentration of women in a limited number of industrial branches and occupations¹

Especially since the industrial revolution there has been a further division of roles and tasks into 'men's jobs' and 'women's jobs'. In this connection it is noteworthy that the number of men's jobs is far greater and more varied than the number of women's jobs.

Great differences can be seen in the Community in the overall distribution of men and women between the three main employment sectors: industry, services and agriculture:

¹ See also:
Working Document No. 58 of the Ad Hoc Committee on Women's Rights on segregation on the labour market, author: Mrs Lizin

Breakdown of men and women employed in the three major employment sectors:

	Agriculture		Industry		Services	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
United Kingdom	4%	1%	52%	27%	44%	72%
Ireland	28%	8%	38%	26%	37%	66%
Netherlands	7%	2%	44%	17%	49%	81%
Denmark	12%	4%	42%	17%	46%	79%
Belgium	5%	4%	48%	27%	47%	69%
West Germany	5%	9%	54%	31%	41%	60%
France	11%	9%	48%	25%	43%	66%
Italy	14%	15%	49%	34%	37%	51%
Luxembourg	7%	9%	53%	14%	40%	77%

Source: 'Women in the European Community'

By far the majority of women, on average somewhat more than half, are employed in the services sector. In the Netherlands, Denmark and Luxembourg, the figure even exceeds 75%.

Closer examination shows that within this sector most women are employed in education, health care, clerical duties and the retail trade (the favourite occupations are those of teacher, nurse, secretary/typist and sales assistant).

Approximately 20-25% of women workers are employed in industry. In the Netherlands, Denmark and Luxembourg the percentage is somewhat smaller (about 16%) and in Italy the largest (34%).

Closer examination shows that within this sector most women work in the textile and food industries and to a lesser extent in the electronics and chemical industries.

The percentage of women working in the agricultural sector is striking. An average of 7% of all working women are employed in agriculture. In the United Kingdom and the Netherlands, however, the percentage is very low (about 1%) and in Italy very high (15%). It should be pointed out here that these figures do not include women who work without payment as a member of the family in a family enterprise. The number of such women is the largest in the retail trade and in agriculture. This fact makes these figures somewhat unreliable.

To sum up, we may say that most women in Europe are employed in the services sector, especially in education, health care, administration and the retail trade, to a lesser extent in industry, particularly the textile and food industries, and sometimes in agriculture, although the figures vary greatly from country to country.

Occupational groups largely filled by women have a number of specific characteristics: average salaries are low, social security provisions are limited (in many cases there is no provision for a pension), the specialized areas require no more than elementary or intermediate training, opportunities for promotion are limited and their social standing is low.

It is a striking fact that, whenever an occupation becomes 'feminized', its standing and salary fall. One typical example of this is the medical profession, which in Western Europe is largely a masculine province, with a high social standing and very high salaries. In Eastern Europe, most doctors are women: the profession's social standing is low and salaries are very poor.

In our countries there is a clear trend for men to take up paramedical occupations such as nursing, hitherto a female preserve, and it is noteworthy that the standing of this occupation, its salary and working conditions are improving.

We cannot therefore maintain that the simple fact of women entering occupations, which were previously the province of men automatically leads to equality of men and women at work. We may assume that a reasonable balance between the numbers of men and women workers in any particular occupation provides the most favourable basis for equality between the two groups.

8.2.7 The effect of modern technological developments on employment and women's position on the labour market¹

Modern technological developments have affected the economy in general and employment in particular. Outdated products and production methods are being replaced by new ones. In recent years this process has been referred to as 'innovation'. The disappearance of outdated products and production methods has resulted in a loss of jobs in a number of sectors. On the other hand, the introduction of new products and production methods can create new jobs.

¹ See also: Employment and the new micro-electronic technology, Communication from the Commission, Brussels, 5 February 1980, COM(80) 16 final

It is important for the smooth development of a country's economy and its prosperity that technological innovation is carried out successfully, i.e. that it results in economic growth, an increase in the number of jobs available and an improvement in working conditions.

Unfortunately, it must be noted that technological innovation in the Member States of the European Community is now less successful than it was in the past: economic growth is slackening, the number of jobs available is decreasing, the quality of working conditions and the social security system are being threatened.

One of the causes thereof is the rapid replacement of human labour by machines. Automation and the introduction of micro-electronic technology in industrial production has caused or is likely to cause the loss of a large number of jobs. Various economic sectors, including those with a large number of female workers, have been hit by this loss of jobs.

For example, automation has resulted in the loss of a large number of jobs in the textile and food industries. The same is true of agriculture. The introduction of micro-electronic technology has particularly affected employment in the clerical sector.

What is more, automation and the introduction of micro-electronic technology principally affect the lower occupational groups; in particular, unskilled and semi-skilled jobs disappear.

To sum up, we may say that the large number of women in a limited number of occupations and the large number of women in unskilled and semi-skilled jobs makes them particularly vulnerable to the loss of jobs resulting from technological innovation.

This process need not adversely affect women if they can change over in good time to new jobs created by modern technological development. Although innovation in the European Community is slow, new occupations and jobs are nonetheless being created each year. However, it is increasingly true that women find it much more difficult than men to change over to new jobs.

One of the major reasons for this is that most women not only opt for a very limited number of traditional occupations but also for limited education and vocational training. Many new jobs require technically-oriented preliminary training (for example the electronics industry). Many women are not suited to many jobs in the new industries because of their limited and one-sided education

and vocational training which is simply not geared towards technical proficiency. In addition, many women who have not worked for several years while raising their family and who wish to resume work are frequently hampered in changing over to new jobs because their basic and vocational training is extremely out of date.

Where women are employed in the new industries, they end up even more than before in the lower occupational groups. Certain industries, such as the chemical and in particular the electronic industries, provide a number of jobs described as 'simple, unskilled precision work'. Many male workers are unsuited to this sector because, particularly in the technical sector, they have been trained to too high a level. This results in a situation where women are principally attracted to these jobs. Therefore in the electronics industry the simple unskilled routine work is largely carried out by women and the more skilled work by men.

A similar process is apparently developing in the clerical sector where the introduction of new technologies has resulted in women workers increasingly carrying out simple and unskilled work (punch-card and data typists), while the more skilled work is done by men. Here, too, an important factor is the one-sided and limited training of women who, unlike men, have frequently had no advanced administrative or economic training.

Finally, it should be noted that a number of industries, including the textile and electronics industries transfer certain simple unskilled jobs to outworkers. This trend is apparently on the increase, especially in Italy (textiles) and the United Kingdom (electronics industry). A number of observations on the quality of outwork are made in point 8.2.4.

In addition, a trend is developing whereby such simple unskilled work is being increasingly transferred to the Third World. This process, which leads to a loss of jobs in the Western world, does not always benefit the developing countries. (See Chapter).

Although it is still not certain how the introduction of new technologies will affect the position of women, it seems at present that on the one hand large numbers of women will be excluded from occupations which have become redundant as a result of technological innovation and on the other that not enough women are being employed in the occupations created by modern technology, or are in most cases employed at the lowest labour level of the new jobs.

8.2.8 Women are insufficiently active in specific occupational pressure groups

Occupational pressure groups such as professional and trade associations, employers' and employees' organizations play an important role in the policy of the Member States of the European Community. Unfortunately, it must be noted that in these organizations women play a limited and subordinate role. This is partly explained by the fact that there are far fewer women than men in gainful employment. But even if we take these factors into consideration, the number of women activists is well below what it should be.

It is usually assumed that between 25-30% of the total number of members of professional associations and trade unions are women.¹ But the percentage of women among the executive members is much smaller and at the top of such organizations, women play a very minor role. Many professional associations and trade union movements have separate women's organizations or women's secretariats. The advantage of such bodies is that the problems of women workers receive consideration there. The disadvantage is that frequently too little attention is paid to the work of these women's organizations, while the small number of women activists end up in a backwater through participation in these special bodies.

Experience has shown that the standpoints adopted by occupational pressure groups in advisory committees to national and international authorities frequently concentrate almost exclusively on male interests and take virtually no account of the interests of female members.

It is vital that women play their full part in these organizations, especially with a view to improving the social and economic position of women.

¹ 'Women workers in Europe's trade unions' by Emiliene Brunfaut, in 'European Women on Europe', Brussels, 1979

8.3 Female unemployment¹

Increasing unemployment affecting the citizens of the European Community is disquieting and constitutes one of the major problems of our age.

The cause must be sought in a slackening in the supply of jobs as a result of poor economic growth and in demographic factors, in particular the increase in the number of young people coming on to the labour market. The increase in demand for employment from women is also an important factor.

At present, unemployment in the Community totals 6,675,600, with 3,620,400 men and 3,055,200 women registered unemployed. (Eurostat, July 1980.)

Comparison of male and female unemployment in each Member State

Eurostat 7/1980

	D	F	I	GB	NL	B	DK	IRL	L	EC
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
<u>MEN</u>										
- total number in employment	81	80	74	82	74	76	74	73	84	
- unemployed	2.4	4.4	6.3	8.0	4.4	5.9	5.1	9.0	8.4	5.3
<u>WOMEN</u>										
- total number in employment	46	48	27	52	25	38	51	30	33	
- unemployed	4.7	8.3	10.7	6.2	6.0	16.7	6.0	7.7	1.1	7.5

These statistics show that average unemployment for women is much higher than for men. Female unemployment is the highest in Italy and Belgium and the lowest in Luxembourg. Some comments should also be made about the statistics concerning the registration of female unemployed. Many women looking for paid employment do not register as unemployed, and employment offices frequently lay down special requirements before women are included in the list of those seeking work or unemployed.

Women who are not registered are, for example, housewives who gave up their jobs some time ago and would like to return to work, girls who are temporarily doing domestic work at home ('spending a year helping mummy at home') and female seasonal workers or outworkers.

¹ See also: Working documents of the Ad Hoc Committee on Women's Rights: No. 3 (Mrs Maij-Weggen), No. 6 (Mrs Wieczorek-Zeul), No. 39 (Mrs Groes), No. 40 (Mrs Lenz and No. 58 (Mrs Lizin) 'The Unemployment Problem', Communication from the Commission to the Council, Brussels, 29 May 1980, COM(80) 304 final

Women are not always included in the list of those seeking work or unemployed, because they request part-time work or because they receive no unemployment benefit.

There is a great deal of uncertainty about registration methods. What is certain is that the Member States apply varying standards. Eurostat publishes the following list showing variations in registration methods:

Federal Republic of Germany: Unemployed as defined by the Federal Institution for Labour, i.e. unemployed persons seeking employment of at least 20 hours per week.

France: Unemployed persons, as defined by the Ministry of Labour and for Industrial Democracy and registered with the National Employment Agency, insofar as they are immediately available for work and seeking permanent employment.

Italy: Unemployed persons who have previously been in paid employment, together with young people under 21 and others seeking their first employment (including those who are seeking employment on completion of military service) entered under Class I and II in the list of those seeking work drawn up by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security.

Netherlands: As defined by the Ministry of Social Security, persons who have no job or who have lost their job and are seeking paid employment of at least 25 hours per week.

Belgium: Persons registered with the National Employment Agency who are without a job, receiving unemployment benefit, others seeking work obliged to register and voluntarily registered unemployed persons seeking work.

Luxembourg: Persons registered with the Employment Office insofar as they are available to take up paid employment.

United Kingdom: Unemployed persons who are registered at local employment offices on the day of the monthly calculation and who on that day have no employment but are employable and available to take up work usually of more than 30 hours per week. These figures are calculated by the Department of Employment in respect of Great Britain and by the Department of Manpower Services in respect of Northern Ireland.

Ireland: Unemployed persons registered at the employment offices of the Department of Social Welfare who are employable and available for employment, persons claiming unemployment benefit or unemployment relief and other registered persons. The figures are calculated by the Central Statistics Office.

Denmark: Unemployed persons seeking work, whether or not they are members of an unemployment insurance fund.

Figures relating to available jobs include only jobs notified to employment offices and consequently do not give a complete picture of all available jobs, since undertakings frequently recruit workers without going through the employment offices.

In general, registration of and statistics relating to unemployment are based on standards and specific features of men's jobs and to a much lesser extent on the specific features of women's jobs. Consequently, figures on female unemployment are very misleading, and the true figure is probably much higher than the official one.

The relatively high unemployment rate for women is due to a number of factors which are frequently closely linked to the limited and weak position of women on the labour market:

- Since many women have two jobs - at home and at work - they are more likely to be dismissed, more prepared to give up their jobs and find difficulty in returning to work. If an employer has the choice between a man free of domestic tasks or a woman who has her home to look after as well as her job, he will dismiss a woman rather than a man and take on a man rather than a woman.
 - Women who have not had a job for some time - this principally affects the 21-35 age group - frequently find difficulty in returning to work. The general rule is that the longer one is out of work the less chance there is of getting back in.
 - There is, in addition, strong social pressure on women not to enter the saturated labour market, or else to give up their jobs for the benefit of unemployed men or unemployed young people. It is frequently said that women deprive breadwinners and young people of jobs. Nobody ever says that men deprive women and young people of jobs, which is much nearer the truth.
- Most people forget that 70% of unemployed young people are girls!
- Women are employed to a much greater extent than men in the poorly protected employment sectors (outwork, seasonal work, contract work, part-time work). These sectors are very vulnerable to job losses.

- Women are concentrated in a limited number of occupational groups and in a number of these groups unemployment has risen sharply in recent years (textile industry, food industry, education, agriculture).
- Women are concentrated in the lower employment levels, and a number of these jobs have either been lost through automation or have been transferred to the developing countries.
- Many women have only a limited and basic education or were trained in outmoded methods, which means that it is difficult to transfer them to other jobs. Women also encounter unnecessary difficulties when requesting training or further training. In some countries, for example, women must first be registered as unemployed before they are eligible to attend such courses and, as we have already seen, this is more difficult for women than men.
- The mobility of women is much more restricted than that of man. Because of their family obligations, many women cannot undertake long journeys to work, while moving house on account of a job is much more difficult for women than for men. If a family moves house because of the man's job, as frequently occurs, then the woman often loses her job. In some countries a woman is legally obliged to move house if her husband changes his domicile. Such an obligation never applies to the man.
- Few women are members of a trade union or professional association and consequently they do not know what their rights are or make full use of them and are less prepared to appeal against dismissal.

Apart from all these largely objectively perceptible problems, women also have to put up with a range of prejudices which weaken their position on the labour market.

Despite the fact that unemployment is principally a problem for women and young people (including many girls) it is striking that the policy statements of the Member States and the Community devote little attention to this aspect. In the most recent communication from the Commission (COM(80) 304 final) of 29 May 1980 on the unemployment problem in the European Community, women are not even mentioned.

8.4 Summary and conclusions

- Historical and cultural developments in the countries of the European Community have resulted in a division of labour whereby men are more or less exclusively engaged in paid employment while the women largely undertake unpaid domestic work in the family or take a limited and subordinate position in paid employment.
- This sharp division into paid employment and unpaid domestic work and the forcing of large numbers of women into the domestic work sector took place in a period when women scarcely had any choice and were politically unemancipated. When a woman was thus forced into domestic work, it meant she had to accept a one-sided and limited development of her abilities and make do with a socially isolated and economically dependent position.
- Research shows that a clearly increasing majority of women deplore this position and would prefer greater participation in paid employment. It also appears that men, who still predominate in all the policy-making positions, do not fully appreciate this wish of large numbers of women and seriously underestimate its scale.
- Research also shows that the wish of more and more women to take up paid employment is much greater than men's willingness to take on unpaid domestic and family work, although a clear majority of citizens in Europe, men and women, accept that such work in itself is very rewarding. There is far too little interest, regard and insight in the Member States and in the Community as a whole for the position of the housewife, her contribution to the family and her contribution to the national and Community economy. Research into family policy in the European Community and research into the role and problems of the housewife is urgently required.
- In the field of paid employment, women occupy a limited and subordinate position. This limited position is illustrated by the fact that the number of women in paid employment is less than half the number of men. The subordinate position of women in paid employment is most clearly illustrated by the salaries received. On average, women workers receive 25-35% less than men.

- The limited and subordinate position of women in paid employment is affected by various factors:
 - the large amount of unpaid domestic work which the woman already undertakes,
 - women's specific work graph,
 - the inadequate arrangements for family leave of absence and day nurseries,
 - the high concentration of women in part-time work, seasonal work and outwork,
 - the small number of women promoted to senior posts,
 - the high concentration of women in a small number of industrial sectors and occupational groups,
 - the effect of modern technological developments on employment and
 - the small number of women activists in specific social pressure groups.

- The large amount of unpaid domestic work undertaken by the average working woman results in her total work burden being considerably higher than that of a working man. The dual work burden borne by women is heaviest between the ages of 21 and 35. As a result, the woman worker has less time and energy for her job outside the home than her male counterpart, will accept more rapidly a job on a level below that for which her training and abilities qualify her, attends fewer supplementary professional and vocational training courses, has fewer chances of promotion and receives a relatively lower salary.

- The specific work graph of a woman who, between the ages of 21 and 35, temporarily gives up her job in order to bring up a family, causes particularly serious problems in paid employment. In a period when many male employees are consolidating their position in their job or are building a career, large numbers of women are giving up their jobs. If these women should wish to go back to work at 30 or 35 they come up against serious difficulties. In many cases their skills are now out of date, they lack the routine and experience of the job, and their family responsibilities still loom large. Frequently they are unable to return to work or they must accept a job on a level below that for which they are qualified and with a relatively low salary. It is remarkable

that the number of women who remain at work despite the increase in their family responsibilities is constantly growing. This is particularly true of women with intermediate and advanced qualifications.

- The system of family leave of absence and child-care arrangements in the Member States of the Community is very varied, very haphazard and very one-sided. Research shows that men and women are much more interested in maternity/paternity leave than current arrangements would suggest. There is also a great discrepancy between the need for child-care centres and what is currently provided. This is true not only of provisions for very young children but also of provisions for children of primary school age.
- The adverse effects of these deficiencies are borne virtually exclusively by women. In a large number of cases they are obliged to give up their employment either totally or partially. If they keep their jobs, they face extensive problems which may seriously weaken their position at work.
- The heavy work burden borne by women results in a high concentration of women in part-time work, seasonal work and outwork. The main features of these employment sectors are relatively low salaries, poor work protection, a deficient social security system, few opportunities to attend supplementary technical and industrial training courses and virtually no chances of promotion. Women do not choose such forms of employment of their own volition but because they have virtually no other option.
- The high concentration of women in unskilled jobs and the lack of women promoted to senior posts is largely the result of the poor quality of the education and vocational training provided for women. The dual work burden borne by women and a whole series of prejudices against women in management also play an important part, however.
- The high concentration of women in a small number of occupational groups is principally historical in origin and is maintained by the limited and one-sided education offered to girls. Occupational groups filled largely by girls exhibit a number of specific characteristics; salaries are relatively low, social security provisions are limited (frequently there is no provision for pensions), the specialized areas require only elementary or intermediate education, chances of promotion are minimal and social standing is low. It is striking that when male employees

enter what are traditionally female occupations in large numbers, the standing, salary and social provisions improve.

- Modern technological developments apparently result on the one hand in groups of women having to leave the occupations which technical innovation have made redundant and on the other in their being engaged in insufficient numbers in those occupations created by modern technology - or else in their being recruited at the lowest levels of the new occupational groups. This phenomenon is largely due to the inappropriate education and vocational training given to large numbers of women.
- Women workers suffer much more than men in times of high unemployment. Youth unemployment principally affects girls. There is insufficient recognition of the fact that the important and serious problem of unemployment in the European Community affects women far more than men.
- Not enough women are active in specific pressure groups such as professional associations, trade unions and employers' organizations. This is illustrated partly by the positions adopted by such groups, which take much too little account of women's social and economic interests.

8.5 Proposals to improve the social and economic position of women

- The most important cause of women's subordinate position in virtually every sector of society and in particular in the social and economic sector is the historical pattern of work distribution whereby it is almost always the man who undertakes paid employment and the woman who is largely burdened with unpaid domestic chores. A sine qua non for improving the position of women is a fundamental redistribution of paid and unpaid employment between men and women.
- The extent and onerousness of unpaid domestic chores makes it difficult for large numbers of women to undertake full-time paid employment. The extent and onerousness of paid employment is a major obstacle preventing men from taking their share of domestic chores. This situation can be significantly improved by introducing greater variations in working hours in paid employment so that men and women workers may make a broad choice between a number of part-time jobs in which a five-hour working day and a 25-hour working week must be available to as many people as possible.

- A flexitime system with the emphasis shifted from an 8-hour working day to a 5-hour working day but maintaining the length of the factory working day or production day would increase the number of jobs available and enable a larger number of unemployed persons and those seeking work (especially women and young people) to be taken on in paid employment. In a number of undertakings the production day, or the factory working day, could be increased to approximately 10 hours which would not only increase employment but also result in economic growth and economic profit.
- Experience has taught us that the adjustment of working hours to the employee's personal circumstances results in better motivation, less absence through illness, fewer industrial accidents, greater efficiency in the undertaking and greater productivity per unit of time. Greater flexibility in working hours offers large numbers of people the chance to combine paid employment with domestic work, study, voluntary work or semi-retirement. More opportunities are also created for partially disabled and handicapped persons on the labour market.
- To prevent discrimination between employees working for different lengths of time, strict conditions need to be laid down, especially in the case of a reduction of working hours:
 - guarantees of at least a minimum basic wage for a 5-hour working day,
 - standard working conditions, legal protection and social security must be observed,
 - part-time jobs must be available at all levels of paid employment,
 - part-time workers must be fully entitled to attend technical and industrial training courses and to promotion,
 - part-time work must be equally distributed between men and women employees.

A Community directive should be drawn up to protect part-time work.

- The Commission should be invited to draft a proposal in conjunction with the appropriate parliamentary committee and with the social partners on the large-scale introduction of protected part-time work or a reduction in working hours, for example by setting up a varying number of subsidized pilot projects in each of the Member States.

- Redistribution of paid employment must go hand in hand with measures to improve the redistribution of unpaid work. The burden of unpaid domestic work is heaviest in the period during which young children need to be cared for. Women's specific work graph illustrates that large numbers of women give up their job totally or partially during these years. A redistribution of unpaid domestic work could largely be encouraged by the reform, improvement and harmonization of the system of family leave of absence in the Member States

by:

- the introduction for each female employee in the Community of a medical pregnancy leave for six weeks before and eight weeks after the birth of a child.
- the right of both parents to part-time leave of up to six months after the birth of a child where the medical condition of the child makes this imperative.
- the right of both parents to claim part-time parental leave in the form of a part-time job or a reduction in working hours to 5 hours per day with a basic salary, the normal legal protection, work conditions and social security up to 2 years after the birth of the child being maintained.
- the right of both parents to a maximum of 3 days part-time leave in the case of the acute illness of a child up to the age of 12 years and a maximum of 1 day part-time leave in the case of the acute illness of a child over 12.

The Commission should be invited to draft within 1 year and in consultation with the Council proposals which could result in a directive on the improvement and harmonization of family leave of absence and to submit these to the appropriate parliamentary committee.

- The inadequate provisions in the field of child-care cause great problems for a number of working parents and particularly for working mothers. There is a large discrepancy between the need in this sector and what is provided. The Commission should encourage and support the Member States to set up a flexible system of fee-paying child-care arrangements geared to the need of parents and the interests of the child.

- The Commission should set up an enquiry into legislation governing the length of the school day in the Member States and into the effect of school hours on women's ability to take up paid employment. The Commission should encourage the concept of school hours being geared as far as possible to the average working day of working parents.
- The improvement of the position of women in paid employment requires a number of specific measures:
 - there should be a more equal distribution of men and women employees in all occupational groups. A condition for this is a more equal distribution of boys and girls in all types of education and vocational training. To this end, undertakings and institutions could reserve an increasing number of traditionally male posts for properly trained women until a certain balance is attained.
 - there should be a more equal distribution of men and women employees in all levels of employment. A condition for this is a more equal distribution of boys and girls in all levels of education and vocational training. In addition, undertakings and institutions could reserve an increasing percentage of posts in middle management and senior positions for properly trained women until a certain balance is attained.

To encourage such a policy, the Member States should introduce a quota system on the basis of which a reasonable balance should be attained in the position of men and women in paid employment within 10 years.

The Commission should set up a biennial enquiry into the progress made towards achieving a balance of men and women employees in the various occupational groups and a balance of men and women at the various employment levels and submit a report on this subject to Parliament.

- Modern technological developments seem to be weakening women's position on the labour market even more because on the one hand large numbers of women are excluded from the jobs which technological developments have made redundant and on the other not enough women are employed in the jobs created by modern technology. The Commission should encourage the retraining or further training of girls and women in large numbers for work at all levels in the jobs created by modern technological developments by introducing specific measures and pilot projects supported by the European Social Fund for the

benefit of employees over 25 years of age and by specific campaigns aimed at girls in primary and secondary schools.

- The transfer of factory work to the home in the form of outwork should be restricted as far as possible and subject to strict legislation. Outworkers should be entitled to:
 - Employment contracts on the basis of an hourly wage system which respects minimum salaries.
 - Standard working conditions, legal protection and social security.
 - The right to attend technical and industrial training courses and to appropriate promotions.

A Community directive should be drawn up to protect outworkers.

- The fight against unemployment should be geared more than in the past to the protection of those groups hardest hit by unemployment such as women and young people.
 - All women who are unemployed or seeking work should be registered irrespective of their social status, their entitlement to social security benefits and their request for specific working hours.
 - When filling vacancies, undertakings and institutions should give priority to unemployed women and young people.
 - Women who wish to return to work after a period of being at home full-time should be given priority for attendance at technical and industrial training courses and in obtaining paid employment.
- The number of women involved in social pressure groups such as professional associations, trade unions and employers' organizations should be increased so that a balance is attained as regards representation and in the adoption of positions. Should the representation in its advisory committees be unbalanced or one-sided, the Commission should request additional opinions from any women's organizations belonging to the pressure groups involved or from special experts. It should attach these opinions to its reports and incorporate them in its social and economic policy.

9. Improving the position of women in education and vocational training¹

The limited and subordinate social and economic position of women is due partly to the poor quality of the education provided for women. This has already prompted the European Community to develop measures to improve the educational position of women. These Community measures (which so far have been modest in scale) principally involve vocational training and, since quite recently, secondary education as well. (See points 5.6 and 6.5).

The European Community's choice of these two educational areas is largely determined by the references to its powers contained in the Treaty of Rome and, much less, by the actual scale of the problem. After all, the inferior position of girls does not begin in secondary education or in vocational training, its foundations are already laid in the pre-school period and in primary education, and it continues at all levels and in all sectors of subsequent education.

If a programme to improve the position of women in education is to be successful, all educational sectors and levels must be covered. It is pleasing to note in this context that at its last session the Council of Education Ministers recognized this more or less by approving a limited programme entitled 'Towards equal opportunities in education and training for girls'. This report will attempt to analyse the entire process of the schooling and education of girls and boys in such a way as to examine the causes of the inferior position of girls and the policy required to improve their position.

¹ Sources:

- Working documents of the Ad Hoc Committee on Women's Rights No. 7 (Mrs Maij-Weggen), No. 39 (Mrs Groes), No. 49 (Mrs Holf), No. 52 (Mrs Gaiotti de Biase) and the unnumbered working document by Mrs Lenz
- 'Equality of education and training for girls', Dr Eileen Byrne, Commission of the European Communities, Collected studies, Education Series No. 9, Brussels, July 1978
- 'Education and equality of opportunities for girls and women. Study for the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education', Dr Dessaur and Dr van Vleuten, The Hague, June 1979, Doc. CME/XI/79/4, Council of Europe
- Education and equality of opportunities for girls and women in Europe. Report from the Kohnstam Institute of the University of Amsterdam for the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education. The Hague, June 1979, Doc. CME/XI/79/5, Council of Europe
- Text of the address given by Mrs Evelyne Sullerot to the Standing Conference of the European Ministers of Education, Doc. CME/Conf. 1/11 June 1979, Council of Europe
- Social atlas of women in the Netherlands, Mrs J.L. Meyer, SCP, Issue No. 11, Government Printing Office, The Hague

However, it must be borne in mind in this context that the education and schooling of boys and girls can only be discussed in rather general terms. Clear differences emerge between boys and girls as groups. The individual differences between boys and girls, however, are much greater than the overall differences between boys and girls as groups. What is certain, though, is that the higher the level of education, the more pronounced will be the group identification of boys, and in particular, of girls.

9.1 Pre-school period: Education and sex identification

Nearly every child is born with biological sexual characteristics. In the first two years of its life, however, the child is scarcely aware of its existence as a boy or a girl. Sex identification is still unformed. Nonetheless, from the moment of birth all kinds of psycho-social and cultural influences are exercised on the child in order to persuade it to fulfil its expected sex role, although what is accepted as masculine and feminine behaviour varies from culture to culture and, in some cases, even from region to region within one culture¹.

Sex identification develops in two ways. The child's behaviour is influenced towards fulfilling the desired sex role by his environment, and the child responds to these influences by imitating the behaviour of an adult of its own sex.

The behaviour of young children is influenced in some cases by a system of approval and disapproval to consolidate and augment the desired characteristics in the child and to discourage and curb undesirable characteristics.

Research shows that parents and educators differentiate here between boys and girls. Girls are more frequently encouraged to be 'sweet-natured and nice', and aggressive behaviour is discouraged. Girls are more frequently protected and are allowed to express their aggression and annoyance by tears. Boys are encouraged more to be active and seek achievement, and aggressive behaviour is tolerated to a greater extent. There is less inclination to protect boys, and crying is more frequently discouraged.

¹ Margaret Mead: Sexuality and temperament, 1948, Antwerp, 1962. Spectrum, Aula. (Dutch edition)

The child responds to such influences by imitating adults of its own sex. It is striking that in their early years both boys and girls adopt more of the behaviour of their mothers than of their fathers. This occurs because the mother devotes far more time to the child during its early years than does the father. The identification process of girls with the feminine sex role therefore progresses somewhat more rapidly than the identification of boys with the masculine sex role.

Toys play an important role in this process. Girls' toys are mainly models of domestic and service consumer goods (dolls, model kitchens). Boys' toys are usually model cars, ships, aeroplanes and weapons. Unisex toys such as jigsaw puzzles, modelling clay, painting and building materials are also available. Parents who wish to emphasize sex identification usually give girls 'girls' toys' and boys 'boys' toys'. Boys are discouraged from playing with dolls - or even ridiculed - as are girls from playing with cars.

In some countries of the European Community, children spend a period of time in nurseries, playschools or day nurseries before compulsory schooling starts. Most of these institutions accept boys and girls, and no formal distinction is made between the two groups. Research shows, however, that young children in these institutions are treated quite differently. In some cases, different playrooms are provided and in many cases different play areas. The kitchen or doll area is intended mainly for girls, and the construction and handicraft area for boys. Even for certain games the children are sometimes divided. Quiet and orderly games are organized for girls and rougher games for the boys 'so that they can let off steam'.

The consequences of such overall educational patterns are clearly noticeable when boys and girls begin compulsory schooling between the ages of 4 and 6. Girls are more passive and diffident, less prepared to stand up for themselves and more prepared to be obedient. Boys are more active, more adventurous and display greater aspirations to succeed; they demand less protection and are less prepared to be obedient.

Girls are more interested in activities taking place within the family, whereas boys feel more involved in the world outside.

There is no comparative Community research on sex identification in young children. It would be interesting to ascertain whether this process is the same in each of the Member States. It is an established fact that in the northern European countries there is less difference between 'girls' behaviour' and 'boys' behaviour' than in southern Europe.

9.2 Primary education: consolidation of behavioural differences

The process of social and cultural behavioural identification which began in the pre-school period continues during primary education.

The specific behaviour patterns of boys and girls are consolidated by various factors within the school.

9.2.1 Separate education, separate curricula, separate subjects

Various countries in the European Community have a long tradition of single-sex education. Single-sex education is based primarily on the belief that boys require a different education and training from girls. Boys have to be prepared for their future role at work and girls for their future role in the family. Research has shown, however, that the quality of education in girls' schools was frequently inferior to that in boys' schools. Single-sex education was therefore increasingly considered to be harmful, unnecessary and outmoded. Since 1960 there has been a great increase in co-education. But it must be noted that single-sex basic education has not disappeared entirely. In some Member States it is still widespread, especially in private and church schools. Since then it has been shown that role-oriented education has by no means disappeared with co-education.

In an evaluation report by the Belgian Ministry of Education on the introduction of co-education in Belgian elementary schools, it was noted that, although boys and girls were now (1975) attending the same school, separate boys' and girls' classes were still widespread following more or less traditional curricula.

In the schools where boys and girls were in the same class, role-oriented subjects were still in the curriculum. In some cases boys and girls were obliged to go in for these role-oriented subjects according to sex.

In more cases boys and girls were given an option, and girls principally chose traditional girls' subjects (needlework and gymnastics) while boys largely chose traditional boys' subjects (including crafts and field sports). This shows that co-education, however desirable, does not automatically result in the same curriculum for boys and girls.

9.2.2 The effect of the attitude and position of teachers

The influence of teachers on the development and consolidation of sex-oriented behaviour patterns in young children should not be underestimated. Not only is the attitude of the teacher to individual pupils important, his/her position within the school organization is also important.

The attitude of the teacher to boys and girls is largely an extension of the attitude of many parents. Girls are frequently praised for their quiet and disciplined behaviour and more frequently protected. Disobedience in girls is strongly censured.

Noisy and undisciplined behaviour in boys is tolerated to a somewhat greater extent than in girls, as is disobedience. Boys are less frequently protected.

Children who do not conform to the desired behaviour patterns are treated with concern. That is as true for over-active and undisciplined girls as for boys who are quiet and too well-behaved.

The position of teachers in school also affects the behaviour patterns of the pupils. During their primary education children come into contact with female and male teachers, but there is a considerable difference between the positions occupied by the two groups.

Male teachers are more frequently responsible for executive tasks than female teachers. They have more to do with organization and curriculum development. Female teachers are generally found in administrative and supportive roles. Decisions are usually taken by men and implemented by women.

The inspector, the head teacher, the teachers in the higher classes, the chairman of the school board and the chairman of the parents' association is usually a man. In most cases the teachers in the lower classes and educational and domestic assistants are women.

The ratio of teachers to headteachers gives a good example. In France, women account for some 70% of the teaching staff in elementary schools, yet in only 47% of such schools is the headteacher a woman.

In Ireland, 71% of the teachers are women, and in 52% of elementary schools the headteacher is a woman. In the United Kingdom, 76% of the teaching posts in primary education are filled by women, and 42% of the schools have a woman as a headteacher. In Italy, women account for 68% of the teaching staff, but only 31% of the elementary schools have a woman as head. In the Netherlands the disproportion is striking. Although the teaching staff in primary schools is roughly equally divided between men and women, in only 4% of these schools is the headteacher a woman. (Report by Dr Eileen Byrne.)

Adults set examples for children to imitate and identify with. The position occupied by adults in society is a model for the position which the children will themselves occupy. If children see that management, executive and organizational work is largely the province of men, while it is women who carry out decisions and undertake supportive and subordinate work, all this affects their own ambitions. Boys are given to understand that they will naturally be the ones who do the important executive work and that women are subordinate. Girls are taught to accept a subordinate role in society.

9.2.3 Pupils' influence upon each other

Boys and girls do not simply undergo the process of sex identification passively. They are also inclined to consolidate and defend it. In so doing they employ the same techniques as their parents: desired behaviour is praised and undesirable behaviour is censured. Sweet-natured, compliant and shy girls are popular with boys, this in contrast with the active, inventive and clever girls whom the boys tend to regard as competitors and even as a threat. On the other hand, girls like active, energetic and clever boys, whereas self-conscious and shy boys are unpopular. Children who deviate excessively from this pattern run the risk of becoming isolated and ridiculed. Girls and boys require a great deal of courage to display characteristics which fall outside the usual stereotypes.

9.2.4 The effect of teaching materials

In primary education, teaching materials also strengthen and confirm role patterns. A great deal of research has been carried out into this aspect and many of the findings are very revealing. Reading books in particular, but also language and arithmetic textbooks, not only reflect the traditional role distribution between men and women in society, they often caricature it. Although the world population is roughly equally divided between men and women, most school books would have us believe that there are more men and boys than women and girls.

These are findings of research carried out in the Netherlands¹.

Number of boys, girls, men and women featured each year in arithmetic text-books:

class	men	women	boys	girls
1	8	2	19	15
2	45	41	191	81
3	90	64	123	33
4	60	31	143	38
5	99	39	52	17
6	187	42	200	25
Total	489	219	728	209

The number of men, women, boys and girls featured per class in language text-books:

class	men	women	boys	girls
1	69	22	71	49
2	97	44	58	41
3	156	83	104	47
4	256	82	104	57
5	293	89	177	65
6	510	95	86	32
Total	1381	415	540	291

Although in most countries women constitute 30-40% of the labour force, most school books show women exclusively in their role as mothers and housewives. Adult women are usually depicted in reading books as small and slender, passive, subordinate, anxious or apprehensive. They usually pass their day in cooking, washing, cleaning, ironing, knitting or looking after children. Adult men are usually depicted as tall, strong and handsome, acting with enterprise and authority: they protect the women and children. In reading books boys are tall, plucky, clever, full of self-confidence and above all honest. Girls are usually small, sweet-natured, pretty, tender-hearted, uncertain, easily frightened and quick to burst into tears.

¹ 'The image of men and women in primary school textbooks' Schöne, Steen, etc., Sociological Guide to the Netherlands 1975

The influence of such teaching material must not be underestimated. For many girls, this is the umpteenth incitement to be passive, subordinate and dependent. They take in acceptance of a subordinate role with the very air they breathe.

Protests have been made in various countries against school books which give such a distorted picture of reality. In the United States and Sweden, committees of enquiry have been set up, and a start was recently made in West Germany on research into random samples of teaching materials and text books.

However, in most countries it is the school which selects the teaching materials and not the government; consequently, government intervention is frequently very difficult.

9.2.5 Performance and ambition

Research has provided a great deal of incidental information on the differences in performance between boys and girls in primary education. This research shows that in the early years of primary education, girls have a small but clear lead over boys. This lead cannot be explained by the children's intelligence. All research findings demonstrate that intelligence is distributed very evenly between boys and girls. The difference in performance between boys and girls in the early years of their primary education may probably be accounted for by the difference in the overall behaviour patterns with which boys and girls arrive at school.

At school, the children are expected to be quiet, disciplined and obedient. Such expectations are, however, more in line with the average behaviour of girls than of boys. During the early school years, boys have much greater difficulties in adjusting than girls, and their results are not as good. More boys have to repeat a year, and more boys than girls are transferred to special schools. But during primary education, the overall lead of girls disappears, as does the difference in overall learning performance.

In the second half of primary education, however, some specific differences develop between girls and boys, particularly in verbal and arithmetical ability: the average verbal ability (vocabulary, fluency and reading ability) of girls is somewhat higher than that of boys; the average arithmetical ability, including the capacity to think in abstract terms, of boys is somewhat higher than that of girls.

It is striking that at the end of their primary education, a number of girls develop a certain indifference to or even dislike of mathematics.

It is not clear how this attitude, which is not the same in every country, develops and what effect parents, teachers and classmates have on it. Tradition and prejudices are probably involved to some extent.

It is, though, well-known that this attitude can be carried to a point where girls with specific mathematical abilities are regarded as somewhat abnormal, whereas it is considered quite normal for boys to show special ability in maths.

As they reach the end of their primary education, children must opt for a certain type of secondary school. In this respect, boys seem to have a considerably broader and more positive view of their future potential than do girls.

Surveys show that boys list for themselves a wide range of desired occupations, usually slightly above their academic potential. Girls are, however, more hesitant as regards their future prospects. Their attitude is ambiguous. On the one hand they gear themselves towards a future domestic role and on the other hand they list a limited number of desired occupations which are often extensions of one of those domestic roles. Girls do not seem to have a high opinion of their abilities. The majority of occupations listed do not match up to their academic potential. Finally, boys have a much more positive attitude towards their future role than girls. Research done in the fifth year of primary education showed that 12 times as many girls as boys would like to change their sex role (Sociale Atlas van de Nederlandse Vrouw).

9.3 Secondary education

The transition from primary to secondary education takes place between the ages of 10 and 13 in the Member States of the Community.

In West Germany children transfer at the age of 10, with the exception of Hamburg, Bremen and Berlin, where the transfer is at age 12. In France, Italy and the United Kingdom children transfer at 11. In the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg at age 12 and in Denmark at age 13.

Unlike primary education, secondary education is characterized by a large number of different types of school at various levels, which often differ, depending on the country and even the region.

However, in most Member States a clear distinction is made between schools for general education and those which are vocationally-oriented.

In all Member States there are differences in timetables right from the first cycle of secondary education. In the schools for general education, children can opt for certain combinations of subjects and in vocational education for a number of specialisms. Differentiation often begins in the first year, sometimes in the second or third year.

Children transferring from primary to secondary education must therefore choose between two types of school, various levels and, within the various schools, between certain groups of subjects and specialisms.

The choice made by children at this stage of their education is crucial and largely determines their subsequent position on the labour market.

Research shows that various factors influence the choice made by a child.

Intelligence and ability are important but not crucial here. At least of equal importance are: the education, social and financial status of the parents, the home environment (urban or rural areas) and particularly the sex of the child.

Research carried out in Luxembourg gives a typical picture: 2,000 children were closely followed from their sixth year of primary education.¹

The 17% of the children who entered working life (unskilled) with the minimum of post-primary education were predominately girls from the working class.

The 30% of the children who received the longest schooling and qualitatively the best further training were boys from the higher social classes.

9.3.1 Choice between general and vocationally-oriented education

The broad variation in types of school in the Member States makes it difficult to draw comparisons between the various Member States. However, the figures on choice of schools from a few countries give some indication of the choices made by boys and girls:

¹ Source: Etude Magrip, Institut Pedagogique, Luxembourg 1977

Participation rates in secondary education 1976/1977¹

	Germany	
	boys	girls
Realschule	572,274	676,378
Gymnasium	740,993	715,492
Berufsfachschulen	283,432	193,585
Fachgymnasium	121,834	38,285

Realschule = secondary school 11-16
 Gymnasium = secondary school 11-18
 Berufsfachschule = vocational school
 Fachgymnasium = advanced vocational school

	Italy	
	boys	girls
Scuoli Medie Inferiore	1,494,121	1,374,999
Licea Scientifici	215,310	171,535
Istruzione Professionale	201,929	168,595
Istruzione Technica	670,419	324,267
Instituti Magistrali	14,052	158,536

Scuoli Medie Inferiore = intermediate secondary school
 Licea Scientifici = higher secondary school
 Istruzione Professionale = intermediate vocational education
 Istruzione Technica = advanced technical education
 Instituti Magistrale = teachers' training colleges

	Netherlands	
	boys	girls
Intermediate schools	288,666	303,970
Higher secondary schools	109,116	93,293
Primary vocational training	236,346	175,853
Intermediate vocational training	73,654	50,383

In general more girls than boys attend schools providing general education and more boys than girls receive vocational education.

If one considers the various levels, in general education more girls opt for a lower level and more boys for a higher level.

In vocational education boys are in the majority at all levels.

¹ Source: Eurostat Educational Statistics 1978

9.3.2 Curricular options in schools for general education

In many countries during the first years of advanced general education a single broad curriculum is offered. Some specialization then occurs when compulsory core subjects can be supplemented by optional ones.

Girls largely supplement the compulsory core subjects with languages, commercial subjects (lower level) and economics (higher level).

The relatively small group of girls opting for the scientific side mainly chooses biology and chemistry and to a lesser extent mathematics and physics.

In the case of boys there is a broad spread of subjects with the emphasis on mathematics and physics, economics, chemistry and biology. Languages are rather less popular.

However, the number of boys opting for languages is still much greater than the number of girls opting for mathematics and physics.

Girls' resistance to the scientific subjects is greater in the schools for lower and intermediate general education than in the schools for advanced general education. This also differs from country to country. It is striking that the number of girls opting for the sciences is higher in France and Ireland than in the other Member States (Eileen Byrne's study).

The following table gives the statistics for sciences as studied by Dutch boys and girls in secondary general education.

Short general cycle

	girls	boys
mathematics	27%	64%
physics	10%	47%
chemistry	35%	51%
biology	70%	47%

Long general cycle

	girls	boys
mathematics	30%	61%
physics	11%	42%
chemistry	26%	44%
biology	55%	45%

Pre-university long cycle courses

	girls	boys
mathematics	58%	82%
physics	29%	64%
chemistry	33%	62%
biology	43%	51%

9.3.3 Choice of school and course in vocationally-oriented education

In the Member States of the Community there is a broad range of vocationally-oriented educational institutions.

What is immediately striking is that more boys than girls attend vocational schools.

This is partly attributable to girls' uncertainty at the end of primary education.

It must also be said that there is a wide range of vocational education for traditionally masculine fields of employment and only a limited range of vocational education for traditionally feminine fields of employment.

Most countries have vocationally-oriented education at two or three levels: lower, intermediate and advanced vocational education.

Particularly at the lower level of vocational education there is a strongly marked division between schools for traditionally feminine jobs (domestic science courses) and schools for traditionally masculine jobs (craft and technical education).

The domestic courses give pupils competence principally in running a domestic household. Such education has very little value for employment outside the home.

Some domestic science schools compensate by offering a number of subjects of some value on the labour market, e.g. training for the retail trade (sales assistant), for children's and old people's care and for the textile sector (dressmaker).

Exclusively 'domestic science schools' are to be found principally in the United Kingdom (especially in Scotland and Wales), Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Denmark and West Germany.

In some countries programmes have been set in train to integrate domestic science schools into craft and technical education.

Craft and technical education is considerably more varied than domestic science education and covers training in agriculture, horticulture, building, the electrical trades, motor mechanics, machine maintenance, metal work, woodwork, butchery, bakery, etc.

There is almost always a great concentration of girls in domestic education and boys in craft and technical education. Where there are separate schools for this type of education, the division of the sexes is greatest.

Many domestic science schools will not admit boys, while some craft and technical schools exclude girls. Where these forms of education are more or less integrated, there are some girls in the craft and technical courses and some boys in the domestic courses.

The following table illustrates the courses chosen by Belgian boys and girls in the second year of integrated vocational education (lower and intermediate levels):

	boys	girls
Technology/science	30.8%	34.35%
Technology/mechanics	20%	-
Technology/metallurgy	14.14%	-
Industrial technology	6.34%	-
Bio-technology	4.45%	15.34%
Woodworking techniques/technology	3.77%	-
Art	2.81%	3.83%
Agriculture/horticulture	2.08%	-
Nutrition/health care	1.98%	1.39%
Sociology/psychology	1.88%	26.41%
Science and art	1.79%	6.62%
Classical languages and science	0.77%	1.83%
Gold and jewellery	0.14%	0.17%
Nutrition and clothing	-	3.13%
Technology and clothing	-	1.30%
Clothing and textiles	-	1.30%

(Source: Belgian Ministry of Education, 1975)

In intermediate and advanced vocational education there is also a certain division according to sex.

Training for jobs in social work and health care is mostly taken by girls.

Boys mostly take training for technical jobs (where there is also great variety).

Training for jobs in education and in the administrative/economic sectors has a mixed appeal.

In many countries there are separate institutions for this type of vocational training, with typically boys' and girls' schools coming into being which, just as in the lower levels of vocational training, sometimes do not admit members of the other sex.

In other countries these vocational courses are grouped in one local establishment, which allows of greater integration.

The following table illustrates the subject options open to German boys and girls at advanced vocational schools, establishments for integrated intermediate and advanced vocational training.

	boys	girls
Agriculture	0.9%	0.4%
Technology/science	52.7%	7.4%
Management and administration	28.4%	37.3%
Organization	2.6%	5.3%
Social economics/teaching	5.6%	30.5%
Domestic science	0.4%	5.5%
Other subjects	9.4%	13.6%

Source: Vocational Education in Stuttgart and Mainz, Federal Statistical Office, 1978

9.3.4 Factors affecting role-oriented choices

The differences in the choices made by boys and girls during secondary education are due principally to role-oriented upbringing and education in the first 10 to 12 years of life. However, secondary education factors reinforce this process.

For example single-sex education occur more frequently at secondary than primary level.

Eileen Byrne's study states that 53% of secondary schools in Ireland are single-sex ones.

In the United Kingdom there is single-sex education in 74% of state secondary schools.

In Luxembourg 25% of girls in secondary education attend girls' schools.

A major disadvantage of separate secondary general education is that schools gear themselves towards a role-oriented curriculum.

Girls' schools will thus be more inclined to equip a language laboratory than a science laboratory.

Moreover, girls' schools for general education have a tendency to introduce certain domestic science subjects at the expense of the exact sciences.

As a result, the value of the certificates from these girls' schools is sometimes inferior to that of certificates from comparable boys' schools.

This is even more marked in vocational education. Girls' schools are almost always geared to future work in the household (domestic science schools) or to closely related jobs (kindergarten teacher, old people's nurse, etc.). Boys' schools are primarily geared to jobs mainly in the craft or technical sphere.

The great advantage of coeducation is that pupils do at all events have a certain choice between subjects and vocational courses, though it must be said that in coeducation boys and girls still have a tendency to make role-oriented choices.

It is incidentally worth noting that, when coeducation is introduced through the merger of boys' and girls' schools, the headship of the mixed school is usually given to the head of the boys school. For example, in Scotland and Wales there was a movement towards integration of separate schools between 1965 and 1975. In 1965 38% of headships were held by women, by 1975 only 18%.

Attitude and position of teachers

Teachers obviously have a considerable influence on the role-oriented subject and employment choices made by boys and girls.

As in primary education both the attitude and position of teachers play a major part in this.

Most teachers have little knowledge of the findings of educational research on the damaging nature of role-confirming education for girls' futures.

Obstinate prejudices concerning the limited abilities of girls in the field of science and technology and their special talents in the field of domestic subjects, the service sectors and languages are reflected in the advice given by teachers to girls regarding choice of subject, further education and occupation. Research also shows that many teachers assess girls' abilities lower than those of boys, with the result that girls frequently receive advice which does not do full justice to their academic potential.

Women teachers play an important part in secondary education. It is striking that here too, even more than in primary education, they are heavily under-represented in the senior positions.

This applies particularly to coeducational schools. In Italy for example 48% of teachers in secondary schools are women. However only 14% have a headship. In Ireland 39% of secondary schools have a headmistress although 61% of the teaching posts are held by women.

There is no reason to suppose that this situation is any better in other Member States.

Effects of teaching materials

Textbooks in secondary education show the same characteristics as those used in primary education. Men appear more frequently in these books than do women. Moreover, both groups are often presented in stereotyped roles and with stereotyped characteristics. There has been a great deal of criticism recently of literature, geography and history textbooks.

In literature textbooks the already small number of women writers and poets often receive only scant treatment by comparison with male writers and poets.

In geography textbooks, in the description of different races much attention is given to the male population but hardly any information is furnished about women's lives.

History books suffer from the same defect. It is striking that women are mentioned only to a very limited extent in the history books.

History dealing with family structures and womens' role therein is lacking and also the history of womens' movements.

In contrast, excessive attention is paid to the actions of male citizens. The history of wars in particular is dealt with in detail. War heroes are praised and the number of victims hardly mentioned.

Such teaching material has a specific influence on pupils' processes of self-identification; the girls receiving little to guide them as to their future, the boys are systematically served up numerous examples to follow.

In recent years female research workers in various universities have been tracing the role of women in various academic fields. It is extremely important that the results of these so-called womens' studies are included in text books for secondary education in the near future.

The teaching material in vocational education is often more role-oriented than that in general education. In textbooks on household management, child care, nursing, etc. men seldom appear at all. In text books for craft and technical education there are no women.

A small number of girls are now attending craft and technical schools, but the work benches in these schools have been designed for male pupils of average height and the materials and tools for boys' hands.

All these factors can inhibit girls from pursuing vocational education for traditionally male jobs and boys education for traditionally female jobs.

9.3.5 Educational performance, choice of further education and occupation

It is particularly difficult to compare the performance of boys and girls in secondary education. Where boys and girls choose the same subjects, overall performance is generally the same. However, most schools have different curricula and specialisms and the value of the certificate is often closely linked to the curriculum and subjects studied for the school-leaving exam. In general education girls mostly study, in addition to the compulsory subjects for the final examination, languages and, to a lesser extent, economics, chemistry and biology. Boys usually take their leaving examinations in mathematics and physics, technical subjects and economics and, to a lesser extent, chemistry and biology and lastly languages. The boys are far better represented over the whole line of subjects than are the girls. In practice girls seem to have noticeably fewer opportunities than boys with the combination of subjects they usually take in their leaving examinations. This applies both with regard to further education and job opportunities.

The same phenomena are to be observed in vocational education. At the lower level girls finish school studying a very limited number of vocational courses which, moreover, are partly geared towards running a domestic household and not to employment outside. The diploma from the exclusively 'domestic science schools' in particular is of little value on the labour market. Many employment offices register these girls as unskilled and they are then employed and paid as such by many institutions and companies. If girls have acquired additional vocational skills, their job chances are greater. However, diplomas from craft and technical education establishments offer many more opportunities both for further education and employment.

In intermediate and advanced vocational education girls often take their final examinations in a limited number of courses (teaching, health care, social services, administration). These diplomas are certainly of value and afford reasonably good job opportunities in the areas concerned. Boys seem to have a far wider range of vocational training with the emphasis on technical, economic and administrative subjects. The job opportunities in these subject areas are far greater, as are the options for further training.

Lastly, it must be stated that the number of boys completing courses is higher than the number of girls, so that the number of girls entering the labour market unskilled is greater than that of boys.

9.4 Tertiary education

In every Member State a distinction is drawn in tertiary education between university study and advanced vocational training. University education is geared more towards academic training whilst advanced vocational training is principally geared towards certain more highly qualified professions.

9.4.1 Differences in participation of boys and girls

The participation of boys and girls in tertiary education is, over the whole line, lower than that in secondary education. This is partly due to the fact that compulsory schooling ends in the various Member States between 16 and 18, so that many young people move from secondary education into employment.

However, considerably fewer girls than boys proceed to higher education. The following table gives figures for participation of boys and girls in the nine Member States of the Community.

	Boys	Girls
Germany	642,494	404,647
France	508,789	443,656
Italy	588,758	392,129
Netherlands	166,752	80,799
Belgium	95,225	69,255
Luxembourg	1,803	865
Ireland	21,154	13,893
Denmark	59,454	44,610
United Kingdom	308,000	218,000

Source: Eurostat Educational Statistics 1976/1977

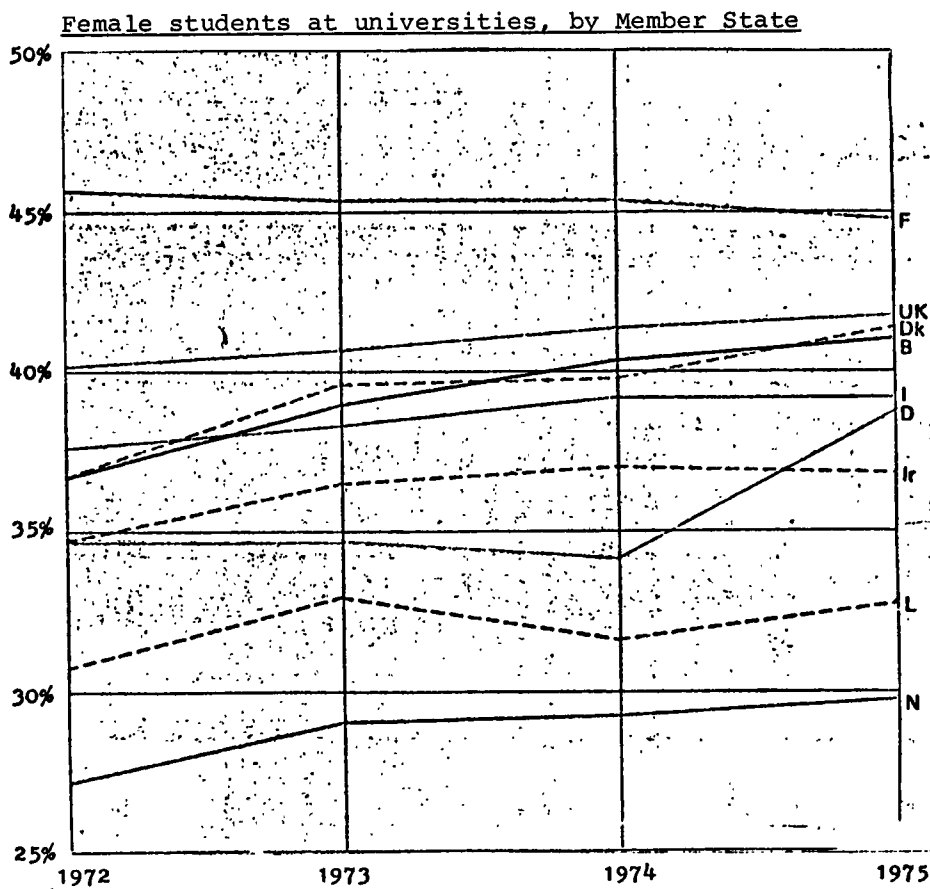
The same factors influence the number of boys and girls transferring to higher education as those which affect participation in secondary education. Intelligence and ability are important but not the determining factors. At least equally important are the education, social and financial status of the parents, the home environment and above all the sex of the child.

The sex of the child is particularly important in tertiary education.

- In practice, parents consider higher education more important for boys than girls. This applies especially to parents from the lower sectors of society with limited financial means and parents from remote rural areas. The participation of their children in higher education entails a heavy financial burden for these parents, especially if the children have to travel long distances or take lodgings in order to study. Parents have greater motivation when it comes to accepting this financial burden for their sons than for their daughters. Parents' future expectations for their children play an important role in this. Boys are expected to prepare themselves for a position in the working world: preferably an important executive position in accordance with their abilities and talents. Girls are expected to marry, bear children and for quite some time be fully occupied with their family. Lengthy and expensive courses of study are therefore considered less useful or necessary.

- Throughout their childhood girls have had a more or less role-oriented upbringing and education and have thus learnt a number of important social lessons: Marriage and domestic duties come first. Vocational training comes second. Women are not really cut out for important work or top jobs. In the working world women take second place and usually hold subordinate jobs.
- Teachers and those who advise on courses of study and careers reinforce these processes by giving girls different advice from boys. Research indicates that the academic potential of boys is considered greater than that of girls and that advice is tailored accordingly.
- Lastly, it must be stated that girls already restrict considerably their options by the courses they chose in secondary education. More often than the boys, girls leave school with too low a level of secondary studies and they are barred from certain courses, in particular technology, mathematics and physics and economics, because they lack sufficient basic knowledge in these areas.

Although the number of girls in tertiary education is lower than the number of boys in all Member States of the Community, participation varies greatly from Member State to Member State.



On average 35 to 40% of the student population in the various Member States are women. The greatest participation is in France, the United Kingdom, Denmark and Belgium. Luxembourg and the Netherlands have the lowest numbers. Ireland, Italy and West Germany occupy the middle ground. The most striking figures are those for France (45%) and the Netherlands (28%). The reasons for these considerable differences are not altogether clear, though there is some connection between the average participation of women in employment and the participation of women in higher education. The differences in traditions and social pressures in the various countries are probably also factors of importance.

9.4.2 Differences in choice of subject and course

Not all courses in tertiary education are of the same length, intensity or value. University courses are on the whole longer and more difficult than courses of advanced vocational training. At universities, science courses are generally the longest and most difficult.

Girls proceeding to tertiary education fairly frequently opt for courses of advanced vocational training. In advanced vocational training itself, the choice is usually for courses in health care, social services and education. Boys show a preference for technical and economic courses but opt quite widely too for courses in education and in the social services.

The table below illustrates the distribution of boys and girls in advanced vocational training and university education:

	<u>Germany</u>	
	Boys	Girls
Universities	423,489	202,314
Medical schools	14,710	75,710
Technical high schools	121,102	36,551
Teacher training colleges	25,500	47,649
Art colleges	8,780	6,524
	<u>Ireland</u>	
	Boys	Girls
Universities	12,723	9,198
Royal College of Surgeons	592	214
Teacher Training	914	2,260
Establishment for Technical Courses	5,179	1,657
School of Art	136	164

	<u>Luxembourg</u>	
	Boys	Girls
Students at foreign universities	1,375	688
Teacher training college	51	81
Technical school	162	1

Source: Eurostat Educational Statistics 1976/1977

In university education girls are mainly concentrated in subject areas such as languages, education, sociology and psychology. A very small group of girls opt for science subjects, where there is a preference for biology and chemistry. Boys are in the majority in subjects such as technology, mathematics and physics, economic sciences and philosophy. In popular subject areas such as law, medicine, history and geography there are also more boys than girls, but most fields of study largely reflect the general ratio of boys to girls in the universities.

There are no Community statistics on course choices made by boys and girls, so ratios for each Member State cannot be given. However, it is known that more girls study science subjects and philosophy in France than in the other Member States.

9.4.3 Performance and employment opportunities

The number of girls who do not complete their courses at institutions of higher education is noticeably higher than the number of boys. This is mainly connected with the age at which these courses are taken. The majority of advanced courses are followed between the ages of 18 and 25. This is the period when the majority of marriages take place and most children are born. The incidence of marriage and cohabitation among students is fairly high. Cohabitation, whether or not marriage is involved, puts far more pressure on the woman than on the man. The woman's tasks are increased considerably by the birth of a child. This is one of the reasons for the high drop-out rate among women students. The future expectations of students also play an important part. If boys experience difficulties during their course of study, they are urged on by the knowledge that completion of their studies is vital for their future position in the working world. Girls' ambivalent attitude to what the future may hold seems to act as a brake rather than a stimulus during periods of difficulty.

The employment opportunities for girls who have completed their studies are more limited than those of boys because of the course of study chosen. In addition there is still resistance to employing women in executive positions. Employers also have a somewhat suspicious attitude towards young married employees, as they expect them to stop working in due course for family reasons. All these factors mean that women who have completed their studies have more difficulty in finding suitable employment than men. And women are more frequently recruited for jobs which do not match up to their level of training.

9.5 Technical and industrial education

Many industries and institutions are so specialized that the general education and vocational training of employees is not sufficient for them to be able to perform their tasks satisfactorily. Industries and institutions therefore organize a variety of training schemes and courses to fill the gaps in knowledge and skills. Sometimes these courses are set up within the organization concerned, sometimes outside institutes are used that run appropriate specialized courses.

These courses are mostly designed as induction courses for new employees. Employers also give their employees the possibility of moving up to higher work levels and executive positions through supplementary courses. A firm will sometimes change its product or production process and training courses are organized to adapt employees' knowledge and skills to the new situation. Technical and industrial education is given at all levels. It may be designed to turn unskilled workers into skilled workers. It may be designed to train highly skilled workers for specific activities in the firm. The times when such courses are given vary from firm to firm and from course to course, as does the length of such courses. Part or all of the costs are often borne by the employer. As a rule courses may only be followed when an employment contract has been signed. However, an employment contract is sometimes made conditional on attendance at a course.

9.5.1 Participation of male and female employees

The number of technical and industrial training courses is so great and varies so much from country to country, from region to region and from industry to industry that it is particularly difficult, if not impossible, to draw up comparative summaries of the situation in the European Community. All available statistics do show, however,

that fewer female than male employees follow courses of this kind. This results partly from the fact that there are more men than women at work. However, if we extrapolate these factors, it is still true that the number of women following technical and industrial courses is disproportionately low. Various publications give general participation rates for women of 25 to 28%. A recent German study¹ states that in 1976 in West Germany 7 out of 10 male and 5 out of 10 female employees between the ages of 15 and 20 were attending additional technical training courses. In France 877,000 apprentices attended state-subsidized supplementary technical or industrial training in 1975. This included 254,000 women.²

9.5.2 Spread of male and female employees

Whilst the general figures for participation of female employees in technical and industrial training are not particularly good, the figures for the distribution of female employees over the various courses make the situation even worse. Research shows that, as a rule, women mostly participate in a very limited number of courses - usually at lower levels. The European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training in Berlin estimates that 75% of female employees are concentrated in 15% of the technical and industrial training courses available. The largest concentration is in courses in the textile industry (dressmaker/cutter), in the retail trade (sales-staff/hair-dresser), in the clerical sector (typist/secretary) and in health care (doctor's assistant). At higher levels many employees follow courses relating to educational or clerical tasks (language courses being by far the most important) and courses in health care (specialist nursing courses).

Male employees are spread evenly over about 90% of courses at the lower, intermediate and advanced levels.

Sources:

¹ Equality of opportunity in vocational education, Dr Barbara Hegelheimer, European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, Berlin, 1979

² Information Bulletin, 'Vocational Training' 1977/3 of the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, Berlin.

The following table, from the study by Dr Barbara Hegelheimer quoted above, illustrates this:

<u>People in training per branch of industry</u>	<u>West Germany 1977</u>	
	Men	Women
<u>Farmers, stockbreeders, fishing trades</u>	3.6%	1.6%
of which: florists	0.0%	1.1%
<u>Manufacturing industries</u>	74.5%	7.6%
of which: paper manufacturers and processors,		
printers	0.9%	0.2%
metal producers and processors	2.0%	0.0%
<u>Fitters, mechanics and similar professions</u>	34.8%	1.6%
of which: plumbers, gas and water fitters	3.1%	0.0%
machine fitters	4.7%	0.0%
factory fitters	1.9%	0.0%
motor mechanics and fitters	9.5%	0.0%
mechanics	1.7%	0.0%
toolmakers	2.8%	0.0%
dental technicians, opticians	1.1%	1.3%
Electricians	13.3%	0.1%
<u>Textile and clothing industry</u>	0.3%	3.4%
of which: garment cutters	0.0%	0.4%
dressmarkers	0.0%	0.9%
seamstresses and garment finishers	0.0%	2.1%
<u>Food industry</u>	7.2%	0.9%
of which: bakers, confectioners	3.0%	0.4%
butchers	2.3%	0.0%
cooks	1.6%	0.5%
Building trades	5.7%	0.0%
Equipment suppliers, furnishers, upholsterers	1.4%	0.2%
Carpenters, modelmakers	4.0%	0.1%
Painters, varnishers and ancillary trades	3.4%	0.1%
<u>Technicians, technical specialists</u>	2.7%	3.3%
of which: chemical laboratory technicians	0.4%	0.6%
photo laboratory technicians	0.0%	0.1%
technical draughtsmen	1.0%	1.1%
construction draughtsmen, component draughtsmen	0.6%	1.0%
<u>Service industries</u>	18.7%	87.4%
of which: <u>sales personnel</u>	7.3%	28.1%
of which: sales staff in wholesale and foreign trade	3.0%	3.3%
retail sales staff	1.8%	3.8%
sales assistants	1.8%	11.6%
sales assistants in the food trades	0.0%	6.1%
booksellers	0.1%	0.4%
chemists	0.0%	0.9%
pharmaceutical assistants	0.0%	1.8%
<u>service industry sales staff and ancillary trades</u>	3.3%	5.6%
of which: bank clerks	1.9%	3.7%
insurance agents	0.5%	0.6%
travel agents	0.1%	0.4%

	Men	Women
<u>Organizational, administrative and office jobs</u>	5.6%	25.8%
of which: assistants in economic and tax consultancies	0.5%	2.6%
office clerks	1.5%	8.0%
office assistants	0.0%	2.8%
industrial clerks	2.5%	5.8%
lawyers or Notary's clerks	0.1%	4.0%
Public relations officers, translators, librarians, artists and similar professions	0.4%	0.9%
<u>Paramedical services</u>	0.0%	10.9%
of which: doctor's assistants	0.0%	6.0%
dentist's assistants	0.0%	4.8%
<u>General service industries</u>	0.9%	15.8%
of which: hairdressers	0.3%	11.6%
hotel and licensed trade assistants, waiters	0.4%	1.5%
housekeepers (including rural housekeepers)	0.0%	2.4%
<u>Miscellaneous</u>	0.5%	0.0%
Apprentices, students at technical colleges, training course for the handicapped	0.1%	0.0%
Total (deviation resulting from rounding up)	100.1%	99.9%

Source: Vocational Training 1977. Stuttgart and Mainz:
Federal Statistical Office 1978

9.5.3 Causes for the limited participation and poor spread of female employees in the courses available

There are various reasons why women lag behind in participation in technical and industrial training. These are linked to their inferior educational opportunities and the marginal position of women on the labour market.

- The general educational level of women is lower than that of men. Consequently, women are automatically less eligible for higher technical and industrial training.
- Many technical and industrial training courses require certain vocationally-oriented basic knowledge. Fewer women than men have followed vocationally-oriented basic education. This means that it is difficult to integrate them in the various technical and industrial training courses.
- The courses which most girls choose at school for general education are less suited to the demands of employment than those chosen by boys. The same is true of girls' choice of school and course in vocationally-oriented education. This training is suited to a very limited number of jobs and in some cases it is of no use at all for occupational purposes e.g. domestic science training.

- Many companies regard female workers as temporary staff and not as serious long-term employees. Many employers take the view that participation in industrial courses and vocational training by female workers is risky and not sufficiently profitable.
- It is also true that many women are not career-minded. Some young women still regard their occupation as a temporary job (prior to a period of domestic activity). They therefore lack the motivation to attend supplementary vocational courses.
- For many married women their dual role is so exhausting that they have little time or energy to spare for technical and industrial training. Courses are also often held at times which coincide with peak activity in the home. If women return to the labour market after a period spent looking after the family, their past training often proves to be very out of date, which makes integration into training courses more difficult. An additional hurdle is the upper age-limit for a number of courses.
- Lastly, women are frequently less active in their jobs than men. Women are less ready to seek promotion, supplementary courses and salary increases than their male colleagues. Women acquire this hesitant attitude during their education. Moreover, women are more frequently unsure about their performance, are readier to underestimate their talents and potential and are subject to all kinds of inhibitions in applying for more senior positions. Many women are very diffident when it comes to competing with and overtaking their male colleagues. This is not without reason. It still happens that male colleagues, consciously or otherwise, take it badly if women go in for courses to improve their position and are employed in more senior or executive posts. This attitude is acquired by both men and women during upbringing and through the educational process.

9.6 Conclusions

- The restricted and subordinate social and economic position of women is due in part to the inferiority of the education available to them. This process starts during childhood: in the pre-school period and during primary education.
- At a very early age boys and girls start upon an educational process that leads to specific male and female role behaviour. Girls show more passive and diffident behaviour, seek protection more quickly and are more likely to be obedient. Boys are more active, more adventurous, demand less

protection and are less prepared to be obedient. Girls become very interested in activities relating to the home. Boys are more interested in the world outside.

- These general behavioural differences are confirmed in the pre-school educational establishments (creches, playschools, kindergartens) through games, toys, stories and the attitudes of nursery and teaching staff.
- In primary education, behavioural differences are strengthened further. Separate education and role-oriented curricula are still to be found, with subjects based on the idea that girls and boys require different training and education. Teachers and pupils reinforce the behavioural differences by a subtle system of approval and acceptance of 'desirable' behaviour and disapprobation and rejection of deviant behaviour. Teaching materials hold up to pupils examples of characteristic male and female role behaviour.
- In primary education the position of staff and the distribution of jobs, with male staff mainly doing administration, executive and organizational work, whilst female staff carry out decisions and have a caring function, male staff generally teaching higher classes, whilst female staff teach the lower ones, confirm girls' views that they have a subordinate role in society, whilst boys are given to understand that they are entitled to a privileged position in the working world.
- At the end of primary education some small specific differences become apparent in boys' and girls' performance. Girls have a slight lead in language-based subjects (vocabulary, reading ability, fluency and linguistic skills). Boys have a slight lead in arithmetical subjects. Boys are also often better at reasoning and dealing with spatial concepts. It is striking that by the end of the primary school many girls have developed a certain indifference, or even aversion, to arithmetical subjects. This attitude differs from country to country and culture to culture and is acquired.
- At the end of primary education boys have a considerably broader view of their future prospects than girls. Their view of the future is more varied and much clearer. Girls are generally hesitant about their future prospects. They have an ambivalent and restricted view of the future. Research shows that girls find their position far more difficult than boys.
- In secondary education more girls opt for general education than vocationally-oriented education. Boys more frequently choose vocationally-oriented education. Girls are also more likely to opt for lower and intermediate levels of training whilst boys opt for intermediate and advanced training.

- Apart from the compulsory subjects in general education, girls opt more frequently for languages and, to a lesser degree, commercial subjects and economics. The small number of girls choosing sciences show a preference for chemistry and biology. The distribution of boys over the various subject options is more even, but they show a preference for mathematics and physics, technical subjects and economics. Languages are rather less popular. However, the number of boys opting for languages is much greater than the number of girls choosing mathematics and physics. This sex-oriented preference occurs most at the lower levels of education and is least apparent at the higher levels.
- In vocational training girls opt for a limited number of subjects which are often directly or indirectly linked to domestic tasks. This is particularly true for the lower levels of vocational training, where there is a sharp distinction between domestic science-oriented education and technical and craft-oriented education. Domestic science-oriented courses providing training for tasks in the private home are followed more or less exclusively by girls. This education is of little value for employment purposes. Craft and technical education, which is very varied and offers many opportunities for employment, is largely followed by boys. When these courses are held in a single institution there is a certain amount of overflow, particularly of girls into craft and technical courses and to a lesser extent of boys into domestic science courses.
- At the advanced levels of vocational education, girls opt mainly for courses relating to education, health care and administration. Boys make choices covering a much wider range with the emphasis on technical subjects. However, boys are also well represented in education, administration and economics courses.
- The limited choice made by girls and their preference for the lower levels of training is influenced by parents and the attitude and position of teachers. The system of single-sex education, which still exists, and the limited approach of teaching materials are also significant. Girls are more likely to break off their education and move into employment earlier than boys.
- The participation of boys and girls in tertiary education is, over the whole line, lower than that in secondary education. However, the participation of girls is still markedly lower than that of boys. Girls who proceed to tertiary education often opt for academic vocational training where, once again, mainly courses in health care, the social services and education are chosen. Here boys show a preference for advanced technical and economic training courses, but also choose education courses and training in the social services.

- In academic education girls' options are heavily concentrated in subjects such as languages, education, sociology and psychology. A very small number of girls opt for sciences, with a preference for biology and chemistry. Boys' choices are much more widely spread, with preference being shown for mathematics and physics, technical subjects and economics.
- The number of girls dropping out of higher education is considerably higher than the number of boys. Girls' future expectations and also the early start of family duties are important factors here. Girls have more limited job opportunities on completion of their studies than boys. More often than boys, girls' jobs do not match up to their level of training.
- In technical and industrial training, participation by women employees is less than participation by male employees. There is also a heavy concentration of women in a limited number of courses at a relatively low level. Women have great difficulty in obtaining places on courses for executive posts. It is also difficult for older women to be considered for additional training and retraining.
- The above demonstrates that the restricted and subordinate position of women on the labour market is partly due to the restrictive and role-oriented education and schooling for girls throughout the educational process. This process, which commences at the pre-school stage, is confirmed during primary education and reinforced in all levels and sectors of education thereafter. Any policy to improve the position of women in education should therefore not be limited to secondary and vocational education, but should bear on all levels and sectors of the educational process.

9.7 Proposals for improving the position of women in education and in vocational training

- Community policy to improve the position of girls in education and vocational training should commence at the earliest possible stage of education and bear on all sectors and levels of national education systems.
- The Commission is requested, in consultation with the Council, to draw up a programme for primary education comprising the following priorities:
 - The abolition, within a fixed period of time, of all forms of single-sex education in both kindergartens and elementary schools as also of all forms of separate teaching programmes and subjects for girls and boys within kindergarten and primary education.

- Crafts and needlework should be taught as a single subject, allowing boys and girls to learn both skills.
- Particularly in the second half of primary education, girls should receive extra encouragement to develop mathematical skills and boys to develop linguistic skills.
- In the top classes of primary schools, girls and boys should receive as much information as possible on their further educational and job opportunities. Girls should be encouraged to opt for courses in line with their academic potential and prevented from making limited and role-oriented choices.
- Participation of girls in craft and technical vocational education should receive particular encouragement.
- Schools must record the general performance and final results of girls and boys annually and the form of secondary education to which they proceed. The schools inspectorate should ensure that unbalanced results in certain schools are corrected quickly.
- Teachers should receive in-service training on the problems of the subordinate position of women in society and the part played by primary education in this process so that they can, where necessary, adapt their attitudes to their pupils.
- Male and female teachers should be distributed among the classes so that there are equal numbers working in the lower and higher classes. Women should not always teach the lowest classes and men the highest classes.
- Jobs such as the chairmanship and membership of the school board, chairmanship and membership of the parents' association, jobs in the school inspectorate etc. should also be distributed evenly between men and women.
- The appointment of headmistresses should be such that there is greater balance in the distribution of headships.

Parliament must receive a biennial report on improvements in the position of girls in primary education in each of the Member States to that policy can be regularly evaluated and updated.

- In consultation with the Council, the Commission must draw up a supplementary programme to improve the position of girls in secondary education, with the following priorities:

- Boys and girls must be more evenly distributed throughout all forms of secondary education by making half the places in every school and in every subject area within the school available to boys and girls and adapting enrolment policy accordingly.
- Participation by girls in courses below their level of academic ability must be avoided and also role-oriented choices; special care must be taken that girls do not break off their studies prematurely.
- All forms of single-sex education must be abolished within a fixed period of time. Domestic science education must be integrated into ordinary education. Elementary domestic science and child care must be included in the curriculum of all secondary schools.
- Girls should be actively encouraged to participate in technical and economic vocational training and to take science subjects in schools for general education.
- Secondary schools must record annually the participation of boys and girls in the various subjects, subject groups and vocational training courses, giving the general performance of girls and boys, the drop-out rate for each group, the transfer to further training and the choice of occupation made by boys and girls after training. The school inspectorate must ensure that unbalanced results in any school are corrected quickly.
- Teachers in secondary education must be given additional training on the problems of the subordinate position of women in society and the part played by secondary education in this, so that they can, where necessary, adapt their attitude towards their pupils.
- Male and female teachers should be distributed as evenly as possible amongst subjects and subject areas both in general and vocationally-oriented education. There should be an active policy in respect of the appointment of headmistresses.

Parliament must receive a biennial report on the improvements in the position of girls in secondary education in each of the Member States so that the policy can be evaluated and updated regularly.

- Both primary and secondary education uses a large quantity of teaching materials which are role-confirming and encourage discriminatory attitudes. The Commission must encourage all Member States to set up committees to identify such teaching materials so that school boards and heads are able to eliminate unsatisfactory teaching materials from schools and procure good and positive teaching materials.

- In consultation with the Council, the Commission must draw up a programme to improve the position of girls and women in tertiary education, with the following priorities:
 - Participation of girls in tertiary education must be increased, particularly in Member States where the proportion of girls in advanced education is still far too low.
 - Girls and boys must be distributed more evenly amongst universities and advanced technical institutes by making half of all places within these educational institutions, subject groups and subjects available to girls and boys and adjusting the enrolment policy accordingly. If an allocation system is used, girls and boys must each be allocated 50% of the available places, so that girls are not excluded from courses where they are barely represented at present.
 - There should be active encouragement for girls to participate in technical, economic and science courses by means of appropriate information and enrolment policies.
 - Girls must be prevented from dropping-out of courses by good counselling and provisions for child care, particularly in universities.
 - Institutions for tertiary education must make annual reports on the participation of boys and girls in the various training courses, subject areas and subjects, the general performance, the drop-out rates for boys and girls and the occupations which students enter.
 - Appointment of female teaching staff and research workers must be actively encouraged by positive discrimination on applications so that some degree of balance is achieved.
 - Academic research into the causes of the subordinate position of women in society and the role of women in all sectors of society deserves to receive full support both from national governments and the European Community.

Parliament must receive a biennial report on the position of girls and women in tertiary education in each of the Member States so that the policy can be evaluated and updated regularly.

- The Commission must at an early date convene a special conference of education authorities and subject specialists of the Member States to investigate how these priorities can be included as quickly as possible in national education policy and how the Community can coordinate and encourage this.

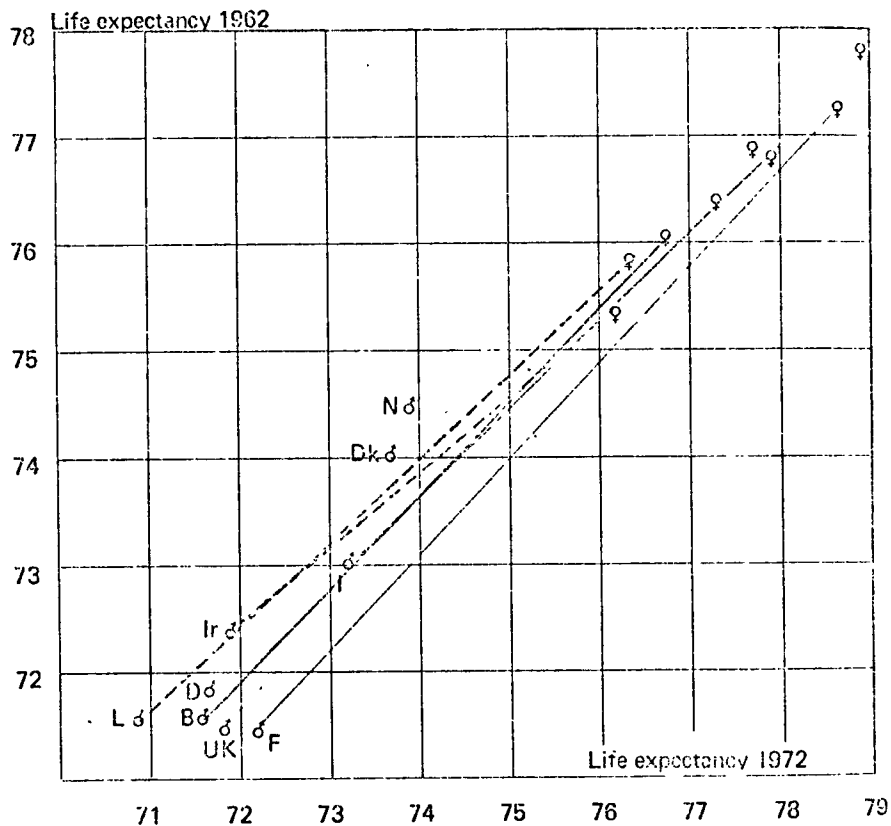
- In consultation with the Council and the social partners, the Commission must draw up a programme to improve the position of women and girls in technical and industrial training, with the following priorities:
 - Increased participation by women and girls in all technical and industrial training in all sectors and at all levels of employment, by requesting the undertakings and institutions concerned to make available half of all apprenticeships for suitably qualified girls and women and to adopt recruitment policy accordingly.
 - Special attention must be paid to the participation of women in craft, technical and economic vocational and industrial training courses and the participation of women in courses for executive functions.
 - Special attention must also be paid to the position of unskilled girls and women within undertakings and institutions by adopting legislation such that, after one year's employment, they acquire the right to technical and industrial training so that they are at least able to become skilled workers.
 - Special attention must be paid to those women returning to employment after a period of full-time household duties by giving this group every right to additional training and retraining courses.
 - Any upper age-limit for participation in technical and industrial training for this group must be prohibited.
 - Special facilities for female employees with household responsibilities by reasonable timing of courses and, if necessary, by organizing child care facilities.
 - Undertakings and institutions must report annually on the participation and performance of men and women employees in all apprenticeship schemes and on all technical and industrial training courses.

Parliament must receive a report within one year on the actual results of such a programme.

10. The improvement of the position of women in the field of health care¹

A country's health standard is frequently measured by the average life expectancy of its citizens. WHO statistics show that in the European Community, life expectancy is very high compared with that in the rest of the world. In addition, a woman's life expectancy in Europe is higher than that of a man.

The following chart shows the increase in the life expectancy of European men and women between 1962 and 1972²:



In 1972 the average life expectancy of a 40-year old man in Luxembourg was 70, in Belgium, West Germany, United Kingdom and Ireland 71, in France 72, in Italy 73 and in Denmark and the Netherlands 74.

In 1972 the average life expectancy of a 40-year old woman in Ireland, Luxembourg, West Germany and Belgium was 76, in the United Kingdom, Italy and Denmark 77, in France 78 and in the Netherlands 79.

Life expectancy for men fell somewhat between 1962 and 1972 in West Germany, the Netherlands, Ireland, Luxembourg and Denmark,

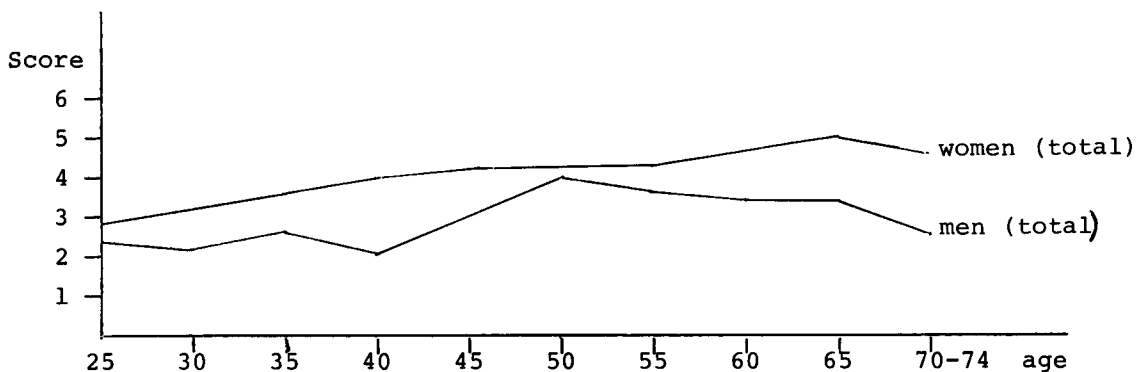
¹Unnumbered working document by Mrs Krouwel-Vlam for the Ad Hoc Committee on Women's Rights

²Source: Women and the European Community, Brussels/Luxembourg 1980, Doc. No. CB 24/78/281/EN/c/

although it rose somewhat in France, Italy and Belgium. Life expectancy of women in Europe increased in all the Member States between 1962 and 1972.

Average life expectancy figures tell us something about the length of a person's life but little about its quality. In particular because of her restricted and inferior role in society, women are subject to a number of specific health problems which adversely affect the quality of their lives. Research in the Netherlands shows that the average stress curve of women is considerably higher than that of men. This stress curve was established on the basis of a detailed enquiry into the extent to which male and female citizens felt themselves to be physically and mentally healthy.

Stress curve taken from research into states of health, Life Situation Survey 1974 (Netherlands)



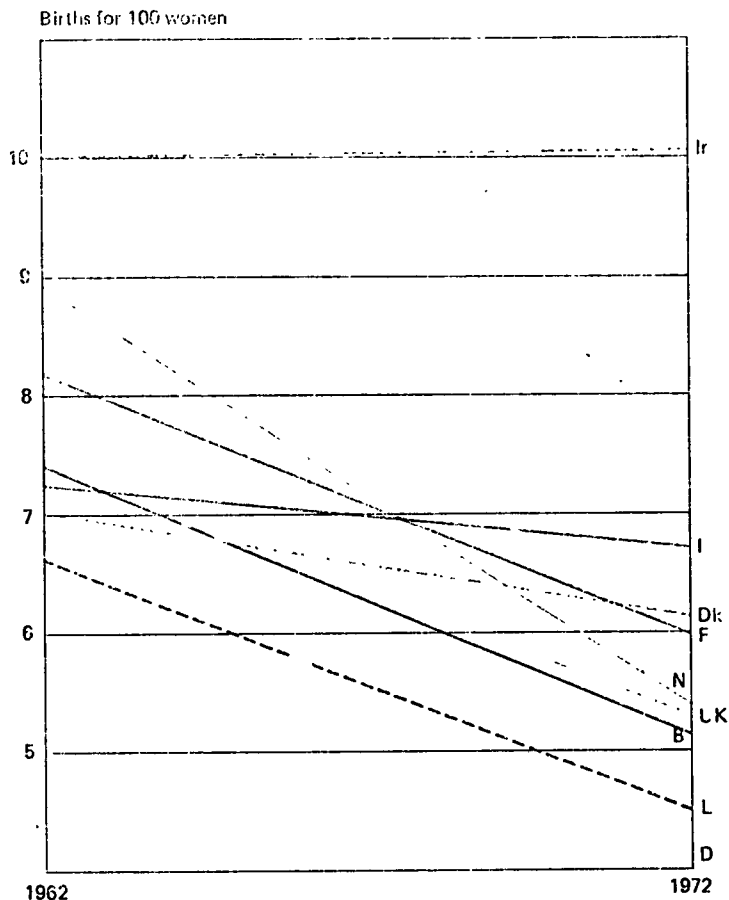
Attention will be paid in this report to a small number of problems facing the modern European woman, especially:

- the availability of means of contraception,
- abortion (especially the international aspects thereof),
- the prevention of breast cancer and cancer of the cervix,
- the excessive consumption of tranquillizers and alcohol,
- the increase in violence against women,
- problems of protective employment legislation.

10.1. The availability of reliable means of contraception

The availability of means of contraception has enabled women over the past few decades to determine for themselves the number of children they will bear and the age at which they will bear them. Previously, women had virtually no opportunity to control their reproductive function, and this placed them in a very vulnerable and uncertain position. Until a few decades ago, as a result of bearing many children and the concomitant serious threat to health, the average woman's life expectancy was lower than that of a man. And because of the large number of children they bore, the shorter life of a woman was, furthermore, largely devoted to the bringing up of the many children.

Since means of contraception became freely available, the average number of children per family in the Member States of the Community has fallen sharply. The diagram below illustrates the changes in the period 1960-1975.



This diagram shows that the fall in the birthrate was sharpest in West Germany and the Netherlands and minimal in Denmark (where there had been a sharp fall before 1960), Italy and Ireland. In Ireland, there was even a marginal increase. Luxembourg, Belgium, the United Kingdom and France came in the middle of the table with a more gradual fall.

Especially in the 1960's, a social and political discussion took place in virtually every Member State on whether all women of child-bearing age should have access to contraceptives as of right. The realization that the use of preventive measures would not only enable women to control their reproductive function themselves but also make them considerably less vulnerable in their social activity prompted certain groups to block for as long as possible regulations which might have led to means of contraception becoming freely available.

Although in almost every Member State today regulations or legislation exist so that a broad group of women are in a position to make use of prophylactics, it must be noted that there are still areas, especially in Ireland and Italy, where women face great difficulties in obtaining contraceptives. Certain groups such as unmarried or single women, divorced women and widows also face specific difficulties. Frequently, and rightly so, prophylactics are only available under medical supervision. Experience shows that certain groups within the medical service, despite existing legislation, take account not only of medical but also social and other criteria when providing or refusing prophylactics, and in so doing impose their own traditional standards on the patient.

It is vital for their health, their social activities and their position on the employment market that all women in Europe, irrespective of their nationality and social status, may have access to reliable means of contraception if they so desire.

Since the 1960's, medical and pharmaceutical research has developed a wide variety of prophylactics. But many women are not sufficiently aware of the reliability, risks and side-effects of these contraceptives. Research shows that various means are used from country to country, region to region and age group to age group and that reliability varies widely. It would appear that cultural habits and personal choice are the determining factors rather than medical reliability. Scientific research into the various aspects of each type of contraceptive is available but the consumer is not properly informed about it. Partly because of the lack of information from the authorities, it regularly happens that in sensationalist semi-medical journals the risks of certain types of contraceptive are highly exaggerated, although in an indirect way, and as a result certain risky changes occur in contraceptive uses with a consequent increase in unwanted pregnancies and abortions.

10.2. Unwanted pregnancy and abortion

The number of unwanted pregnancies has been largely reduced by the wide availability of means of contraception. Unwanted pregnancies used to result in widespread illegal abortion or unwanted births. For example, in the Netherlands the number of illegal abortions before 1960 was estimated at about 50,000 per year. Now, the number of abortions carried out in the Netherlands is approximately 12,000 per year. Not only has the number of abortions been significantly reduced since the 1960's, specific help has been greatly improved in recent years.

Before the 1960's, the medical termination of pregnancy was an offence both for the women who asked for the abortion and for the person who carried it out, whatever the circumstances. Only in Denmark was there any legislation permitting abortion, and then only in a limited number of cases.

As a result, abortions were mostly carried out illegally. Abortions carried out by unauthorized and unqualified people resulted in a number of complications and a high mortality rate. During the 1960s, this state of affairs

led an increasing number of doctors to terminate pregnancies themselves in emergency cases. Other doctors were hesitant to do so, in particular because of the illegal nature of such operations. At the same time, the state of existing legislation on abortions came up for discussion in various Member States.

In 5 of the 9 Member States there is now a form of legislation on abortion which enables doctors to terminate pregnancies under certain well-defined circumstances. In the United Kingdom the Abortion Act came into force in 1968 and permits abortions to be performed under a number of established criteria.

In Denmark the old law was replaced in 1973 by a new one which permits the termination of pregnancy up to the twelfth week without laying down any conditions and after the twelfth week under a number of established criteria.

West Germany has had similar legislation since 1974 and a similar distinction is drawn between a pregnancy up to the twelfth week and beyond.

In 1975 a law was introduced in France which suspended for 5 years a law making termination of pregnancy a punishable offence. A distinction is drawn in France between pregnancies up to the tenth week and beyond in which case stricter criteria are applied.

Abortion was legalized in Italy in 1978. The criteria for the termination of a pregnancy up to the 90th day are less strict than those for pregnancies beyond that date.

In Belgium, Ireland, Luxembourg and the Netherlands abortion is still a punishable offence. It should be noted, however, that in the Netherlands the interpretation of the law is very liberal and in Belgium, especially in the French-speaking part of the country and Brussels, abortions are carried out.

Since more terminations of pregnancy have been carried out legally, more statistics have become available on the number of abortions performed. In Denmark, where abortion has been legal longest, some 25,000 abortions were carried out in 1977. About 133,000 abortions were carried out in the United Kingdom in the same year. In West Germany, 54,000 abortions were recorded in 1977 and 133,000 in France in 1976. No official figures can be given for Italy.

It is difficult to determine whether the number of abortions carried out has increased since it became legal, because only rough estimates are available of the number of illegal abortions. Figures do exist to show the increase or decrease in numbers after legalization. For example, in Denmark the number of abortions carried out increased until 1975 but the number has gradually decreased since 1975. Until 1974 there was an increase in the United Kingdom, but subsequently there was a substantial decrease. Figures relating to abortions in the Netherlands are unusual; in the period between 1974 and 1977 the number of abortions fell, but since 1977 there has been an increase due partly to the large number of immigrants to the Netherlands from Surinam. In France and West Germany there seems to be an increase in the number

of abortions.

The impression is that after legalization the number of abortions increases for a few years and then gradually falls. This is probably due to improvements in contraception. The legalization of abortion has increased awareness of this problem. People are regularly confronted with actual figures for abortions. This confrontation with reality seems to lead to improvements in contraception both as regards the medical services and women.

National abortion figures do not, however, give a complete picture of the national need for terminations of pregnancy. In fact, many women go abroad for an abortion. There is a particularly large influx from countries where abortion is prohibited to countries where it is legal or where legislation is liberally interpreted.

The result of this is that abortion, which is really a national responsibility, has large-scale international implications.

Women seeking abortions abroad generally go to the United Kingdom or the Netherlands. The United Kingdom has the longest experience in this field, largely because abortions have been legally admitted since 1968. The following table shows the number of abortions carried out on foreign women since 1968¹.

	Total	Residents	Non-residents
1968	23,600	22,300	1,300
1969	54,800	49,800	5,000
1970	86,600	76,000	10,600

1971	126,800	94,600	32,200
1972	159,900	108,600	51,300
1973	167,200	110,600	56,600

1974	163,100	109,400	53,700
1975	140,500	106,200	33,900
1976	127,900	101,000	26,900

1977	133,000	102,250	30,750

Most of these abortions were carried out on women from France, West Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands, Italy, Spain and Ireland. Abortions were carried out on about 130,000 French women between 1968 and 1977 in the United Kingdom. The number increased sharply especially after 1970, but there was then a sharp fall after the change in the French law; the number fell from 36,500 in 1975 to 4,500 in 1976.

So far as can be ascertained from the British statistics, abortions have been carried out in the United Kingdom on about 65,000 West German women since 1968. The number of German women increased until 1973, but subsequently the numbers fell, largely because of the increased opportunities for abortions in the Netherlands.

¹Source: Abortions carried out in 1977. Report of the Permanent registry of patients from the Netherlands and neighbouring countries. Stimezo, NL, 1978
Ne.-lhw.-/ijt PE 67.021/c/fin.

Abortions have been carried out on some 10,000 Belgian and Luxembourg women in the United Kingdom since 1968. The number of Belgian women fell after 1972, also because of the Dutch situation. In the period from 1968 to 1972 abortions were carried out on some 2,000 Dutch women in the United Kingdom, but after 1972 the numbers dropped sharply. In recent years there has been a sharp increase in the number of abortions carried out on Italian and Spanish women. The number of abortions carried out on Spanish women doubled between 1974 and 1976 to about 6,000 per year and quadrupled in the case of Italian women: from 1800 in 1974 to 8,000 in 1976. Finally, there is a steady stream of Irishwomen to England, although the precise number is unknown.

Despite the very strict legislation, since the early 1970's a very large number of abortions have been carried out in the Netherlands. 90% of all operations are carried out in private clinics. The following table shows the operations performed on Dutch and non-Dutch women;

Abortion in the Netherlands (Source: Stimezo 1980)

<u>Nationality of the patient</u>	1975	1978	1979
Netherlands	11,000	15,200	16,600
West Germany	61,000	42,000	32,000
France	9,000	0	0
Belgium/Luxembourg	12,000	7,900	7,500
Others	2,000	2,100	1,900

The number of operations performed on Dutch women is quite small compared with those on foreign women. The number of West German women seeking help is very high although it has declined sharply since 1975 when abortion was legalized in West Germany. The same is true of abortions carried out on French women, where the number was very high until 1975 but declined sharply after the change in French law. The number of abortions carried out on Belgian and Luxembourg women is also gradually declining because in Brussels and the French-speaking part of Belgium an increasing number of doctors are prepared to carry out abortions either in ordinary hospitals or in special abortion clinics.

The number of Flemish women coming to the Netherlands for abortions remains very high, and finally, a few thousand Spanish and Italian women come to the Netherlands every year. The number of Italian women is declining slightly and the number of Spanish women increasing.

With regard to the number of Dutch women undergoing abortions, it should be noted that the proportion from the ethnic minorities is relatively high.

The following observations may be made on the international aspects on the problem of abortion:

- in some cases, women seeking help abroad come from countries where abortion is illegal and where very few doctors are prepared to carry out this operation.

- women also come from countries where abortion is legal but where a fairly large number of doctors still refuse to carry out this operation,
- the countries with liberal legislation and/or liberal practice largely solve the problem of other countries,
- the service offered to foreign women is very selective. For women from the lower income groups who are unable to pay the travelling, hotel and treatment costs, such help is inaccessible. They must choose between an unwanted birth or an illegal abortion. It is very difficult for the British and Dutch medical services to determine whether foreign women could be helped in a different way. They have no knowledge of the social background of the women involved.
- it is also difficult for the British and the Dutch medical services to provide medical or social follow-up treatment for these women. After their operation, many women are more or less left to their fate.

We must ask ourselves whether such a situation, which affects thousands of European women each year, can be regarded as acceptable within the European Community.

These abortion figures not only illustrate in particular the varying legislation and the varying practices in the individual Member States, they also demonstrate the lack of a proper contraception policy and the lack of an appropriate social policy.

10.3. Prevention of breast cancer and cancer of the cervix

Cancer affects an increasing number of people. It is generally estimated that one in every four deaths in the Western world is caused by cancerous growths of one kind or another.

Some types of cancer, however, only affect women: breast cancer and cancer of the cervix. The incidence of these two types is very high. In the Netherlands, some 20% of cancer deaths in women are caused by breast cancer and some 10% by cancer of the cervix. These two forms of cancer are the most widespread cause of death for women under the age of 65¹.

Recent research undertaken in the Netherlands shows that breast cancer and cancer of the cervix are not found to the same extent everywhere. In some areas, there is a higher frequency and mortality rate than in others². The same is true, moreover, of a number of other forms of cancer. The reason for these variations in distribution is not entirely clear. It is well-known that prevention of these two forms of cancer is more effective in one area than in another.

Prevention is most important in the case of breast cancer and cancer of the cervix. Although these two forms of cancer claim many victims, in the case of both breast cancer and cancer of the cervix the patient has a better than 50-50 chance of survival if the condition is diagnosed in good time. But that largely depends on women being made properly aware of the first symptoms which might indicate the presence of a cancer. Appropriate information and regular medical check-ups are very important. In some Member States information campaigns have been organized to inform women of the nature of such cancers and how to prevent them. In many cases women's organizations have been instrumental in such campaigns. It is striking that where women are given the opportunity of regular medical examinations, the numbers attending have been very high. There is clearly a need for such screening.

Sources:

1. Cancer: Morbidity and mortality, 1975 - 1976, Central Statistical Office/Medical Records Foundation, Government Printing Office, Netherlands, 1979.
2. Atlas of cancer deaths in the Netherlands, 1969 - 1978, Central Statistical Office/Medical Records Foundation, Government Printing Office, Netherlands, 1980.
3. Women and health: Note in preparation for the UN World Conference in Copenhagen, Ministry of Cultural Affairs, Recreation and Social Work, Rijswijk, Netherlands, 1979.

10.4. Excessive consumption of tranquillizers and alcohol

All research demonstrates that women utilize the medical services more frequently than men. This is partly due to the fact that women consult their doctors for contraceptive advice and attend pre-natal and post-natal clinics. Similarly, mothers usually accompany their children when they need medical care. Even if we leave such consultations out of account, it is still true that women seek medical help far more frequently than men.

A very large number of these women exhibit a specific pattern of complaints: vague pains, fatigue, nervousness, poor sleep and undefined anxiety are the causes of frequent visits to the doctor. This pattern of complaints is particularly striking in the case of housewives and is therefore called the 'housewives' syndrome'. These complaints largely stem from the dissatisfaction felt by the women involved with the role imposed upon them and their inability to do anything to change their situation.

Family doctors frequently treat these complaints from a strictly medical point of view and do not recognize their true nature. This in turn leads to the situation where the women themselves regard their problems as medical problems: the cause is not removed, the complaints remain. In order to alleviate these complaints the doctors then prescribe tranquillizers. Pharmaceutical research demonstrates that women use tranquillizers (sedatives and sleeping pills) more than men. The situation described above is responsible for this excessive consumption.

Long-term use of certain sedatives and sleeping tablets results ultimately in addiction. This type of addiction also occurs more frequently in women than in men.

In recent years consumption of alcohol by women has also increased sharply. In contrast with men, women drink more throughout the day and drink more frequently on their own. The increase in the consumption of alcohol has the same cause as the use of tranquillizers. The impression is that those who do not visit the medical services with their complaints and thus do not use sedatives go on to alcohol to drink away their feelings of dissatisfaction.

In recent years women's organizations have paid much more attention to the housewives' syndrome and the allied abuse of sedatives and alcohol. Attempts have been made to give these women a better understanding of the real reasons for their complaints by organizing discussion groups, and similar attempts have been made to discuss with these women how they can change their lives for the better.

In this context, the major problem is that women who for years have cared fulltime for their families are frequently unwelcome on the labour market so that the practical possibilities of, for example, changing their employment position are very limited.

10.5. The increase in violence against women

In recent years there have been an increasing number of cases of violence against women. Most are committed by husbands on their wives. This is probably not a new phenomenon for the impression is that there have always been cases of husbands ill-treating their wives, but that the social code of hushing up this kind of violence is now being broken to an increasing extent. Women are making their problems public in ever greater numbers.

For a number of years now, reception centres have been set up in various Member States where women who are being regularly ill-treated may find a refuge with their children away from their family home. The fact that such centres are permanently oversubscribed demonstrates that they are catering for a widespread need.

It is striking that the local and national authorities are very reticent about providing support for these centres. Frequently they are run by volunteers who not only give their services free but are also required to bear the financial cost of running such reception centres.

Very little research has been carried out into the scale and nature of ill-treatment within marriage although recently regular reports have been published by the reception centres to give more information on the background to this type of violence. The principal cause, say the reports, must be sought in the deeply-rooted attitude of a social structure where the one group dominates the other. Such a structure results in a specific balance of power not only in society but also in the family where this balance of power frequently requires the woman to act in accordance with the wishes of the husband. If the woman does not do so to the total or partial satisfaction of her husband, conflicts arise which, in certain situations, can result in violence. Mental and social tensions increase the possibility of acts of violence being committed. Ill-treatment within the family does not only occur in the lower social classes as is frequently presumed. The women who seek shelter in the reception centres come from all strata of society.

In recent years, much attention has been paid to assault and rape, in particular because women's organizations have discussed this subject more frequently and hence made this matter, which until very recently was largely taboo, a proper subject for discussion. The role of the police

and the courts with respect to the notification and treatment of these types of violence has been heavily criticized. The judicial authorities are accused of frequently being very tolerant towards the assailant, while the women are frequently accused of having encouraged this form of violence. The number of complaints is very small in relation to the number of acts of violence of this nature, as recent publications show. Many women fail to make an official complaint because they are afraid of their assailant who is frequently a member of the family or a friend, or because they do not trust the police or the courts. Another important factor is the strong sense of shame.

It also seems to be the case that assault and rape not only occur outside marriage but also within marital relations. Reports from reception centres for battered women state that assault and rape are frequently part of the pattern of ill-treatment within marriage.

In recent years special groups of volunteers have been set up within the women's movement to give moral and physical support to women who have been the victims of ill-treatment, assault and rape during its notification and further judicial treatment. In a number of Member States such support has led to sensational court cases in which heavier sentences than in the past have been handed down. As a result of the trials and the attendant publicity, the number of complaints has increased significantly in recent months.

10.6. Protective employment legislation

National and Community legislation to protect employees in certain types of work such as night shifts and work with dangerous substances in some cases lays down different provisions for men and women, largely to give extra protection for women employees. In most cases the protection of women workers is linked to their reproductive function, for example in the case of jobs involving dangerous substances or radiation; in some cases, moral standards are applied, for example in the case of night shifts, and in some cases women's lesser muscular strength is behind protective legislation.

Since it has been shown in practice that such protective legislation may seriously weaken women's position in certain employment sectors, there have been an increasing number of moves to study this legislation very carefully and, wherever possible, to abolish it. An exception to this rule is made in the case of protective legislation concerning women's reproductive function and maternity¹. At present the Commission is drawing up a document concerning this matter. Consequently, in this report a few observations of principle will suffice:

¹ Health and Safety Legislation, Equal Opportunities Commission, United Kingdom, March 1979

- In a number of cases, extra protection for women may be very desirable: For example, in the case of pregnant women working with dangerous substances or dangerous radiation. Such legislation should, therefore, not be abolished.
- Extra protection for women because of their reproductive function must be critically assessed. Little account is taken of the fact that men, too, may suffer harmful effects which may affect their progeny. The effect of chemical defoliants has been the subject of much research. A better balance in this protective legislation - both with respect to male and female employees - is urgently required.
- Protective legislation drawn up on moral grounds, for example a ban on women working a night shift in certain employment sectors, results in the group at risk being excluded from that employment sector while the threatening group obtains the exclusive right to the employment in question. Such legislation encourages a faulty way of thinking and harms rather than protects women.
- The exclusion of women from certain jobs because of their lack of muscular strength is not very realistic. In this sphere there is such a large difference between individual men and between individual women that it would be more appropriate to lay down specific physical requirements for certain employment sectors with which both men and women would have to comply.

10.7. Conclusions and proposals to improve the position of women in the field of health care

- Although women's life expectancy in the European Community is higher than that of men, women suffer from a number of specific health problems, caused particularly by their restricted and subordinate role in society, which can adversely affect the quality of their lives.
- The availability of means of contraception has enabled a large number of women to decide for themselves how many children they will bear and the age at which they will bear them, and this has made their position considerably less vulnerable and uncertain in general, and on the labour market in particular. It must, however, unfortunately be noted that there are still some regions, for example, in Ireland and Italy, where women find it very difficult to obtain contraceptives, and for certain groups of women, such as unmarried women, divorcees and widows, contraceptives are not always freely available. An enquiry should be instituted to ascertain whether action by the European Community could lead to a situation where all women in Europe acquire the same rights in this matter.

- Although the number of unwanted pregnancies and abortions has declined considerably with the availability of means of contraception, it must be noted that a very large number of abortions are still being carried out in the Community. Available statistics show that regulations governing abortion vary so much from one Member State to another that each year thousands of women travel abroad to secure the help which is not available in their own country. Is such a situation acceptable in the European Community?
- The Commission should set up an enquiry in this connection into the availability of contraceptives and measures to restrict the number of unwanted births and abortion, such as :
 - early and adequate information for young people,
 - easy availability of the means of contraception,
 - extra attention for vulnerable groups such as young girls, unmarried mothers, mothers of large families, women at the change of life and the wives of immigrant workers,
 - the protection of the employment position of pregnant women and young mothers and the availability of a system of family leave of absence to enable parents to share the tasks of caring for and bringing up their children,
 - financial support for parents by a system of social provisions and tax relief, with extra measures to benefit single parents and parents of large families,
 - the availability of day nurseries and child-care centres,
 and submit a report at an early date to the parliamentary committees most involved.
- In cases where preventive methods have failed and positive methods are not available on a sufficient scale, women in all the Member States of the Community should be able to rely on sufficient legal scope for adequate medical and social help to terminate an unwanted pregnancy so that emergency travel abroad, which makes any kind of medical and social follow-up treatment virtually impossible and which leads to an unacceptable commercialization of the situation, is rendered unnecessary as far as possible.
- In some countries of the Community, certain types of cancer, especially breast cancer and cancer of the cervix, constitute the largest single cause of death in women under 65. Recent research in the Netherlands has shown that the incidence of these forms of cancer is not the same in every region and that there are more victims in some areas than others. This raises questions concerning preventive and curative measures for these types of cancer, especially since patients suffering from these

forms of cancer have a good chance of survival if the condition is discovered and treated in good time. The Commission should take urgent steps to set up an enquiry into the nature and scale of breast cancer and cancer of the cervix and into the availability of preventive and curative measures in each region.

- Women apparently make more frequent use of medical services than men, and a relatively large number of women demonstrate a specific pattern of complaints referred to as the 'housewives' syndrome'. These complaints, which are frequently treated in vain with tranquillizers, are caused by the dissatisfaction of large numbers of women with 'the role imposed upon them. The increase in alcohol consumption by such women frequently has the same origin. It is vital that the true nature of this pattern of complaints is recognized and that appropriate social measures are taken to prevent the excessive consumption of tranquillizers and alcohol, which leads to addiction. The Community should set up urgent research into the nature, scale and effects of these phenomena.

- Employment legislation in the various Member States of the Community provides for a system of measures to protect women against the harmful effects of certain types of work. In some cases these measures are unnecessary and can even adversely affect women's position on the employment market. The Commission should conclude its research into this legislation in the various Member States as quickly as possible and submit to Parliament suitable proposals to improve, adjust and harmonize this legislation.

11. Improving the legal status of women

Historical and cultural developments in the countries of the European Community have resulted in an imbalance between men and women citizens. This imbalance is reflected in legislation in the Member States which in some cases contain regulations or provisions which adversely affect or discriminate against women.

11.1. National legislation which adversely affects or discriminates against women¹

In a number of countries, measures have been taken to examine laws and provisions which distinguish between men and women to the advantage of men and the disadvantage of women. In some cases, national emancipation committees are involved (for example, the Equal Opportunities Commission in the United Kingdom), in other countries the government has

¹ The legal status of women in the European Community, Working Document No.2 for the Ad Hoc Committee on Women's Rights, rapporteur: Mrs May-Weggen.

instituted an enquiry (Netherlands) or national women's organizations have begun doing so (Belgium)¹.

In every case, it appeared that legal discrimination was much more extensive than had initially been thought, especially in those Member States where the principle of equality of men and women was not enshrined in the constitution.

The lists available show that discrimination occurs in virtually every legal sector, in public law, civil law, criminal law, commercial law, fiscal law and in legislation relating to social security. In many cases discrimination is made simply on grounds of sex but in some cases also on the specific social status which the woman acquires on marriage. In such cases the legislation lays down a system whereby the rights of the married man are extended on marriage whereas the rights of the woman are restricted on marriage. This unequal legal allocation is largely the result of the prevalent traditional concept that the man is the head of the family.

Since it is virtually impossible to give a complete summary in this report of all discriminatory legal provisions in the Member States, a few striking examples of legal inequality will suffice:

- Civil law: On marriage, in almost all the Member States, women lose the right to use their own maiden name and are more or less obliged to use their husband's family name from the date of marriage. In almost all of the Member States, women who marry a foreigner also lose their nationality, unless they submit a special request to retain their original nationality. Children born to parents of different nationalities virtually always take their father's nationality, although in virtually every case it is the mother who takes responsibility for the care and upbringing of the children.
- Parental authority in the legal sense is frequently vested exclusively in the father. In the case of disagreements concerning upbringing, choice of school or employment, the father's view is usually decisive, although in many cases the mother is much more closely involved in the upbringing and supervision of the children. Frequently, the father is also in complete control of the children's property.

¹ 'Different provisions apply', a list of laws, etc., in which a distinction is drawn between men and women, married and unmarried, Ministry for Cultural Affairs, Recreation and Social Work, Netherlands, Government Printing Office, 1978.

- 'The position of women in Belgian law and social security', Women's organization of the PCS, Brussels, December 1979.

- Commercial law : Although the legal capacity of married women in commercial matters is now recognized in all the Member States, a few minor exceptions to this principle in existing and customary commercial law are still to be found. For example, a married woman frequently does not have the same rights as a man in obtaining bank loans, mortgages and others forms of financial credit. In many countries the husband's agreement is required for the conclusion of a loan, even if the woman is earning the same income from her own employment. On the other hand, the husband never requires his wife's agreement when arranging loan facilities. This state of affairs can seriously restrict the independent position of, for example, a married businesswoman or even make it impossible for her to carry on a business.
- Fiscal law : In some countries the custom is to take the total income of husband and wife into account for tax purposes, the wife's income being added to the husband's. The financial obligations of a married woman are seriously aggravated by this regulation to the benefit of the national treasury. Such a regulation affects the independent economic position of women and can make them particularly vulnerable vis-à-vis commercial partners, credit institutions and the like,
- Social security legislation : pensions paid to men are as a rule transferable to the surviving spouse, but pensions paid to women are generally not transferrable to the surviving spouse. This legal inequality is found in almost all the Member States and it is particularly regrettable that the Community directive on equal treatment in the field of social security has not abolished this injustice to both men and women (see points 5 and 6).

These examples are only the tip of the iceberg of legal injustice. Although the incidental discrimination may frequently seem small, the total of discriminatory provisions results in the legal status of women being much inferior to that of men.

11.2. United Nations' measures to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women¹

Since the late 1940's, the United Nations has been involved in improving the legal status of women. This led to the adoption and institution of a number of conventions designed to improve the specific rights of women, such as the Convention on the Political Rights of Women (1952), the Convention on the Nationality of Married Women (1957) and the Convention on Consent to Marriage, Age and Registration of Marriages (1962).

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The motivating force behind these conventions was the special UN Commission on the Legal Status of Women.

In 1972 the Commission on the Legal Status of Women asked the United Nations' Secretary-General to approach the Member States about the possibilities of instituting a general convention to eliminate legal discrimination against women. In the light of the answers received from a large number of governments, the Commission began work in 1974 on the text of a draft Convention, and the final draft was submitted to the United Nations General Assembly in New York in 1977. In 1977, 1978 and 1979 the General Assembly set up a special working party to consider the draft Convention, and late in 1979 the final text was adopted by a large majority of the General Assembly, including all nine Member States of the European Community.

In March 1980, on the basis of a motion for a resolution signed by all the political groups, the European Parliament affirmed the importance of this convention, at the same time appealing to all the Member States of the European Community to sign and ratify this Convention as soon as possible¹. In July 1980, during the UN World Conference on Women in the World, this Convention was open for signature and more than 50 UN countries, including seven Member States of the European Community, utilized this occasion to do so. Only the United Kingdom and Ireland did not sign the Convention. Formal legal reasons prevented Ireland from so doing, while the United Kingdom had doubts about the substance of the Convention.

11.3. Conclusions and proposals to improve the legal status of women

General legislation in the Member States of the European Community contains a number of provisions which adversely affect women or discriminate against them. The Commission, in conjunction with the Council, should be requested to arrange an enquiry into all national legislative texts which adversely affect women or discriminate against them and to submit a report on the subject to the appropriate committees of the European Parliament at an early date so that measures can be proposed to abolish all forms of legal discrimination against women in Europe.

¹ Motion for a resolution on the urgent signing and ratification of the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, Doc. PE 64.031/rev. of 11 March 1980.

The UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against women, which was broadly supported in March 1980 by the European Parliament, was signed in July 1980 in Copenhagen by 7 of the 9 Member States of the European Community. The Commission should urge the United Kingdom and Ireland to sign this Convention and also encourage all the Member States of the Community to ratify this important Convention as soon as possible.

12. The improvement of the social and legal position of vulnerable groups of women

The elimination of national and Community legislation which adversely affects women or discriminates against them can considerably improve the legal status of women. The Ad Hoc Committee feels, however, that some groups of women require extra protection and support because of their vulnerable position. This is true in particular of immigrant women, women working in family businesses and women in thinly-populated rural areas.

12.1. The position of immigrant women¹

Female immigrants can be divided into different categories :

- Those who were brought to Western Europe in the 1960's in order to overcome the shortage of labour (e.g , Spanish and Yugoslav women).
- Those who came to Western Europe in the 1960's, or later, in order to join their immigrant husbands and so reunite the family. This group includes many nationalities, such as Italian, Spanish, Turkish, Greek, Tunisian, Moroccan women, etc.
- Women who left the former colonies with their families in order to settle in their home country. In the United Kingdom, these women come mainly from India and Pakistan, in France from North Africa and South-East Asia, and in the Netherlands from Indonesia and Surinam.

Despite cultural and individual differences, these immigrant women have a number of points in common :

- the majority did not emigrate because they wished to do so, but for compelling economic, political or family reasons,
- in many cases they were suddenly transferred from one culture to another,
- they often belonged to the poorest social classes in their country,
- they had little schooling, and, in a number of cases, were even illiterate.

¹ See Working Document No. 3 for the Ad Hoc Committee on Women's Rights, Section B, on the position of immigrant women in the Member States of the European Community, Rapporteur : Mrs Maij-Weggen

Most immigrants come to Europe with the intention of returning one day to their own country. However, after 10 to 20 years, it becomes clear that this is scarcely possible any longer. The fact that the return is constantly postponed and finally abandoned has a considerable impact on the woman's position. On the one hand she is expected to retain, respect and pass on to her children the customs and culture of her country of origin, and on the other hand she is almost immediately required to adapt to those of her new country of residence. As a result of this ambivalent situation, many immigrant women have to overcome their cultural disintegration which makes them feel insecure and isolated. The medical services, therefore, have to deal with a growing number of patients from this group with severe psychosomatic complaints. This group of poorly integrated, ignorant women also have the highest rate of unwanted pregnancies and abortions. The legal position of these women is often very weak. In cases where the husband is employed and therefore enjoys officially recognized status, her position in the country of residence is usually completely dependent upon his. If the husband is not officially employed and works illegally (a frequent occurrence), the woman and her family are in a very precarious position. If marital or family problems occur, women must frequently rely upon the different and sometimes contradictory legislations of the country of residence and the country of origin. Consequently, they often get the worst of the situation and are sent back to their countries where, in the case of divorce, they are often relegated to the margins of society.

If immigrant women work outside the home they usually find themselves assigned to a poorly-paid occupation involving heavy or dirty work under poor working conditions. Lack of education coupled with language problems usually prevents them from obtaining alternative employment. In addition, employers may take advantage of their ignorance, so that their wages are extra low and their working conditions and social facilities particularly unfavourable in comparison with nationals of the country concerned. The incidence of industrial accidents and occupational disease is particularly high for immigrant women.

Since this group is generally cut off from any form of participation in society (for example, trade unions or migrant worker organizations) or political participation (for example, the right to vote in district or local elections), they are able to do little or nothing to change the situation in which they find themselves and are dependent upon the goodwill and understanding of others.

Immigrant families often live in accommodation of a much poorer standard than that of the average family, frequently dwelling in the most impoverished quarters of big cities, where their housing is too cramped and lacks proper sanitation. Moreover, the rent is often excessive. When seeking better lodgings in a mixed area, an immigrant family may come up against xenophobia and racism. These factors consolidate the formation of ghettos in which these groups live.

In recent years, an increasing number of private organizations in particular has drawn attention to the serious problems facing this vulnerable group. Women's organizations, trade unions and religious organizations have set up projects in various Member States to improve the position of these women. In some cases, immigrant women are also becoming organized and are applying to the authorities for additional help. The European Community should be able to make a significant contribution in this respect, especially by helping to improve the social and legal status of these women.

Western European women who have married immigrant workers have to contend with special problems. This group is much larger than is frequently assumed. In the Federal Republic of Germany, for example, there are some 300,000 women in this position. These women are often expected to adapt to the culture and customs of a foreign husband, a process which is fraught with problems and frequently ends in divorce. Their children often bear the name and nationality of the husband so, in the case of divorce, there is no legal obstacle to these children being returned to the husband's country of origin to be brought up by their grandparents or other members of the husband's family. In this way, Western European mothers frequently lose their children whom they never see again. Not only is this bad for the children themselves, but it causes immense suffering to the Western European mothers.

12.2. The position of women working in family businesses¹

In the European Community a large number of women work in small and medium-sized undertakings. Some of these women in this employment sector have independent professional status, for example, as head of the undertaking or employee. On the other hand, a larger number work as members of the family without any professional status. These are usually farmers' wives.

¹ - Working Documents by the Ad Hoc Committee on Womens' Rights, No.14 by Mrs Martin; No.16 by Mrs Lizin; No.41 by Mrs Fullet and No.56 by Mrs Lenz
- Note by the Women's Committee of COPA for the European seminar on the situation of women farmers in the Member States of the European Community. Doc PE 66.228, dated June 1980.

A recent study on the position of farmers' wives in the Member States of the European Community has given a better illustration of the number of wives working on family farms and of their employment position¹. In West Germany, for example, some 1.5 million women are employed in agriculture, and 86,000 are also head of the farm. Of the remainder, a very large number work on the family farm. In France, some 1.2 million women are employed in agriculture, of whom 110,600 are farmers and 26,600 gainfully employed. The remainder, roughly 1 million, work on the family farm. In the United Kingdom there are 110,000 women employed in agriculture, of whom 70,000 work on the family farm. Some 40,000 women are employed as seasonal workers. No reliable figures are available for the number of women farmers. In Denmark some 34,000 women are employed in agriculture, of whom 27,000 work on the family farm, and in the Netherlands some 18,000 women are employed in this sector, of whom 11,000 work on the family farm. Finally, in Italy some 690,000 women work in the agricultural sector, of whom 300,000 work on the family farm.

These statistics show the number of women who have no official employment status because they work on family farms is particularly large. Little information is available on the number of women working in other small and medium-sized undertakings such as family businesses. However, we may assume that millions of women are so employed without their status being officially recognized as such. This category faces a number of specific problems such as the lack of official occupational status and independent income, the absence of regulations on working hours and the dual work burden, poor social security provisions and the lack of replacements, and problems concerning vocational training.

The lack of official occupational status and the lack of an independent income

Although women working in family businesses work an average 45-hour week in an occupational capacity, in many cases they have no official occupational status. Frequently, these women carry out clerical duties, the management and book-keeping of the business and they sign with their husbands when loans are contracted. In addition, these women do a number of other specific tasks and in busy periods they are called on to undertake extra work. Nonetheless, these women may not represent their business on any authority, they do not share in the finances of the business and they receive no independent salary. In the case of divorce or succession on the decease of their spouse who was head of the business, the position of these women can be particularly vulnerable. Only a few Member States have specific forms of legal protection for such situations, notably

¹ 'The position of farmers' wives in the Member States of the European Community' - a study drawn up by the Agricultural High School, Wageningen, for the Commission of the European Communities, Brussels, February 1979

West Germany and France.

The lack of regulations on working hours and dual burden of work :

Research shows that the average number of hours worked by such women in the business is very high: in West Germany it amounts to 43.4 - 47.4 hours per work, in France 42 - 45 hours per week and in the United Kingdom about 38 hours per week¹. In general this group has no properly fixed working hours because family duties must also be carried out. In most cases, the woman attempts to gear family duties and occupational duties as far as possible to each other. A 10-12 hour working day, often for 7 days a week, is, however, no exception.

¹ 'The position of farmers' wives in the Member States of the European Community', a study drawn up by the Agricultural High School, Wageningen, for the Commission of the European Communities. Brussels, February 1979

If the profits of a business are too low, in many cases the wife is asked to undertake work in place of paid staff. Similarly, in busy working periods, the head of the business asks his wife to help. Although many women like to work in their own business, in many instances it leads to their being overburdened.

Poor social security provisions and lack of a replacement:

Most women working in family businesses are not regarded as being gainfully employed and therefore are regarded as being housewives for the purposes of social security.

Consequently, most social security provisions do not apply to her personally and that makes this category particularly vulnerable. In many cases there are no provisions for pregnancy or maternity benefits, for sickness or invalidity payments. Similarly, in a number of countries this group of women is not entitled to an old-age or widow's pension.

One of the major problems in the daily working life of this group, however, is the lack of a replacement. In many cases these women cannot take sick leave or pre-natal or post-natal leave. Attendance at vocational training courses or participation in professional organizations is frequently impossible without causing difficulties for the business or the family. It is particularly the periods of maternity which constitute a problem because they generally coincide with a period when the business is being set up, times when the financial situation is the most precarious and no extra financial burden can be tolerated. The same is true for professional training courses which, after all, are particularly important when a business is being set up.

Problems concerning professional training:

Developments in modern business life, even in the small and medium-sized undertakings, entail regular adjustments being made to production methods, bookkeeping and management methods. This requires regular retraining and additional training for all those involved in the business. It is particularly important that the woman working in the family business should also attend these training courses. However, women find a number of obstacles to attendance at such courses. In some cases the woman is insufficiently aware of the important role she plays in her husband's business and finds it unnecessary to attend professional training courses. More frequently, however, financial obstacles and the lack of time are important factors. The attitude of professional organizations is particularly important in this connection because the courses are frequently run by these organizations.

It can never be emphasized enough just how important is the role of professional organizations in solving the problems of the woman working in small and medium-sized family undertakings either in business or in agriculture. Often, however, these women do not participate sufficiently in the work of the professional organizations with the result that in their turn such organizations pay insufficient attention to the specific problems of this category. Women's

committees of such professional organizations could frequently play a particularly positive and complementary role in this connection. In many areas where improvements have been made, such women's committees or women's organizations were the driving force behind the changes. In the recent seminar held by the Women's Committee of COPA (Committee of Agricultural Organizations on the position of farmers' wives in the Member States of the European Community (held in Rome in June 1980), sensible proposals were drawn up to improve the position of women working in family businesses, especially in the agricultural sector. These proposals constitute a sound basis for a specific policy of the European Community to improve the position of this category and similar categories.

12.3. The position of women in remote rural areas

A third category requiring extra support, especially from the European Community, is that of women living in remote rural areas. All research shows that these women are particularly liable to be passed over and discriminated against, especially in the field of employment and education.

The lack of employment opportunities and the likelihood of being unemployed are much greater in these areas than elsewhere. And it is specifically women who are hit hardest. A relatively large number of women and girls are employed in these regions in families or in family businesses, either in agriculture or else in commerce. In many cases they do not receive proper incomes, and the customary working conditions and social security provisions do not apply. Research shows that the Community directive to improve the position of women at work, the directive on equal pay and the directive on equal treatment are respected least of all specifically in these areas.

Educational opportunities for girls and women in these areas are more restricted than elsewhere. In a comparatively large number of cases, they leave school early, often because they are called upon to help out in the family or the family business. Because educational provisions in these areas are frequently scanty, the likelihood of girls in particular receiving a one-sided and restricted education is high. Parents are more prepared to send their sons to distant educational institutions than their daughters. This applies particularly to intermediate and higher vocational training courses. The number of girls in remote rural areas who do not proceed beyond primary education and a few years in domestic school is extremely high. Women who in later years wish to receive some additional vocational training often have to make do with correspondence courses or educational courses via the radio or television. The latter appear to be very popular with women in such areas, especially when they broadcast educational programmes.

Since 1972, special subsidies have been available under the European Social Fund for projects concerning women living in remote areas who wish to return to work after raising a family (see point 5.5.). It is striking that very few requests have been received for these subsidies and that the regions

involved preferred to set up different projects. The impression is that the women in these regions were insufficiently aware of the possibilities of special subsidies. It is most important particularly in these areas that local women's organizations are involved in this kind of programmes and projects. They have outstanding knowledge of the specific needs and potential of the women in their own areas. It seems eminently desirable to repeat this project as part of the regional and social policy so that women in such areas may be involved as far as possible.

12.4. Conclusions and proposals to improve the position of immigrant women, women working in family businesses and women in remote rural areas

- Immigrant women are a particularly vulnerable group in the European Community with a weak legal and social position. The social and cultural integration of these women is often much more difficult than that of immigrant men and immigrant children. At work, these women usually undertake the lowest-category and dirty jobs. There is a great lack of education and training in this group, and illiteracy is still prevalent. Immigrant women are more vulnerable than local inhabitants as regards psychosomatic illnesses, industrial accidents, occupational diseases, unwanted pregnancies and abortions. They are hit harder than local citizens by poor accommodation and the threat of poverty.
- The European Community, which has always encouraged free movement of workers and their families, bears a particular responsibility for this group. A European Social Statute for these women would be an important step towards an improvement in their precarious position. The following rights should be embodied therein:
 - the right to independent legal status in the host country,
 - the right to proper housing in the host country on the same terms as the indigenous population,
 - the right to training and education in the language and culture of the host country,
 - the right to retraining and additional training for a suitable occupation,
 - the right to well-paid work, with all the normal working conditions and social provisions and extra protection against any form of exploitation in the working environment,
 - the right to additional medical guidance, particularly as regards contraception, pregnancy and maternity, with prior consideration for cultural conceptions of physical integrity,
 - the right to take part in local and municipal elections after a certain period of residence in the host country,
 - the right to facilities for maintaining contacts with compatriots and to support for the organization of their own women's groups,
 - the right to facilities for maintaining sound links with the population, language and culture of the country of origin so as to facilitate proper social reintegration in the case of their return to the country of origin,

- appropriate protection against illegal immigrant practices, illegal employment and illegal housing by means of an effective preventive policy.

The Commission should draft a statute of this nature, possibly in the form of a general statute for foreign workers or immigrants, as soon as possible and submit it to the appropriate parliamentary committees.

- The Commission's attention should also be drawn to the difficult situation facing women from the European Community who are married to foreign workers and are unable to transfer their nationality to their children, as a result of which, in the event of divorce the children automatically belong to the father and may be taken away to the father's country of origin without any formalities. The Commission should institute an enquiry into the extent of these problems and consider whether a European arrangement should be drawn up to make such practices a thing of the past.
- Millions of women in the European Communities are employed in family businesses in small and medium-sized undertakings without being recognized as such. These women make a significant contribution to the national and Community economies, for example in agriculture. This group faces a large number of specific problems such as the lack of a specific occupational status and an independent income, haphazard arrangements on working hours and the dual burden of work, poor social security provisions and the lack of replacement in the case of pregnancy, maternity, illness and incapacity for work, and inadequate opportunities to follow specific professional training courses. The important role played by the professional organizations involved, especially by their women's committees, in solving the problems of women employed in small and medium-sized family businesses cannot be overemphasized.
- The Commission should draw up at an early date, and in cooperation with these organizations, a European Social Statute regulating more efficiently the legal, financial and social position of this group on the basis of the following principles:
 - the right for women employed in family businesses to have their occupational status recognized,
 - the right to legal and financial participation on an equal footing with the man in the business where they are employed as a member of the family,
 - the right to training and education in specific aspects of the business concerned in order to acquire the necessary professional skills,
 - the right to full participation in specialized professional organizations at all administrative levels,
 - the right to a fair system of social provisions, particularly as regards family and business assistance during the last six weeks of pregnancy and the first eight weeks of maternity,
 - the right to replacement in the family and business during illness and the right to financial support and replacement in the event of incapacity for work such as disablement or a long illness,

- the right to a fair amount of leave and the right to a separate old-age pension.

A statute of this nature should be submitted as soon as possible to the appropriate parliamentary committees.

Research shows that women in remote rural areas are particularly liable to be passed over and discriminated against, especially in the field of employment and education. The Commission should take measures under the European regional and social policy to improve the position of these women such as:

- the development of adequate employment opportunities, especially for women, and guarantees as regards full incomes and social provisions,
- ample information on the two existing Community directives on the improvement of the employment position of women and additional supervision and monitoring of the implementation of these directives in such areas,
- investigation into the financial position of girls and young women employed in families and family businesses, and measures to improve their position,
- special consideration for the position of girls in education and measures to reduce the number of early school-leavers and one-sided or restricted school curricula,
- development of good educational facilities within easy reach, particularly for the purpose of vocational training, additional training and retraining,
- improvement of educational facilities provided by radio and television.

13. The position of women in the future Member States: Greece, Spain and Portugal

So far, the European Community has paid little attention to the position of women in the future Member States, Greece, Spain and Portugal. The reports and documents concerning the socio-economic situation in these countries contained nothing concerning the socio-economic participation of women, their contribution to the development of these countries or their specific problems. At the recent UN Conference on Women in the World held in Copenhagen, speeches and national reports demonstrated that although much has been done in these countries to improve the position of women, they are still handicapped in the employment field, in education and in health care.

The Commission should draw up reports as soon as possible on the position of women in Greece, and similarly on the position of women in Spain and Portugal, dealing at least with the following subjects:

- social and economic participation of women,
- the position of women in education,
- the position of women as regards health care,
- the legal status of women, particularly with respect to the three Community directives on equal pay, equal treatment and equality in

- matters of social security,
- the position of vulnerable groups of women such as women in remote rural areas, female migrant workers and women employed in family businesses.

When these reports are drawn up, not only should the national governments be involved but also national women's councils and national committees for the improvement of the position of women.

14. Improvement of the position of women in the developing countries¹.

14.1. Introduction

For several centuries the western world maintained colonial links with many of today's developing countries. The contribution which these colonies made to the welfare of the Western world was many times greater than the Western countries' development aid to the Third and Fourth World countries. Most of developing countries were treated like conquered territories and the indigenous population was also exploited in many different ways during the colonial period. Once they achieved independence, sometimes as a result of amicable negotiations, but generally after long struggles, most lapsed into very bad socio-economic conditions.

In the last few decades, a process of development has been put in motion in many Third and Fourth World countries to improve socio-economic conditions. Western countries have provided modest but increasing development aid. Under the EEC-ACP Convention, the European Community has entered into a number of commitments with 57 countries, mostly former colonies, in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific with respect to commercial, financial and technical and industrial cooperation and commitments with regard to the stabilization of the export revenue of these ACP States (Lomé I and Lomé II). The main emphasis in the development process and in development aid is on scaling-up: increased productivity in agriculture, exploitation of raw materials, industrialization, expanding trade (particularly international trade) and improvement of infrastructures. Improvement in education, health care and housing etc., normally grouped under the heading 'basic needs', frequently takes second place.

Sources:

- 1- Report of the regional preparatory meeting of the Economic Commission of the UN for Africa (Doc. UN/A/Conf.94/7) for the World Conference of the UN Decade for Women, Copenhagen July 1980.

 - Report of the regional preparatory meeting of the Economic Commission of the UN for Latin America (Doc. UN/A/Conf.94/16) for the World Conference of the UN Decade for Women, Copenhagen July 1980
 - Report of the regional preparatory meeting of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (Doc. UN/A/Conf.94/15) for the World Conference of the UN Decade for Women at Copenhagen July 1980.
- 2- 'Women on the march', an anthropological report on the position of women in the developing countries for the World Conference of the UN Decade for Women in Mexico, Postel and Schrijvers, Netherlands 1976.

 - Women in Development: Dependency and Exploitation, June Nash, New York 1977

14.2. Participation by women in social and economic life

14.2.1. Influence of colonial policy

Both before and during the period of colonial rule, the vast majority of the inhabitants of the Third and Fourth World countries lived in small rural communities. Women often had important responsibilities in the economic life of these communities. More often than not, they were responsible for farming and trade. Farming was on a small scale, usually on common land. The produce was earmarked in the first instance to meet the family's own needs, with any surpluses traded or bartered at local or regional markets, or put aside for harder times.

Women were also responsible for looking after the children, the sick and the elderly, as well as for the preparation of food and the production of clothing.

The men spent most of their time hunting and fishing, trading and looking after the livestock, helping with certain jobs on the land, carrying out official and administrative duties and attending to the security of the community. In certain cultures, however, the roles were allocated differently, with men carrying out tasks traditionally done by women and vice-versa. They played a less important role in the traditional economies. The economy was based primarily on the principle of self-sufficiency and on the exchange of goods and services. In many areas of Asia, Africa and Latin America, remnants of these traditional rural economies are still to be found.

Most colonial rulers took too little account of the socio-economic traditions and customs of the indigenous population when administering and exploiting these territories. The rural communities were deprived of land which was then acquired by Western estate owners or came under the control of colonial officials.

As a result of this redistribution of the available land, the indigenous population was often left with only small plots. The colonial administrators usually registered such remaining land in accordance with Western custom under the man's name, regardless of whether it had been communal property beforehand or had belonged to the women in accordance with customary law. The local traditions were respected in only a few cases by the colonial administrators. This process placed women in a disadvantageous or dependent position, which moreover, did not correspond to their responsibilities, particularly for the production of food for the family.

Under the influence of colonial policy, agriculture came to specialize increasingly in commodities destined for export. The native male population was employed at low wages, and money and taxes were introduced. The role of women was gradually reduced. Women came to be regarded as an unreliable work force because of their extensive family duties and the high birth rate. The role of the local and regional markets as centres for the bartering of foodstuffs and consumer goods also diminished. Because land had been taken away from the

rural communities, surplus food production declined and the production of handmade consumer goods also fell as more men became employed in colonial agriculture.

The colonial authorities imported Western consumer goods to meet shortages and established small shops for the native population. These shops increasingly replaced the traditional market in which women had played an important role.

The introduction of money as a means of exchange brought about a division between paid and unpaid work.

Increasingly it was the men who worked for money and the women who were left to do the unpaid work. They grew crops for their own consumption, insofar as that was possible; they looked after the children, the elderly and the sick and did the housework, etc. In Latin America the wives of tenant farmers and agricultural workers were often obliged to help with the extensive housework of the large estate owners. At busy times they also had to help with the harvest, looking after the livestock and with the carding and spinning of wool and cotton. By contractual agreement the landowners were thus able to obtain the unpaid services of the wives of agricultural workers.

The Western missionaries who accompanied the colonial rulers also failed to recognize the importance of the traditional role of women. The Western family model, with the man as the breadwinner and the woman relegated to unpaid household chores and a few social duties consistent with her role, a family model which developed in Europe in the wake of the industrial revolution (see point 1), was held out to the indigenous population as an example of a 'Christian family'. This model fitted in well with the policy of the colonial rulers. Forcing women out of agriculture and commerce was justified on the grounds that women could now devote themselves entirely to their families.

Western influence was not quite so pervasive everywhere. In North Africa and large areas of Asia in particular, the traditional roles of men and women were retained under the influence of religions such as Islam and Hinduism. Moreover, these roles were very different from those traditionally played by men and women in Central and Southern Africa and Latin America. In certain Islamic and Hindu cultures, the role of women is very restricted and they are completely subordinate to the husband and family. It was and still is often not permitted in these cultures for a married woman to go out to work. Whereas, for instance, the market in many Central African and Latin American areas is traditionally the domain of the women, in North Africa and Central Asia (Afghanistan, Iran and Iraq), one seldom even sees a woman in the market let alone engaged in trade.

The restrictive influence of colonial policy on the position of women has not always been accepted without protest. In certain areas women rebelled against their increasing subordination and dependence. In 1929, in what is now Nigeria, Ibo women rebelled and refused to accept the new financial and fiscal legislation proposed by the colonial government which would have adversely affected their position. In the area which is now the Cameroons, Yoruba women successfully protested at the same period against the new socio-economic division of

labour which was being forced upon them. In these West African regions, women still play an important role in agriculture, markets and the retail trade.

In South America, where land was mainly in the hands of large property-owners, women also resisted the introduction of a new division of labour based on Western models. In 1942, women in Bolivia rebelled and demanded proper paid work, for instance in agriculture and the tin mines.

In Mexico, women rebelled on several occasions after 1945 against the disruption of their market system by the introduction of Western-type industrial production by foreign firms and the setting up of small supermarkets. On Java, in Asia, in the 1950's, women repeatedly protested against the introduction of foreign drinks, such as beer and Coca-Cola, and Western delicacies which forced the traditional soft drinks and accompanying rice cakes from the market with the resultant loss of an important source of income for many women.

As a result of their protests, women in a number of Third and Fourth World countries managed to retain some of their influence over agriculture and trade. Especially in the countries of Central and West Africa and in certain South-East Asian countries, women still play an important role in the small-scale economy. In by far the greatest proportion of developing countries, the role of women was nonetheless severely reduced during the period of colonial rule. The woman's role was increasingly restricted to the family, and she lost control over the production of foodstuffs in particular. At the recent UN World Conference in Copenhagen, it was emphasized that poverty and hunger in the world has greatly increased as a result of this trend.

14.2.2. Influence of modern development strategies¹

Modern development strategies have meant increasing cooperation between the new leaders of the Third and Fourth World countries and Western development experts. All too often, however, this involves building on what the colonial system left behind. Usually the aim of development is to increase the gross national product. The main focus of such a policy is on intensifying agricultural production, industrialization, increasing trade, especially international trade, and improving infrastructures. The watchword is large-scale production.

¹Source: Report on employment for the UN World Conference on the 'Decade for Women', Copenhagen, June 1980 (Doc. UN/A/Conf.94/8 rev.I)

As a result, paid employment in particular is dependent on national planning and international recognition and support.

Women who, during the colonial era, were forced into the unpaid employment sector, are frequently ignored by modern development experts, and yet they carry out most of the work which has to be done to hold the fabric of society together in the developing countries: the production and preparation of food for the family's own consumption, caring for children, the sick and the elderly, and looking after household management. Many of these activities are carried out under difficult circumstances, because the most elementary requirements, such as pure water, are frequently lacking. The high birthrate also involves an enormous increase in the burden placed upon them.

In many developing countries there are two separate economic systems: the traditional system based on self-sufficiency, barter and unpaid work, and the modern system linked to the existing international economic order and based on mass production and marketing and paid employment. Women are to be found mainly in the traditional system, whereas men are the first to be called upon to help develop the modern economy.

The development of these modern economies goes hand in hand with a number of negative side-effects which aggravate the position of women: large-scale agricultural production is geared mainly to export. Mechanization is introduced in the struggle to compete, particularly on the international market. This movement toward large-scale production and mechanization reduces the number of jobs available in rural areas and, as a result, many men leave to earn money in other areas. Usually they go to the mining regions where raw materials are extracted or to commercial centres and ports which are also the centres of modern industrial development.

The women who are left behind on the land, are faced with even greater difficulties¹. They are left alone to cope with the burdens and the task of looking after their large families. Many of the jobs which were previously done by their husbands now fall on the women's shoulders. The financial position of the family is insecure and many of the women left behind do not receive money regularly from

¹Report on 'Women in Rural Areas' (Doc. UN/A/Conf. 94/28) for the World Conference of the UN Decade for Women, Copenhagen July 1980.

their absent husbands. Whenever land is still available, many women cultivate small plots in an attempt to provide a regular food supply for their families on the basis of self-sufficiency or go to work on nearby plantations, usually for very low wages. A 16-hour working day is the rule rather than the exception for these women. These 'villages of women' are particularly common in Africa and Asia and the phenomenon is especially widespread in South Africa because of the policy of apartheid. Recent UN reports show that in two-thirds of the developing countries more than 60% of the women still live in remote rural areas, where they still work in accordance with the traditional economic rules using very outdated knowledge and technology.

When the poverty and hunger which afflict the families living in these rural areas becomes intolerable, the women move with their children to the mining areas or commercial centres or ports in the hope of finding better means of subsistence there. This influx of people has resulted in an enormous growth in the size of many African, Latin-American and Asia cities over the last few decades. In some 30% of the developing countries, the concentration of people in the cities is much higher than in the rural areas. This urbanization process is still increasing. The women in these cities are usually not much better off than those in the rural areas. The men usually earn too little to provide their families with the essentials of life in the harsher urban environment. Work is scarce and unemployment is widespread. The women have hardly any opportunity to grow their own food in the urban environment. Food is scarce, very expensive and only available in shops and markets. Money is the most important medium of exchange. Women who try to find work in order to earn by themselves the money required to provide their family with the essentials of life frequently have to be content with poorly-paid jobs. Going out to work and bringing up young children at the same time creates extra strains in the urban environment. When there is no work available and poverty and hunger are on the increase, such families are often left with little alternative but to turn to crime (children) and prostitution (mothers and daughters). The enormous growth in prostitution in Latin American, African and Asian cities is symptomatic of the poor socio-economic situation of women in these countries.

A variation on the most prevalent form of migration, whereby in the first instance the men depart to be followed later by their wives and families, is to be found in the Caribbean area and in South-East Asia. Here, it is usually the men who remain in the rural areas and the women who take their children to the cities where they find work mainly in commerce and services, especially domestic services, and increasingly in industry.

Increasing industrialization¹ in the developing countries may, however, pose a new threat to these women and their children. At present, the proportion of women working in industry in these countries is still very low: in Africa about 6% and in South-East Asia about 5% of the female workforce. However, industrial activity is constantly increasing and the impression is that women in these countries find themselves in a similar position to that of Western women at the beginning of the industrial revolution in Western Europe: long working hours, bad working conditions, low wages and great difficulties in combining work away from home with family duties, with the threat to the care and education of children which this entails. Symptomatic of the situation is the fact that, as in the 19th century in Western Europe, young children are being recruited for work in industry. The ILO has stated that at present there are 55 million young people between the ages of 10 and 14, of whom 22 million are girls, engaged in full-time industrial employment. 80% of these young workers are to be found in South-East Asia. The role of Western industries (textiles, electronics, etc.) in this context is highly questionable.

14.3. The position of women in education²

The failure to integrate women properly in the modern economic life in the developing countries is partly attributable to the inferior position of women in the field of training and education, one indicator of which is the level of illiteracy among women. The statistics published by UNESCO show that about 75% of illiterate people in the world are women and about 25% are men. It is estimated that about 38% of all women in the world are illiterate. This figure is somewhat distorted by the fact that in North America and Europe the rate of illiteracy among men and women is less than 5%. Exceptionally high illiteracy rates among women are to be found in Togo (93%), Mexico (98%), Yemen (92%), Afghanistan (96%), Nepal (95%), Jamaica (82%), and Egypt (71%). Illiteracy among women in Africa and the Arab countries fell over a 10-year period by around 5%. Over the same period, illiteracy among men declined twice as fast. This means that the disparity between the levels of illiteracy of men and women is becoming greater and that women have an increasing amount of lost ground to make up as far as eliminating illiteracy is concerned.

¹ 'Women's participation in the Economic Activity of the World', ILO, Geneva, 1980

² 'The school education of girls' Conference background paper from UNESCO to the UN World Conference 'Decade for Women', Copenhagen, July 1980, Doc.A/Conf/94/BP/14 dd 13 June 1980
Report on Education for the World Conference of the UN 'Decade for Women', Copenhagen Doc. UN/A/Conf./94/10.

With regard to participation in education, women and girls similarly lag far behind men. In North America, Europe and Latin America, participation in education up to secondary level is to some extent identical for both sexes, although there are qualitative differences. In the tertiary sector, however, there are about twice as many men as women. In Africa, the Arab countries and South-East Asia about 1½ times as many boys as girls receive basic education, in the case of secondary schooling the ratio is 2 : 1 in favour of boys and in tertiary education the percentage of women is even lower. In Africa, 4 times as many boys as girls study at university and in the Arab countries girls represent less than one-fifth of the total student population.

The educational situation of girls in Latin American countries appears quite favourable in comparison with the rest of the Third and Fourth Worlds. The Roman Catholic Church in Latin America was responsible for the foundation of many schools for boys and girls. One disadvantage, however, is that there is a long-standing tradition in Latin America of separate education for the two sexes, with education for girls very heavily role-oriented and more restricted than that provided for boys. Education for girls is often based on traditional European domestic science courses: cooking lessons, sewing and courses in looking after babies and children are important elements in the curriculum, with general subjects taking a secondary role. This type of education is geared much more towards preparing girls for domestic activities rather than work away from the home. Latin American women who have to go out to work, mostly for economic reasons, often end up in unskilled and poorly-paid job categories.

Moreover, this type of training for girls is often beyond the means of the poorest sections of the population. Participation in the educational system is often a reflection of the social structure. The poorer a family is, the less education the children receive and the girls are at an even greater disadvantage. This happens particularly in the backward rural areas and in the poor urban areas where girls often have to take responsibility for much of the housework at a young age because they are needed at home, especially if the mother goes out to work. Some figures are available to illustrate the number of young children engaged in paid employment but there are no figures to show the number of young girls especially who carry out unpaid work in the family.

The high rate of illiteracy in women and their restricted participation in education constitute an enormous obstacle to their playing a full part in modern socio-economic life.

Their receptiveness for new ideas is severely limited because of their lack of knowledge. The flow of new ideas does not even reach them in most cases. In African countries, for instance, where women are responsible for 70% of agriculture, farming advice and agricultural education are directed primarily at the more enlightened men. It is, therefore, not surprising that these mis-directed information projects do not produce the desired results.

Another result of the backwardness of women in education is that very few of them work in public administration. The administrations of the developing countries have been rapidly expanding in recent years, and it is these new administrative structures which are responsible for coordinating and promoting development programmes. But the participation of women in these development programmes is usually very small to the disadvantage of the women themselves and to their countries.

14.4. The position of women in health care¹

The health of the population of the various countries of the world is usually measured on the basis of national statistics relating to life expectancy. Recent WHO figures for 80 developing countries show that the average life expectancy in 36 countries is less than 50 years, in 20 countries less than 60 years and in 24 countries less than 70 years. In the other developing countries, the average life-expectancy is between 70 and 80 years, which is as high as in the developed countries. The differences in the life expectancy of men and women are slight, except in South-East Asia where the life expectancy of women is clearly lower than that of men.

Average life expectancy statistics are, however, generalizations and give little indication of the real health problems besetting a specific country or group. For instance, there appear to be great differences in the developing countries between average life expectancies in rural areas and urban areas. In Papua-New Guinea, for example, the life expectancy of women in rural areas is 51.7 years, while in urban areas it is 60.8 years. In Honduras there is a difference of 11 years between the life expectancy of women in rural areas and those in urban areas (50 and 61 years respectively). In Zaire the difference is 7 years (52 for rural areas and 59 for urban areas).

¹Source: Report on Health for the World Conference of the UN Decade for Women, Copenhagen, Doc. UN/A/Conf.94/9, July 1980

Health and the status of Women. Report prepared by the World Health Organization for the World Conference of the UN Decade for Women, Copenhagen, Doc. UN/A/Conf.94/BP/2, July 1980

There are considerable differences between groups of people in the highest and lowest socio-economic categories. In Zaire, for instance, the average life expectancy of the highest social group is 60 and that of the lower social groups 55. In Honduras, there is a difference of as much as 18 years between the life expectancy of adults in the highest and lowest socio-economic categories. It is clear that living conditions and socio-economic status are important factors determining the state of health and the average life expectancy of people in the developing countries.

The specifically female task in the reproduction of the species makes women particularly vulnerable. The average birth rate in the developing countries is still very high. Recent WHO statistics relating to 80 developing countries show that in 14 of these, women still bear more than 7 children, in 43 countries about 6 and in 22 countries about 5. Every period of pregnancy, birth and post-natal care entails extra health risks for the woman. In many countries campaigns have been launched to restrict the number of children women may have, but the results of these family planning programmes are still rather meagre. The programmes often fail to take sufficient account of the outlook, customs and traditions of the local population. There has proved to be little point in introducing birth control programmes without first gaining some insight into the local cultural background, husband-wife relationships and conventional ideas on fertility. In many developing countries, a man's wealth and a woman's worth are still measured by the number of healthy children they have. In addition, children in rural communities often provide additional unpaid labour and real social security for their parents when they grow old.

Traditional practices in many developing countries in respect of pregnancy, birth and nourishment constitute a special problem¹.

¹ Report prepared by the WHO for a seminar on traditional practices affecting the health of women and children in Africa, Khartoum, 10-15 February 1979, (Doc. UN/A/Conf. 94/BP9)

Working Document No. 17 by the Ad Hoc Committee, on sexual mutilations undergone by women in Third World countries, drawn up by Mrs Squarzialupi Doc. PE 63.648/Ann.5, March 1980

A number of these practices can be very harmful to women. In many countries, for example, strict rules govern the diet of women during their pregnancy and period of lactation. Although these rules usually vary from country to country and region to region, it is frequently the case that the woman who is pregnant or breast feeding her child may not eat meat or fish and in many cases she is not allowed to eat rice, fruit or beans. The result of this is that precisely in the period where the woman has particular need of proteins, certain vitamins and certain minerals, these components of her diet are withdrawn. It should also be noted that in many developing countries children are breast-fed up to the age of 2 and older, since breast feeding is used as a means of preventing pregnancy. In the last few years much attention has been focused on traditional practices in circumcision of women. It is estimated that in Africa alone, more than 50 million women have undergone this treatment in its various forms.

Circumcision does not only result in partial or total sexual mutilation, it also results in increased risks of infection, harmful growths and serious problems in the case of pregnancy and childbirth.

Chronic undernourishment is one of the major health problems in the Third World. The permanent state of undernourishment in which many people in the developing countries live is a problem for the woman above all. The fact that she is responsible for producing and preparing food for her own family often means that she gives the other members of her family priority, particularly when food is scarce. Indeed, in certain countries it is a tradition that the woman should eat last and least. The high birth rate and the lengthy period of lactation, together with special restrictions on the food she may eat, make the woman particularly vulnerable to undernourishment. Women still suffer more than the remainder of the population from being permanently under-nourished, with consequent exhaustion and debilitation.

The work situation of the average woman in the Third and Fourth World also has an effect on her health. In particular, the dual burden of housework and going out to work can add up to a very long working day. Research in African rural communities shows that a 16-hour working day is the rule rather than the exception. It should also be remembered that this work is carried out under conditions which are quite different from those in Western countries. Climatic conditions, the lack of good means of transport and technical aids make work more onerous. Washing machines, cookers, sewing machines and agricultural implements are not widely available, and wood for the stove and water for preparing food must frequently be carried very long distances. Chronic fatigue is very prevalent among large numbers of women who have to work under traditional conditions.

The availability of medical help is also a problem. 80% of the doctors in developing countries live and work in urban areas while in most countries the majority of the population lives in the countryside. Only 15% of the inhabitants of the Third and Fourth World countries have modern medical assistance on call in their own area. Women are particularly hard-hit by this as they need medical assistance more frequently than men, particularly because of their reproductive function and the responsibility which they have for their children.

Nevertheless, 50-70% of women have to fall back on the services of traditional indigenous midwives during pregnancy, childbirth, post-natal care and for family planning problems¹. Although information on this matter is scarce, it would appear that women in the developing countries are widely employed in the executive aspects of medical care (particularly as nurses or midwives) but to a much lesser extent in the work of policy determination. This means that women have very little influence on the organization of medical care and this often works to their own disadvantage.

14.5. Conclusions and proposals for a contribution by the European Community to an improvement in the position of women in the developing countries

- For several centuries our Western nations have had colonial links with a large number of present-day developing countries. In administering and exploiting these territories, most colonial rulers took insufficient account of the socio-economic traditions and customs of the indigenous population which allocated distinct jobs to the indigenous men and women in the traditional economies. In particular, the role of women was gradually restricted and, for example, they lost their leading positions in agriculture and local trade. The introduction of money as a means of exchange led to a distinction between work as an activity for earning money and unpaid work. Women were increasingly forced into the sector of unpaid work and consequently into a position of economic dependence.
- Modern development strategies have in too many cases built on what the colonial system left behind. Usually the aim of development is to increase the GNP. In particular, paid employment is the subject of national planning and international support. The main focus of the development policy is on intensifying agricultural production and trade, especially international trade, industrialization and the improvement of infrastructures. Women who are mainly occupied in the unpaid employment sector are frequently ignored by modern development experts. Nonetheless, they carry out most

¹ See 'Children in the World' McHale and McHale, Houston, 1979.

of the work which has to be done to hold the fabric of society together in the developing countries. Aid which could improve their position such as small-scale employment projects, better education, better health care, good housing, sufficient nourishment and better hygiene, usually covered by the term 'basic needs', is always relegated to a secondary role.

- The development of the modern economy goes hand in hand with a number of negative side effects which further aggravate the position of women in the developing countries. Scaling-up in agriculture leads to unemployment in rural areas. Men in particular migrate to the mining centres and ports. Women, children and the elderly remain behind in the first instance, so that a large number of 'villages of women' grow up. All the work in these communities must be done by the adult women. When their life there becomes intolerable, the women and their families also migrate to the cities. Life is hardly better in the over-populated cities. A lack of employment, bad accommodation and inadequate food result in poverty, crime and prostitution. Increasing industrialization is apparently a new threat to women and their children. The impression is that women here find themselves in a similar position to that of Western women at the beginning of the industrial revolution in Western Europe: long working hours, low wages and bad working conditions are prevalent, as is child employment. The role of Western industries in this context is highly questionable.
- The inferior socio-economic position of women in the developing countries is exacerbated by the very inferior position occupied by women in education and by the high degree of illiteracy among women. 75% of the world's illiterates are women. In some developing countries less than 10% of the women can read or write. It is alarming to note that the level of education of men in the developing countries rises much more quickly than that of women, so that women have an increasingly large gap to bridge. The inferior position of women in education reduces their receptiveness to new ideas and prevents them from playing their full part in the development of their country.
- The inferior socio-economic position of women in the developing countries is also exacerbated by a large number of specific health problems. The heavy burden of work, high birthrate and lengthy periods of lactation make them particularly vulnerable to fatigue, exhaustion and debilitation. This process is aggravated by special

restrictions on diet during pregnancy and the period of lactation. The prevalent food shortages hit women harder because most of them are required to eat last and least, especially in times of scarcity. 50-70% of women in the developing countries have no access to modern medical assistance during pregnancy, maternity or for family planning advice. Infant mortality is particularly high in most of these countries.

- The European policy on development aid and external economic relations has so far taken insufficient account of the position of women in the developing countries. The improvement of the position of women should be an integral part of the development strategy pursued by the European Community and the ACP States. The following policy aspects should be taken into account:

- great restraint in applying Western cultural principles, particularly as regards working and family relationships,
- allowance for the fact that in most developing countries women are obliged, alongside their family duties, to do paid work in order to be able to provide for their families' basic needs,
- a policy to improve standards as regards these basic needs (housing, food, clothing, education and medical help) by having development aid and external economic relations channeled, as a matter of priority, in these directions,
- allowance for the fact that in most developing countries the number of women on their own and women heads of families is far greater than in Western countries,
- the need to prevent certain types of work, which in the developing countries are traditionally carried out by women, particularly in agriculture, local commerce and in certain types of cottage industry, from passing into the hands of men as a result of Western development strategies and commercial activities,
- the need to promote the involvement of women in new areas of employment by means of appropriate development projects and projects in the framework of external economic relations,
- ensuring that female workers, who in many cases still have considerable family duties to fulfil, are not subjected to excessively long working hours, low wages and poor working conditions and social provisions,
- special attention to the need to combat illiteracy and promote good education and vocational training for women by means of specific development projects,
- special attention for the position of women as regards health care by providing support for the training of female doctors, nurses, midwives and medical auxiliary staff and support for the setting up of health services in remote rural areas,

- active assistance in combating cultural practices which are very harmful to women such as dietary restrictions during pregnancy and period of lactation, and circumcision,
- encouragement for greater involvement of women and women's organizations in the planning and implementation of development strategies and projects,
- the need to introduce in all existing and future European development projects monitoring procedures for determining the effect of the project concerned on the position of women and, in future projects, to give priority to those forms of development aid which are intended to improve the position of women in the Third and Fourth World.

The Commission should publish a biennial report on the effects of European development aid and external economic relations on the position of women in the developing countries and submit it to the appropriate parliamentary committees.

- The Commission should also organize a special conference between the European Communities and the Lomé partners at an early date to determine, with reference to the aforementioned principles, what contribution could be made by European development aid to the improvement of the position of women in each of the countries which are members of the Lomé Convention.

15. Instruments for the pursuit of a broad Community policy to improve the position of women

A number of instruments are required for the pursuit of a broad Community policy to improve the position of women. It requires a balanced ratio of officials between the sexes, separate women's affairs offices within the appropriate Directorates-General, proper scientific supervision, support based on an advisory committee and adequate financial resources.

15.1. A balance in the ratio between the sexes of officials in the institutions of the European Community

Thousands of officials work in the institutions of the European Community, many of whom are involved in preparing and implementing Community policy. A census shows that the ratio between men and women officials is an accurate reflection of the imbalance between working men and women in the Community itself.

The ratio between men and women in the various staff categories in the Community Institutions¹:

<u>Category</u>	<u>Women Officials</u>	<u>Men Officials</u>
A 1	0	41
A 2	2	124
A 3	4	333
A 4	53	626
A 5	147	608
A 6	147	359
A 7	233	501
A 8	33	34
B	692	971
C	2170	573
D	9	372

Category A: Staff with senior executive and creative posts and research posts.

Category B: Staff involved in practical application and drafting

Category C: Staff involved in implementing duties

Category D: Staff performing service duties.

This table shows that almost 80% of all women officials were employed in category C, i.e. in the lowest category but one. This category principally includes officials working on clerical duties. In the three highest categories (from Head of Department up to Director-General) only 6 women held posts compared with 498 male colleagues. Not one woman holds a post in the highest category.

In recent years, (the census was taken in 1977) this situation has been consolidated by the policy pursued by the Commission and Council in recruiting new staff whereby the age limit for new staff was reduced from 35 to 29. We saw earlier (in point 8.2.2.) that the woman's specific employment curve is such that large numbers of women stop work between the ages of 25 and 35 in order to raise a family. Most women only take up full-time employment after the age of 35. This new Community staff policy largely prevents women from becoming officials in the Community institutions. Protests made by Members of the European Parliament in written and oral questions to the Commission and the Council have so far failed to bring about a change in the maximum age.

¹Source: 'Women on Europe', p.153: Allocation of posts in the institutions of the Community in 1977, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, External Trade and Development Cooperation, Belgium, Brussels 1979.

All these statistics show that the more than negligible efforts of the Commission to improve the position of women in the work process in the Community has not had much effect on its own staff. Not only is the credibility of the Community policy on this matter at stake, this situation also affects the preparation and implementation of the policies of the European Community. A number of memoranda and proposals demonstrate again and again that at best insufficient account is taken of the specific position and problems of women in the Community.

15.2 Separate women's affairs offices within the Commission

When in 1970 the European Community showed increased interest in problems facing women, a few officials were made specifically responsible for the preparation and implementation of a policy to improve the position of women, especially at work. Since the scope of this work expanded, in November 1976 the Commission set up a special Bureau for questions concerning women's employment within the Directorate-General for Employment and Social Affairs.

This Bureau was instructed to promote equality of men and women with regard to employment in accordance with the directive on equal pay, to monitor the application of this Community legislation in the Member States, to draw up a report on its implementation for the Council and, where necessary, to propose new measures to benefit women. Under these terms of reference, the Bureau drew up inter alia the directive on equal pay and the directive on equal treatment in matters relating to social security, and it also played an important part in the activities of the European Social Fund to improve the position of women (see points 5 and 6).

Since it is inevitable, if permanent changes are to be made, that changes must also be made in attitudes to women, the Bureau has also started work on a number of specific projects along these lines. These projects should not only make women aware of their new rights and encourage them to benefit fully from the opportunities offered them, they should also draw the attention of employers, trade unions, teachers, careers advisers and, last but not least, families, to the true significance of the integration of women in social and economic life and to the possible social benefits deriving therefrom. This Bureau is undoubtedly the most important driving force behind the policy that the European Community has pursued so far on behalf of women.

In March 1976, at the invitation of the Commission, some 120 senior women representatives from the political, social and cultural life of the nine Member States met in Brussels to discuss the Community's policy on behalf of women. At this meeting a call was made for better communication between the European Community and the various bodies in the Member States involved with national emancipation activities. As a result, in 1977 the Commission set up a special information service for women's organizations and the press within the Directorate-General for Information. This information service regularly receives information from the Member States on national activities on behalf of women, processes this information in a bi-monthly bulletin 'Women in Europe' and transmits through this bulletin, which appears in six languages, documentation and articles concerning the position of women in the Community as a whole to the daily press and 'women's press' in the Member States. This service also plays an important part in disseminating information on Community activities on behalf of women. The work undertaken by this information service has proved to be particularly important.

Apart from these two women's affairs offices, the Directorate-General for Research, Science and Education also employs several officials who are specifically concerned with the improvement of the position of women in education. This division, with a minimum of manpower and womanpower, has already achieved significant results (see points 5 and 6). Since the experience acquired with the two existing women's affairs offices has proved valuable, it would appear desirable for small separate women's affairs offices to be set up within all the relevant Directorates-General to expand the Community policy to improve the position of women. In the context of the fields of activity referred to in this report, such women's affairs offices should be set up within the Directorates-General for Research, Education and Science, for External Relations, for Economic and Financial Affairs, for the Internal Market and Industrial Affairs, for Agriculture and for Regional Policy.

15.3. Scientific research

A number of individual research workers and scientific institutions have made a start in recent years on scientific research into the position of women in the various sectors of society. This scientific research which is conducted under the heading of 'women's studies' is particularly important especially for the institutions working towards an improvement in the position of women. The Bureau for questions concerning women's employment in the Directorate-General for Employment and Social Affairs commissioned a Belgian research worker in 1977 to draw up a catalogue of research projects being carried out in several countries in the

European Community into the position of women on the employment market. The report, which was published in 1979, contained a summary of no fewer than 20 research projects in Belgium, 33 in Denmark, 4 in Luxembourg and 194 in the United Kingdom, merely in the field of women's participation in social and economic life¹.

¹ Catalogue of Research on Women and Employment in the Member States of the European Communities, Part I, K. Riberboldt, Commission of the European Communities, Brussels, July 1978, Doc. V/522/79 - EN, Study No. 77/31

Neither the researchers in scientific institutions nor the policy organs have a really adequate insight into the scope and nature of the research projects being carried out in the various Member States into the role of women in society. The United Nations and the Council of Europe have on several occasions in the past called for better coordination of these 'women's studies' both nationally and internationally so that both national authorities and intergovernmental organizations can make the best possible use of this research work. In this connection, the European Community could play an important part both for the benefit of its own policy and for that of the national Member States.

15.4. National advisory bodies for emancipation policy: structural support¹

As long ago as 1967 the United Nations called on all its member countries to set up national advisory committees on the status of women to underpin national policies for improving the position of women. In 1975 this request was repeated during the UN World Conference in Mexico, and in 1976 the United Nations General Assembly confirmed this request in a resolution (UN Resolution No. 31/196). At the recent UN World Conference in Copenhagen, it appeared that virtually every member country of the United Nations had responded to this request and had set up a national advisory committee. Among these countries were the Member States of the European Community.

In 1975 the Equal Opportunities Commission was set up in the United Kingdom to replace the Women's Consultative Council which had been in existence since 1962. The EOC is administered by 15 members appointed by the Home Secretary from employer's organizations, trade unions, educational and women's organizations or on the grounds of specific expertise. The EOC has its central office in Manchester and three regional offices with a total staff of 170. Northern Ireland has its own Equal Opportunities Commission with a board of 13 members and an office with a staff of 13.

In 1971 the Comité du Travail Féminin was set up in France as the advisory body to the Ministry of Labour and for Industrial Democracy. This committee consists of representatives of employers' organizations (5), trade unions (8), family and women's organizations (7) and members appointed for their specific expertise. The committee has government support and employs regional advisers.

¹ Emancipation policy abroad, a summary of structural provisions for emancipation policy in 16 Western countries, Netherlands Emancipation Committee, Rijswijk, Netherlands, August 1979.

In addition to this committee the 'Comité interministériel chargé de l'action pour les Femmes' (CIAF), was set up in 1978. This is a ministerial subcommittee consisting of delegates from all the ministries involved. It is chaired by the French Secretary of State for Women's Affairs and is responsible for coordinating the national emancipation policy.

In the Federal Republic the 'Bundesministerium für Arbeit und Sozialordnung' has a special committee of experts with 17 members, 12 of whom represent the Parliament, employers' organizations, the trade union movement, women's organizations, pension funds and the churches, the other 5 coming from the scientific world. The 'Bundesministerium für Familie, Jugend und Gesundheit' has a special section for policies concerning women. Other Federal ministries such as the Ministries of Agriculture, the Interior and Education and Science have special advisory bodies. At regional level Berlin, Hamburg, Hessen and North-Rhine-Westphalia have special advisory committees concerned with the emancipation policy pursued by the regional governments.

Italy has a Committee on Women's Employment under the Ministry of Labour and Social Security. The committee has ten members, most of whom come from various other ministries, the remainder being appointed for their personal expertise. In 1978 a Secretary of State for Women's Affairs was appointed by the Prime Minister. The 'Comitato Nazionale di Consultazione per la Partecipazione della Donna alla vita Pubblica', the umbrella organization for a large number of women's organizations, has for many years been pursuing a campaign to have set up a national advisory committee for the improvement of the position of women.

In 1975 a Consultative committee on the status of women was set up in Belgium. The committee has 26 sitting and 26 substitute members appointed from the most representative social and political organizations and national authorities. The committee has 7 working parties; a working party on political rights, one on civil rights, one on education, one on labour, employment and social security, one on development cooperation, one on public relations and one on coordination and follow-up action. This committee advises the government in several sectors. Belgium also has a special Committee on women's employment under the Ministry of Labour and Employment. This committee has 14 sitting members and 14 substitutes appointed from employers' and employees' organizations. The secretariat of this committee has a staff of 10.

In 1980 the Conseil National des Femmes Luxembourgeoises was set up in Luxembourg with 4 delegates from national women's organizations, 8 from employers' and employees' organizations and 8 from various government

ministries. This committee, which has only been in existence for a very short time, will deliver opinions to the Luxembourg Government.

In 1974 the Nationale Adviescommissie Emancipatie was set up in the Netherlands. The committee has 16 members, 3 from employers' and employees' organizations, 3 from the main political groups and 10 from the various women's organizations and feminist movements. Late in 1980 this national advisory committee will be replaced by the National Emancipation Council which will have 7 - 13 members appointed for their personal expertise. The composition of the council will take account of the various religious and social forces in the Netherlands. The new Emancipation council will have an office with a staff of 20.

In 1970 a Commission on the Status of Women was set up in Ireland and in 1974 a special Women's Representative Committee. The latter was set up by the Ministry of Labour and has 13 members of whom 4 come from the trade union movement, 4 from employers' organizations, one from the Economic and Social Research Institute and three from the Commission on the Status of Women, together with a legal adviser from the Ministry of Justice.

In 1977, in addition to this body, the Employment Equality Agency was set up with special responsibility for monitoring the Employment Equality Act and the Equal Pay Act.

In 1975 the Danish Council for Equality was set up in Denmark. The Council consists of a chairman appointed by the government, one member from the Federation of Government Staff, one from the employers' federation, one from the Federation of Danish trade unions, 3 from the Danish Confederation of Women's Organizations and one from the Greenland women's organizations. The Council has a secretariat with a staff of 10 and is accommodated in the Prime Minister's office.

Although this summary is probably incomplete, it is clear that since 1970, in response to the call from the United Nations, a number of national advisory bodies have been set up in the Member States of the Community to assist in the national policy for improving the position of women. For a long time now the Commission has needed to seek contact with these national advisory bodies to ascertain how the work of these institutions could be coordinated at Community level. In May 1980, the Commission, in conjunction with the British Equal Opportunities Commission organized a special conference in Manchester. Participants at that conference were the French Comité du Travail Féminin, the Federal German Ministry for Youth, Family Affairs and Health, the Italian Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, the Belgian Committee on Women's Employment,

the 'Conseil National des Femmes Luxembourgeoises' the National Advisory Committee on Emancipation from the Netherlands, the Irish Employment Equality Agency, the Danish Council for Equality and the British Equal Opportunities Commission which hosted the conference. At that conference it appeared that there was indeed a great need for a Community coordinating body, particularly for the exchange of national statistics but also for better communication with the women's affairs offices of the Commission and for better communication with the European Parliament. The Commission undertook to draw up proposals within the near future to set up a Community coordinating body for national advisory committees for emancipation policy.

15.5. Financial resources

The Community policy to improve the position of women requires a sound and clear financial basis. The funds at present devoted to this policy at Community level derive partially from the budgets of the various Directorates-General and partially from the budget of the European Social Fund. However, there is no real clarity about the precise content and budgetization of this whole policy area.

In recent years in the Member States special budgets have been created for the whole emancipation policy for women. This is particularly true of those countries which have a separate Secretary of State for Women's Affairs such as France, Italy and the Netherlands.

The great advantage of a fixed budget for this policy area is that there is greater transparency of the exact scope and content of the policy and over the funds required thereto. A fixed budget, moreover, facilitates the influence of Parliament and parliamentary control over this important policy area.

15.6. Conclusions and proposals for instruments for a broad Community policy to improve the position of women

- Research shows that the employment ratio between men and women in the institutions of the European Community is an accurate reflection of the imbalance in the ratio between working men and women in the Community itself. In 1977, 80% of female employees of the Community were employed in the lowest category but one, whereas in the three highest categories only 6 women were employed compared with 498 men. This situation was recently exacerbated because the maximum age for the recruitment of new staff was reduced from 35 to 29, largely to the detriment of women. The Commission should submit a report to Parliament as soon as possible on the employment position of its own female employees, with suitable proposals

for the improvement of their position.

- Partly because of this imbalance in the sexes, the staff at present working for the European Community is undermanned and inadequately qualified to set in motion a broad policy to improve the position of women. Experience shows that the two women's affairs offices within the Directorate-General for Employment and Social Affairs and the Directorate-General for Information have achieved excellent results in stimulating the Community policy on behalf of women. In addition to the two existing offices it is recommended that separate women's affairs offices be set up within all the relevant Directorates-General particularly the Directorate-General for the Internal Market and Industrial Affairs, the Directorate-General for Agriculture, the Directorate-General for Development Aid, the Directorate-General for Research, Science and Education and the Directorate-General for Regional Policy. The whole policy on behalf of women should preferably be coordinated by one Commissioner.

- A number of scientific research workers have made a start in recent years on scientific research into the position of women in every sector of society. This scientific research is particularly important for institutions involved in the policy on behalf of women. Unfortunately, the overview we have of the scale and nature of this research throughout each of the Member States is unsatisfactory. It is to be recommended that an institute be set up at Community level to coordinate scientific research into the role of women in our Western society for the benefit of the Member States as well as for the European institutions. The Commission should draw up a practical proposal to this end at an early date and submit it to the appropriate parliamentary committee.

- Since 1970 in various Member States, special advisory committees have been set up to underpin the national policy to improve the position of women. Since then it has become apparent that a coordinating body for these advisory committees at Community level is urgently required, with respect to the exchange of information on national action programmes, to better communication with the women's affairs offices of the European Community and to better communication with the European Parliament.

It may be possible to combine this requirement of the national emancipation committees with the concept proposed previously by the Commission for the setting up of a Community Advisory Committee on Women's Rights. Such a committee could consist of delegates from national advisory committees for emancipation policy,

delegates from national organizations representing women's organizations and delegates from national governments. It should also be possible to co-opt specific experts.

A committee of this nature should be given the task of reporting on national measures taken to improve the position of women, making it possible to exchange current information and to provide on request or on its own initiative opinions on all aspects of European policy concerning the improvement of the position of women.

- The European policy to improve the position of women requires a sound financial basis. The Commission and Council should give their views as soon as possible of the development of such a policy and the financial implications thereof. In this connection, it is to be recommended that a special European fund to improve the position of women be set up for a period of at least ten years.

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SUMMARY OF WORK CARRIED OUT BY MEMBERS OF THE

'AD HOC' COMMITTEE ON WOMEN'S RIGHTS

- Questionnaire prepared by Mrs Yvette ROUDY, chairman, concerned mainly with the forms of discrimination encountered by women at work and covered by Community directives (PE 64.488)
- Measures already taken in the context of the European Community to improve the position of women and on the effect of the measures, by Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN, general rapporteur (PE 62.949)
- The legal status of women in the European Community, by Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN (PE 62.950)
- The employment of women in the Member States of the European Community and the position of immigrant women in the Member States of the European Community, by Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN (PE 63.546)
- Women and French labour law, by Mrs VAYSSADE (PE 64.114)
- The employment of women in Denmark, by Mrs GROES (PE 64.115)
- Action to combat female unemployment, by Mrs WIECZOREK-ZEUL (PE 64.513)
- The education, schooling and vocational training of women in the countries of the European Community, by Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN (PE 64.660)
- The situation of women farmers, by Mrs LIZIN (PE 64.668)
- The legal status of women under Belgian law, by Mrs SPAAK and Mrs LIZIN (PE 64.669)
- The situation of women in the developing countries, by Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN (PE 64.967)
- The situation of Belgian women in law and social security, by Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN (PE 64.963)
- Part-time work (comments on the communication from the Commission to the Council on work-sharing COM(79) 188 final), by Mrs SQUARCIALUPI (PE 65.046)
- Female employment in France, by Mrs ROUDY (PE 65.945)
- The unpaid wives of craftsmen, tradesmen and farmers, by Mrs MARTIN (PE 65.999)

- The legal status of women in Luxembourg law, by Mrs LENTZ-CORNETTE (PE 66.262)
- The situation of women farmers, by Mrs LIZIN (PE 66.946)
- The sexual mutilations undergone by women in Third World countries, by Mrs SQUARCIALUPI (PE 63.648)
- The positive results of the application of the law on equality between men and women at work which entered into force in Italy on 9 December 1979, by Mrs SQUARCIALUPI (PE 65.044)
- A look at employment, and employment at home (hidden employment) in Italy, by Mrs SQUARCIALUPI (PE 65.045)
- Comments by Mrs GAIOTTI DE BIASE adding to the document on the employment of women in the Member States of the European Community (PE 63.546) by Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN, general rapporteur (PE 65.333)
- Comments by Mrs VAN DEN HEUVEL on the document on the employment of women in the Member States of the European Community (PE 63.546), by Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN, general rapporteur (PE 65.346)
- The improvement of the employment situation of women in the Member States of the European Community, by Mrs GROES (PE 65.409)
- Comments by Mrs LENZ on the document (PE 64.513) by Mrs WIECZOREK-ZEUL on action to combat female unemployment (PE 65.920)
- The situation of women retail traders, by Mrs FUILLET (PE 65.950)
- Comments by Mrs GAIOTTI DE BIASE on the document (PE 64.660) by Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN, general rapporteur, on the education, schooling and vocational training of women in the countries of the European Community (PE 66.741)
- Comments by Mrs LENZ on the document (PE 64.668) by Mrs LIZIN and additional information on the situation of women in German agriculture (PE 66.964)
- Proposals relating to the segregation existing on the labour market, by Mrs LIZIN (PE 66.967)
- Prostitution, by Mrs ROUDY (PE 67.023)

- Comments by Mrs SQUARCIALUPI on the document (PE 64.967) by Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN on the situation of women in developing countries in particular, bottle-feeding in Third World countries (PE 67.693)
- Women and health, by Mrs KROUWEL-VLAM (PE 67.713)
- Current trends in the use of contraceptives in the industrialized countries and research work in progress, by Mrs SQUARCIALUPI (PE 67.740)
- Statement by Mrs HOFFMANN on the opinion of the French Communist Party on the document (PE 63.546) by Mrs MAIJ-WEGGEN, general rapporteur, on the employment of women in the Member States of the European Community (PE 67.850)
- The position of women in Greece, Spain and Portugal, by Mrs DE MARCH (PE 69.359)
- Employment of women and new technologies (telematics and micro-processors ...), by Mrs SPAAK and Mrs DEKKER (PE 70.985)