Franz Rothenbacher

The Changing Public Sector in Europe: Social Structure, Income and Social Security

Following a growth period that lasted for one hundred years, the public sector in Europe has experienced stagnation and even a decline since the mid-80s. This applies above all to employment in the public sector. The growth to the limits in public sector employment is accompanied by a secular growth in state expenditure in relation to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). This growth is to some extent a result of the strong growth in expenditure for staff, which accounts for a considerable part of state expenditure. Saving measures aimed at containing the increase in state expenditure mainly affected employment. There are reductions in the number of employees, full-time jobs are turned into part-time jobs, a further feminization of the public sector occurs. Another factor intensifying the growth in expenditure is the “upgrading” in the public sector: this means that the pyramidal employment structure shifts to a form with higher proportions of medium- and higher-level jobs.

State Expenditure: Growth to the Limits

The growth in state expenditure since the last century is one of the most interesting chapters of societal modernization. It demonstrates the increasing influence of the state in economy and society, the growing necessity of coordinating and controlling activities in the course of permanent differentiation and growth processes (Kohl 1983). One side-effect of growth in public tasks is the increase in personnel responsible for executing these tasks. This is, in fact, a logical and necessary process. Whereas first in the primary sector, and subsequently in the secondary sector, considerable increases in productivity were possible, it is maintained that this is not possible in the public sector to such a degree; staff-intensive activities prevail in the social services and in the educational sector (Baumol’s cost disease) (Towse 1997). The “law of low productivity of public services” has so far proved to be more or less correct, as the increasing rate of personnel in the public sector up to the 80s suggests. However, an increase in the productivity of public services cannot be denied. Human activity has been replaced by technological progress and inventions in this sector as in the other two economic sectors.

On the other hand, it is obvious that this massive rationalization is faced with far more difficulties than it is in the primary or secondary sector. Therefore attempts were made to put the brakes on the increase in state expenditure by slowing down the growth in the number of public sector employees, by “freezing” public sector employment or even cutting back personnel. The overall aim is to cut state expenditure and thus budget

continued on page 2
Public Sector Employment: Growth beyond the Limits

Whereas state expenditure has risen in most countries in the last decade, public sector employment has passed its peak and has been declining in all industrial European countries. Since changes in income structures and pension schemes are difficult to undertake or partly even prohibited by law (constitutionally guaranteed principle of maintenance ("Alimentationsprinzip"), e.g.), the only possibility seems to be a reduction in staff expenditure. There are different ways to reduce these costs: first, by privatizing public enterprises (Post Office, Railways, energy supply, etc.) and thus achieving a (merely formal in part) shift of the personnel from the public to the private sector; second, by limiting the scope of public tasks and directly cutting back the number of employees; third, by redistributing work: full-time jobs are replaced by part-time jobs.

The consequences of these strategies are an absolute as well as relative reduction of employment in the public sector. The United Kingdom pioneered this development, but most European countries introduced measures to modernize the public sector, prompted by OECD activities (PUMA-Public Management Project). In Sweden and in other Nordic countries the economic crisis from 1990 onwards intensified the reduction of employment in the public sector.

Some important individual trends form the background to this global reduction of employment. The trend toward a feminization of the public sector that has lasted for some decades now is being reinforced by the reduction of employment. Whereas the ratio of women employed in the public sector in % of all women employed has stagnated since the late 1980s or risen only slightly, the ratio of men in the public sector (in % of all individuals employed) has declined strongly. This picture becomes even more drastic if one focuses on the internal structure of the public sector. The share of women in the public sector is still growing strongly and has long passed the 50 % mark in countries with a large public sector (such as Sweden, France, the United Kingdom). In Sweden, over 70 % of the total workforce in 1995 were women, in the United Kingdom almost 60 %. This strong increase in female employment in the public sector is the result of another trend: the increase in part-time jobs in the public sector. This increase concerns both sexes, for women it is much higher, however, than for men. In Europe, at least two employment patterns have emerged regarding the extent of part-time employment. In the United Kingdom and in Germany female part-time work is of greater importance. Sweden’s employment policy, on the other hand, was aimed at providing full-time jobs; it was only after the crisis in the 90s that the trend towards female part-time work became stronger.

No Worsening of the Income Situation in the Public Sector as Compared to the Private Sector

Income structures cannot be changed in isolation, they are always interrelated with the development of incomes in the economy as a whole. If the incomes in the private sector rise, the public sector cannot detach itself from this development without running the risk of becoming unattractive. If the income gap between the private and the public sectors becomes too big – especially in the field of upper-level positions – a noticeable lack of qualified personnel might occur. As shown in Table 1, the average incomes – contrary to widespread assumptions – are normally higher in the public sector than in the private sector. This is also true for the lower and medium income levels. The incomes of the highest-ranking staff group, however, are much higher in the private sector than in the public sector. The incomes of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Managers</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediary professions</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White collar</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blue collar</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kingdom</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

women, however, are generally higher in the public sector than in the private sector, since earnings in the public sector are gender-neutral as a rule, whereas in the private sector women often earn less than men in the same positions. The incomes in the private sector and in the public sector do not develop independently, however, according to OECD results; in some countries the relation between incomes has even developed in favour of the public sector since the 1980s. Another remarkable phenomenon are the pronounced privileges of public sector employees in south European countries; this preferential treatment can also be observed in the field of pensions (see below) (OECD 1997b).

The results for the Federal Republic of Germany also illustrate the more advantageous income positions in the public sector as compared to the private sector. Table 2 shows the distribution of the incomes of households by occupational status. The percentage of self-employed above the median income is the highest, but it is only slightly higher than that of civil servants. The mass of wage-earning and salaried employees, who account for about four fifths of all individuals employed, has a much smaller share of households lying above the median. There is a clear hierarchy regarding the distribution of the monthly net incomes of households. The self-employed have the highest household incomes, civil servants rank second, followed by farmers, employees, and, lastly, workers. The unemployed have the lowest household net incomes. The distribution of household net incomes among income classes shows characteristic differences. While almost one third (29 %) of all self-employed have household net incomes of 10,000 DM or more, only 12 % of the civil servants and 9 % of the employees

Table 2: Private households by occupational status of the reference person above the median, related to the median of all private households; former Federal Republic of Germany, income and consumption sample surveys 1988 and 1993

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational status</th>
<th>Number of households</th>
<th>Proportion of households</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total number of households</td>
<td>14,458</td>
<td>12,339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of households related to the arithmetic mean</td>
<td>11,595</td>
<td>10,080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmers</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>1,409</td>
<td>1,147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil servants</td>
<td>1,372</td>
<td>1,378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White-collar workers</td>
<td>4,686</td>
<td>3,764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blue-collar workers</td>
<td>3,550</td>
<td>3,048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonemployed</td>
<td>3,051</td>
<td>2,584</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Hertel 1997, 57.

Table 3: Type of pension regime and funding of pensions in European countries (approx. 1989/90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Type of regime</th>
<th>Contribution of civil servants to</th>
<th>Contribution of the state/employer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>their own pensions</td>
<td>surviving dependents pensions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>Statutory Regime</td>
<td>10.00%</td>
<td>7.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>Statutory Regime</td>
<td>zero</td>
<td>7.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>Regime guaranteed by constitution</td>
<td>zero</td>
<td>zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>Statutory Regime</td>
<td>8.90%</td>
<td>fictitious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal Republic of Germany</td>
<td>Statutory Regime</td>
<td>fictitious</td>
<td>fictitious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>Statutory Regime</td>
<td>zero</td>
<td>zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Statutory Regime</td>
<td>fictitious</td>
<td>1.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Statutory Regime</td>
<td>6.95% (since 1991: 7.15%)</td>
<td>1.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>Statutory Regime</td>
<td>zero</td>
<td>zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Netherlands</td>
<td>Statutory Regime</td>
<td>15.29% (=average for both pension contributions)</td>
<td>Pension fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>Statutory Regime</td>
<td>6.50%</td>
<td>1.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Statutory Regime</td>
<td>3.86%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>Statutory Regime</td>
<td>8.67% (=average for both pension contributions)</td>
<td>Pension fund (Eidg. Versicherungskasse)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>Statutory Regime</td>
<td>fictitious</td>
<td>1.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>Statutory Regime</td>
<td>6.75%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

have incomes of this magnitude; blue-collar workers are represented only marginally (1 %) in this income class (Hertel 1997, 49).

The Maintenance of Privileges in the Field of Social Protection in the Civil Service

The social protection schemes in the public sector belong to the oldest schemes of social protection. Most of them were introduced much earlier than social protection schemes for employees in the private sector. The largest part of civil servants’ pension schemes dates back to the first half of the 19th century. The civil servants and the wage-earning and salaried employees succeeded in the course of decades of severe struggles in wringing important features of social protection in the public sector from their employer (the state): permanence of employment and irremovability, the eligibility for pensions, non-contributory pensions (in Germany both are conceived as principle of maintenance ("Alimentationsprinzip"), contribution free benefits for dependants and survivors (widows’ and orphans’ pensions), and finally the calculation of pension benefits based on the final salary instead of the average salary (as it is the case in the pension insurance schemes of those employed in the private sector).³

Table 3 shows characteristics of pension regimes and the financing of civil servants pensions in 14 European countries and the European Union. This table refers to civil servants only for the sake of simplicity, since the social protection of contractual employees (manual and white-collar workers) strongly diverges from that of civil servants in the individual European countries. In Denmark the pension regime itself is guaranteed by the constitution, whereas the constitutions of other countries only define principles regarding the position of civil servants, that is, the right to receive appropriate old-age provisions (maintenance) by the employer. In about half of the countries, the civil servants themselves do not pay any contributions into their old-age pension schemes; instead the employer keeps fictitious contributions. These fictitious contributions are deducted from the salaries and wages. While it was possible to implement successfully in most countries the regulation that civil servants do not have to pay any contributions for themselves, this does not apply to dependant survivors’ pensions to the same degree. In the beginning private insurances had to be contracted for the widows of civil servants, with the exception of a few countries, where no contributions had to be paid for dependant survivors’ pensions. In some countries a contribution rate is defined for both kinds of benefits together; it is, however, predominantly devoted to dependant survivors’ benefits. In only 2 out of the 14 countries, the Netherlands and Switzerland, are civil servants’ pensions not financed from the state budget (tax revenue); instead, pension funds were created which were only used for pension payments. The contributions of civil servants paid into the pension funds are, accordingly, higher than (fictitious) contributions to the state purse.

The institutional regulations for the calculation of civil servants’ old-age pensions in 14 European countries share some features in common, despite all differences (Table 4). As compared to the private sector, the income replacement rates (of pensions as a share of the final salary) are in general better for civil servants than for employees in the private sector. If one takes the average of the 14 countries looked at, civil servants receive 74,9 % of the final salary (basic amount). If one takes into account the supplementary or periodically paid benefits, they receive 84,1 %. The reasons for the relatively higher income replacement rates of civil servants’ old-age pensions are that usually the final salary or the average salary earned in a period of some years before retirement are used for calculating the pensions; in the private sector, on the other hand, the average of the individual income during the whole length of service is used. Since in a civil servant’s career the salary rises according to the age of a person, civil servants generally have the highest incomes by the end of their careers. The “income career” of an employee in the private sector is not as predictable and is often subject to greater fluctuations.

There are considerable differences between the industrialized European countries regarding the size of old-age pensions. In Austria, France, Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain pension arrangements are very advantageous. Under certain circumstances the pension benefits are higher than the final salary. In other European countries the benefits are not as high, but never fall below 75 % of the final salary. As regards the length of service necessary to qualify for a full pension, the differences are considerable, too. In countries with high old-age pensions, benefit entitlement is acquired even after a relatively short period of service, as a rule, often after 35 years of service. The entitlement to a full pension becomes effective at the age of 35 in Austria, Greece and Spain, at the age of 35.5 in France, at the age of 36 in Portugal, and at the age of 37 in Denmark. Most countries require 37 years of service, Belgium even 45. The double privileges of civil servants in Austria, France and the four south European countries are striking: there a shorter period of service coincides with higher old-age pensions.

The combined result of income size and institutional regulations concerning pension entitlement (for lack of internationally comparable data) will be clarified by means of the example of the old-age income of civil servants and employees in the Federal Republic of Germany (Kneifl and Kortmann 1997). The result of the - on average - higher salaries of civil servants in particular and the more advantageous pension arrangements is that civil servants, as compared to other socio-professional groups, receive the
Table 4: Structure of social protection in the civil service on the basis of pension regulations, European countries (approx. 1989/90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Considered salary</th>
<th>Attainable maximal pension in %</th>
<th>Years of service required</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>80% of the final complete salary</td>
<td>100% of considered salary (= 80% of last salary); (considering 4 x ½ monthly salaries, 116.66% of the considered salary or 93.33% of the last salary is attained); (taking into account benefits from the complementary pension – maximally 20% of the last salary – the pension can be 125% of the considered salary or 100% of the last salary)</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>Average of salary earned in the last 5 years of service</td>
<td>75% of the considered salary (the amount of the pension is limited to 149,984 FB gross income per month – index number of 1.1.1990)</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>Salary on an individual basis, but lower than the attained salary, scheduled for the different grades from 1 to 53, with an upper limit of 336,000 DKR/year (=1,871,520 Flux)</td>
<td>65% of considered salary (this is an average amount, because the proportion of the maximal pension related to the last salary varies between 44% and 72.5% according to the salaries of the grades at the end of the career – grades 52 to 15; for the same levels the proportion of the maximal pension related to the pensionable salary varies between 59.5% and 79.2%)</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>Final annual salary comprised of 13 monthly salaries, reduced by 19,200 CHF (= 458,304 Flux) used as a contribution to the national insurance (first pillar), obligatory for the whole population.</td>
<td>60% of considered salary, received after deductions; (if the pensionable salary amounts to 13 monthly salaries, 65% is attained). If the pension from the national insurance is added: 19,200 FS per year maximum= 458,304 Flux; both pensions together may add to 90%</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>The best salary period out of 12 months in the course of the last 3 years</td>
<td>50% of considered salary (56.25% , if the person is older than 65 years and 45 years of service can be considered)</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Average for all pension regimes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Normal calculation</th>
<th>74.87%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under consideration of supplementary benefits and periodic allowances</td>
<td>84.11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Without the pension regime of Luxembourg**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Normal calculation</th>
<th>74.27%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under consideration of supplementary benefits and periodic allowances</td>
<td>84.16%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

highest old-age benefits. In addition, the principle of gender-neutral pay results in fewer differences in pension size (this also applies to additional benefits in the public sector) between female and male civil servants. These results show that several mechanisms interact: the on average higher incomes in the civil service (as compared to the private sector), the normally employment (seldom interrupted by unemployment), the final salary as the basis for pension entitlement (instead of the individual average income), and finally the higher maximum pension benefits (as compared to the private sector, where the maximum pension benefits are lower).

References


Notes

1 For each of these subjects there are separate fields of literature which have only little relation with one another. The number of relevant titles is so large that there is little use in mentioning only a few of them. Comparative research in these areas – with the exception of research on state expenditure and, recently, on earnings, perhaps – is still in a stage of development.

2 The state of the development of public employment up to the beginning of the 1980s and prior to the beginning of job cuts has been elaborated most extensively by Richard Rose et al. (1985).

3 The only systematically comparative stock-taking of pension regulations in the civil service of the EU member countries was presented by Neyens and Koob 1992.
European Institute of Public Administration (EIPA), Maastricht

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- **Focus on Integration Issues**
  The central role of the Institute relates directly to the process of European integration, and to the special demands which that causes in respect of issues of multilayer governance, international coordination and cooperation and the adaptation of national systems of governance and administration.

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**Structure**

EIPA’s Board of Governors is composed of representatives from the governments of the EU Member States and the European Commission. The former, appointed by the Member States, are normally senior civil servants responsible for human resources management. The current Chairman of the Board is Henning Christophersen, former Vice-President of the European Commission, who is Danish. The Vice-Chairman is Carlo Trojan; he is Dutch and Secretary-General of the European Commission.

The Institute has a Scientific Council, a separate body which advises the Director-General on matters relating to scientific policy. It is composed of directors of national institutes of public administration in the Member States and prominent academics. The Council is currently chaired by Jaakko Kuusela (FIN), Managing Director of the Finnish Institute of Public Management. The Vice-Chairmen are Désiré de Saedeleer (B), Director-General of Training Institute of the Federal Administration within the Civil Service Ministry, and Derry Ormond from the United Kingdom, Head of the Public Management Service of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD).

Policy formulation and implementation, representation and daily management are the responsibility...
of the Director-General, Mrs Isabel Corte-Real, who is from Portugal.

Staff

The total number of permanent staff at EIPA is about 100. The expert staff is drawn from all Member States of the European Union and other countries preparing for EU accession, both to ensure Union-wide coverage and to facilitate contacts. The experts in EIPA’s faculty are selected to cover the main disciplines of importance in public administrations; political science, law, public administration and management, and economics. Some are academics while others are public officials seconded to EIPA from national administrations. Since 1998, the European Commission has also agreed to second officials from the Commission to EIPA.

In addition to its permanent scientific staff, the Institute has a multidisciplinary network of visiting experts from the Member States and the European institutions to cover all specialized topics of importance to public administrations.

EIPA’s scientific team is backed up by its varied and multilingual administrative staff.

The official working languages within the Institute, as laid down in its statutes, are English and French. However, other languages, in particular German, may be used when it proves appropriate to the activity.

EIPA’s Antennae

In 1992, EIPA established an antenna in Luxembourg known as the European Centre for Judges and Lawyers. This centre is located on the Kirchberg Plateau in Luxembourg, close to the Court of Justice and the Court of First Instance of the European Communities. It offers various training programmes in European law provided by a team of qualified legal experts drawn from EIPA’s extensive network of internal and external experts.

The Barcelona Antenna was established in 1996 with the aim of promoting regional cooperation and uniform implementation of Community policies at a regional level within the EU Member States. The objectives of this European Centre for the Regions are: to create a forum for reflection on the problems of the regions and their role within European integration, to develop cooperation between the regions of the EU Member States; to formulate studies and research on regional training centres with a view to increasing their cooperation.

EIPA’s International Function

EIPA and the European Union

EIPA is primarily concerned with programmes aimed at improving the understanding of EU processes and policies, developing the capacities of the administrations of Member States to cope with European integration, and assisting in the development of cooperation between these administrations. With the support of the European Commission, the Institute not only provides the secretariat but also produces the working documents for the informal meetings of the Ministers in charge of Public Service, and for biannual meetings of the Directors-General of the Public Services of the EU Member States. In addition, it plays an active role in stimulating multilateral cooperation among national institutes which provide training for civil servants and judges in order to develop their capacities in relation to European affairs. It has organized, in the framework of its antenna in Luxembourg and with the support of the European Commission, several think-tank seminars which allowed those responsible for training judges to discuss and make proposals concerning Community law.

EIPA regularly organizes seminars on behalf of and at the request of EU institutions such as the European Commission and the European Parliament. Similarly, EIPA carries out activities at the request of individual governments, addressing their specific needs. An example of such a tailor-made activity is the Presidency programme, which helps to prepare the senior officials of national administration for EU presidency.

The Institute also organizes seminars which are open to civil servants, judges, lawyers and academics from across the EU and from countries outside the Union. A notable example is the European Negotiations seminar, which enables participants to practise the strategies and tactics relevant to European negotiations and to examine ways in which to promote the efficient conduct of such negotiations. Another interesting example is the series of Comitology seminars designed for civil servants from Member States who are involved in the political process in the Community by means of various expert and comitology committees and Council working groups in which they represent their governments.

Finally, EIPA aims to assist regional and local governments to function effectively within the EU and to benefit from relevant Community policies. In this respect, the European Centre for the Regions in Barcelona plays an influential role.

EIPA and the Associated Partners of the EU

As the European Union has been strengthening its relations with Central and East European applicant countries and with Cyprus, so has EIPA. In this framework, a cooperation agreement between EIPA and Hungary was concluded which provides for the secondment of a Hungarian expert to the Institute as well as the running of tailor-made activities to meet specific requirements of this country.

In this context, the Institute evaluates and monitors closely the various proposals for institutional and policy reform in view of the impending enlargement of the European Union. In particular, it has undertaken critical research on the subjects of the Agenda 2000. This research has provided valuable input to the seminar activities and consultancy work of EIPA.

At the request of the European Commission and the governments of the Member States, EIPA carries out
seminars and consultancy work in countries in Central and Eastern Europe to support their preparation for eventual accession to the Union. These seminars aim to familiarize public servants with the legal system and the functioning of the EU and provide fresh input into the economic and administrative reform in countries in this region. EIPA seminars – which are often funded by the EU’s Phare and Tacis programmes or by bilateral programmes between EU Member States and associated Central or East European countries – are geared to government officials and to parliamentarians of these countries. A special relationship has been established between EIPA and the Foundation for European Studies - European Institute in Lodz, Poland. In this framework a series of filial activities are organized jointly in order to strengthen the capacity of the Polish administration to adjust to the acquis communautaire. These activities are sometimes open to other administrations.

In addition, EIPA is involved in a number of projects on the structure and content of curricula for public administration academies and postgraduate European studies at universities in Central and Eastern Europe. While constantly updating and improving its products and services, EIPA is developing programmes of technical assistance and training on approximation of national legislation with that of the European Union and on the process of accession to the Union.

### EIPA and the Partners of the EU across the Globe

The European Union, being the largest single market and trade bloc in the world, naturally has an intricate network of bilateral agreements. At the same time, other countries are very interested in learning about the Union.

For a number of years, EIPA has been an active participant in the EU’s technical assistance programmes for China, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), the New Independent States (NIS) which have emerged from the former Soviet Union and the Rio Group in Latin America. In order to support regional integration in Latin America, EIPA established a Training Centre for Regional Integration (CEFIR) in Montevideo, Uruguay, on behalf of the European Union and of the Rio-Group countries in 1993. CEFIR carries out seminars, short courses, research work and institutional collaboration, as well as a three-month diploma of advanced studies in regional integration and international negotiations.

### Activities

Every year EIPA runs approximately 300 separate activities and welcomes some 6,000 participants from more than 40 different countries to its training events. EIPA activities are normally held in English or French, although several EIPA seminars offer simultaneous interpretation to and from other languages. In addition, tailor-made activities often take place in the participants’ country and their national language.

### Training

EIPA adapts its training services to its target group, which varies from civil servants, judges and lawyers involved in the formulation and implementation of European policies to European, national or regional politicians, and from European experts from public services to experts from employers’ and consumer organizations or trade unions. The training sessions often comprise case studies and simulations experienced within European processes. This is particularly the case during the Comitology and Committees, the Presidency and the European Negotiations seminars, and within the postgraduate programme leading to a Master’s degree in European legal studies which the Luxembourg Antenna organizes in cooperation with the European University Centre in Nancy and the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki.

Furthermore, EIPA will also be involved through two modules in a new Master’s degree in European Public Affairs, which will be launched by the University of Maastricht at the beginning of the academic year 1999-2000.

“Action training” centred around the practice and experience of the participants has been developed particularly for groups of high-level officials. EIPA’s EuroManagers programme offers these senior public servants the opportunity to upgrade their knowledge and skills in the management of EU-related matters.

Training through mobility – learning by way of first-hand contact with partners of other countries – and the exchange of experiences feature prominently in the Karolus programme, which aims to promote convergent implementation of internal market legislation, and within similar programmes in the fields of asylum and migration.

EIPA has its own teaching staff – members of its multidisciplinary and multinational faculty. In addition, EIPA has a vast international network of experts at its disposal in order to be able to meet the highly diversified and specialized needs of public administrations.

### Research and Consultancy

Research is an integral part of the work of EIPA and, in keeping with the mission of the Institute, should be both policy-relevant and applied. The research activities of EIPA’s faculty are closely related to the main fields in which it provides training; for example research into the different styles of presidencies in the context of the Presidency programme. The results of research into the implementation of Community legislation and into comparative public administration at a European level, to mention two more examples, are also used during training sessions.

Research and consultancy activities are designed to meet the current and future needs of practitioners responsible for formulating and managing European policies. As well as leading to publications, research filters through to training programmes via
the preparation of case material and policy studies, comparative studies of policy management and investigations of capacities for managing integration. Research and consultancy also involves playing a “think-tank” role in addressing the distinctive issues and new challenges facing what is the most advanced system of regional integration in the world, and finding new ways of meeting these challenges.

Information and Documentation

EIPA’s professional library houses a collection of some 20,000 volumes on relevant subjects such as public administration and management, political science, law and economics, as well as subscribing to approximately 200 periodicals. It was granted the status of European Documentation Centre in 1990, which means that it receives the English version of all the official European Union documents as well a number of them in French and German. In 1994, the library was granted the status of Depository Library of the Council of Europe.

EIPA’s library utilizes the latest computer technology and can provide access to its own catalogue, as well as to all EU databases, on-line and/or on CD-ROM, such as CELEX (interinstitutional full-text documentary system for European law), SCADPLUS/SCAD (bibliographical database containing more than 190,000 titles of documents on EU policy), RAPID (selection of press releases and background information notes within two hours of the daily midday briefing in Brussels). There are terminals at the disposal of visitors who can also use them to surf the Internet. The library is open to the public from 08.30 to 17.00 hrs, Monday to Friday.

Publications

Professional research papers, seminar proceedings and working papers are published and distributed by EIPA. Research papers are published by EIPA in a new series called “Current European Issues”. All these publications can be ordered directly from the Institute. A complete list of all recent and forthcoming publications can be obtained either directly from the publications department or by consulting the Internet site: http://www.eipa.nl/publications/default.htm. The list has links to a summary and the front pages of publications (including the table of contents, etc.), as well as to information on prices, authors, ISBN nos. and the language version available. Ordering books can be done by submitting the on-line form, or sending the form back by post or fax. The working papers are in full text and may be downloaded free from EIPA’s web site.

EIPA’s Bulletin

EIPA’s bulletin EIPASCOPE is published three times a year and contains articles in English and French on a wide variety of EIPA-related subjects, as well as a Newsletter of the Regions in the European Union and a provisional programme of activities for the coming months. Recent and forthcoming EIPA publications are listed on the back cover. EIPASCOPE can be obtained free of charge on request by contacting the publications department. It can also be accessed on the Internet site (http://www.eipa.nl), where all issues published to date can be found.

Recent EIPA Books and Working Papers

Books

Veerle Deckmyn
Available in both English and French

Openness and Transparency in the European Union
Veerle Deckmyn and Ian Thomson (eds.)
Available in English

Civil Services in the Europe of Fifteen: Current Situation and Prospects
Astrid Auer, Christoph Demmke and Robert Polet
Available in English, French and German

Working Papers (WP)

An Institution’s Capacity to Act: What are the Effects of Majority Voting in the Council of the EU and in the European Parliament?
Madeleine O. Hosli
Available in English

The Senior Civil Service: A Comparison of Personnel Development for Top Managers in Fourteen OECD Member Countries
Research carried out under the authority of The Office of the Senior Public Service in the Netherlands
Available in English

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CATEWE - A Comparative Analysis of Transitions from Education to Work in Europe

The transition from education to work is one of the most crucial phases in the life-cycle of individuals because it often channels and shapes individual careers and life chances. These transitions differ between European countries due to different educational systems, labour markets, and organization of societal work.

1 Objectives and Approach

CATEWE aims at analysing the transition from education to work in a comparative European perspective. The research is conducted to develop a more satisfactory framework for understanding transitions in different European systems and to use this framework to analyse the factors affecting success and failure in education/training outcomes and labour market integration. The main objective of this study is to describe and explain differences amongst individuals, and differences in patterns amongst countries, in the nature and “success” of young people’s transitions from full-time education into the labour market.

Our analyses of these transitions are based on cross-sectional analyses at the individual level, using Labour Force Surveys and national school leavers’ surveys, as well as on longitudinal surveys of young people during their initial years in the labour market. In addition, analyses will take into account changes over time in the pattern of education to work transitions.

The explanatory framework starts from the proposition that (macro) national institutional differences in educational and training systems, and corresponding varying relationships to labour market entry processes, constitute some of the most important influences on individual (micro) level transitions. At the macro level, our interest is in those institutionalised processes - including market processes - which structure or mediate individuals’ education/training outcomes and subsequent entry into the labour market, and the effects of these institutionalised processes on individual level transitions. At the individual level, our interest is in socially structured differences in processes or outcomes by social category - gender, age, social class and ethnicity; and the way in which this social differentiation relates to institutional differences. In addition, however, we will attempt to assess the varying extent to which pathways and transition processes have become more individualised and less structured over time, as well as national similarities and differences in these respects.

2 Key Research Questions

Our central research questions refer to the nature of education-to-work transitions in specific EU countries: particularly the way in which national institutional arrangements in education and training (ET) systems and related modes of labour market (LM) integration affect the nature of the transition process, in terms of employment returns to education/training, “success” in transition, and the length, sequencing and “turbulence” of transition patterns.

Five basic research questions structure our research:

1. What is the nature and extent of similarities and differences in education/training systems in the EU countries studied, and in the associated type and level of education and training achieved by current school/college leavers entering the labour market?
2. What is the relationship between differences in education/training outcomes and the social background (ascriptive) characteristics of school leavers: gender, social class, ethnic origin? Do such social differences vary systematically across national systems?
3. How do transition (particularly school-to-work) processes vary systematically across countries (e.g. in terms of their length, complexity, and process of “settling down” in the labour market)? To what extent are these differences related to differences in education/training and labour market structures?
4. What is the nature and extent of the relationship between level and type of educational achievements of school/college leavers and (the success of) their transition processes and outcomes? How do these relationships vary by type of system?
5. What is the relationship between social background characteristics and labour market outcomes? To what extent is this mediated by education?

3 A Conceptual Framework of Transitions in Europe

The conceptual framework takes account of three interrelated elements:

(a) the demographic, economic and labour market context within which transitions occur;
(b) the dimensions of the education/training system;
(c) the nature of the transition process.

Since the focus of the project is specifically on comparative perspectives on youth transitions rather than cross-national variation in overall labour market characteristics, the focus will be on developing elements (b) and (c). The framework will deal with contextual issues only in so far as they influence the nature of the education/training system and its relationship with labour market outcomes, since they primarily apply to the state of the business cycle, structural changes in the economy or the demographic and family structure at the national level (cf. Figure 1). With respect to these former aspects, the concept of transitions is crucial to the study as features of transition processes are thought to be dependent on the institutional structure of education/training systems.
Concept of Transition

For the purposes of this study, the concept of transition is seen as referring to a sequence of statuses or positions achieved over a period of time from a point in full-time education (or at the “end point” of such education) to a point some years later when the majority of such “school leavers” have reached a “stable” adult status. The traditional sequence in times of low unemployment was from full-time education into the labour market, either directly or indirectly through an apprenticeship. In this case, most young people experienced only a short period of job search and job changing before obtaining secure employment. However, the growth of youth unemployment has been associated with a number of changes in the nature of this transition process. Firstly, the number and complexity of status changes has increased in most countries, particularly in the context of the expansion of youth training and employment schemes. Secondly, the time taken to “complete” the transition has increased significantly, due to delayed entry into the labour market, greater “turbulence” in job trajectories and the expansion of training/employment schemes. Thirdly, a number of researchers have argued that there has been greater individualisation, encouraging young people to plan and negotiate their “careers” within the context of existing opportunities and resources; with some research even suggesting that the influence of social characteristics on educational and occupational achievement have become less pronounced over time. Important features of the transition process, therefore, include:

1. The number of transition stages: the number of changes in status or position experienced by a young person in a specified period.
2. The length of the individual transition period: the time from leaving the education/training system to attaining a “stable” labour market position.
3. Differentiation between transition statuses: including the distinction between different transitional statuses (such as schemes, supported employment, “first job”) as well as the extent of overlap between statuses.
4. The nature of trajectories in terms of trajectory types: particularly the ways in which education, training, qualification outcomes and employment/unemployment are interrelated in the initial transition period.
5. The extent of individualisation: this concept has tended to be used in two separate senses: (i) a growth in the number and complexity of transitions (which relates to (1) above); (ii) a reduction in the correlation between transition processes and background characteristics such as gender and social class.
6. Transition “outcomes” in terms of specific labour market states at an arbitrarily defined point in or at the “end” of the transition sequence. The main outcomes to be addressed by CATEWE are principal economic activity, occupational status, industrial allocation, wages, content congruence, that is, matching between type of education and type of occupation, and “level congruence”, or the extent of “matching” between level of education and occupational status amongst others.

Dimensions of Education and Training Systems

Education and training systems in Europe differ along a number of
dimensions which affect the nature of education/training received by young people and which have clear implications for their subsequent transitions into work and the positions attained in the labour market. The following dimensions appear to be the most important sources of variability for the purposes of our project:

- **Standardisation**
  
  refers to the extent to which curricula, examinations and certification are standardised and “quality assurance standards are ensured” on a national or regional basis. Standardisation is relevant because it enables employers to assess job candidates in terms of their education/training qualifications. These can be taken as a direct indicator of particular skills or proficiency in certain areas or as a proxy for more diffuse characteristics, such as underlying ability, motivation, punctuality, obedience etc. While all of the study countries can be seen as quite highly standardised in terms of their initial education systems, greater variation is apparent between countries in the degree to which vocational training is nationally standardised and the way in which this relates to educational standardisation.

- **Differentiation**

  There are three senses in which education/training systems differentiate between young people:

  1. Differentiation between institutions or curricular programmes at the same stage
     
     This “track differentiation”, mainly between academic and vocational routes, may involve students attending different institutions or may occur within the same establishment. Systems differ in the timing of this differentiation, the degree of “track differentiation”, the boundaries between tracks and the potential for movement between tracks at the same stage. ET systems also differ in relation to the extent to which vocational options are occupationally specific.

  2. The extent and nature of formal differentiation at the end of each stage
     
     In addition to considering the difference between academic and vocational tracks, it is necessary to assess the way in which the education/training system “ranks” or “sorts” individuals at the end of each stage. We use this dimension to refer to differentiation in terms of awards such as grades. The main comparative dimension to such outcome differentiation, therefore, is the degree to which qualifications indicate performance level of students at the final examination taken.

  3. The relationship between differentiation and progression into the next stage. The nature of differentiation in particular systems may affect whether young people can progress to the next stage, whether they can move between different routes or tracks and the type of further education and training to which they have access. In addition, those who have taken vocational tracks may not have access to higher education on the same basis as those who have taken academic routes.

These three dimensions reflect the way in which education/training systems differentiate among their students. Differentiation is likely to have an impact on transition processes as it implies an institutionally defined structure of the value of qualifications, which in turn is likely to be adhered to in recruitment decisions. These macro-level dimensions also shape the nature of the decisions made by young people (and their families) in terms of participation in education and training. Cross-national analyses will allow us to investigate variation in the relative importance of these dimensions.

- **School-to-work linkages: the role of employers in the education/training system**

  Countries vary in the extent to, and way in, which employers are involved in the education/training system. This is likely to have important consequences for the nature of the transition process among young people, e.g. in terms of occupational matching of qualifications and jobs but also in patterns of job attainment. Employer involvement can be considered along a dimension ranging from a direct role in training provision, influence in curricular specifications and decisions, direct school placement functions to little direct involvement in the educational system.

- **Youth training**

  The nature of state provision for youth training relates both to the education/training system and to the labour market. There appears to be cross-national variation in the level of youth training provision, the extent of formal differentiation between tracks of youth training and the extent of inclusion of youth training into the education and training system. As “trainees” occupy an ambiguous position in their national labour markets in general, these cross-national differences are expected to translate into a respective shaping of the transitions observed.

**Models of Education to Work Transitions**

We readily acknowledge that many of the above dimensions of education and training systems are correlated at the national level. In this sense, it might be beneficial to think in terms of different national models of labour market integration. Such clusters of institutional arrangements are preliminarily defined according to two of the most important dimensions of ET systems (standardisation and curricular differentiation) and their possible relationships (linkages) to labour market entry processes (cf. Table 1). Notions of integration regime types may serve to illustrate the likely type of relationships between ideal type models of macro to micro level relationships and give a kind of holistic overview on the stratification achievements of different sets of institutions shaping labour market entry. At one extreme of the continuum of European states, one might place the German “dual system”
Table 1: A typology of ET systems and labour market linkages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School-Work Linkage</th>
<th>Degree of Standardisation of ET System</th>
<th>Degree of Differentiation of ET System</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Strong Linkage</td>
<td>Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Denmark</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Collinear Linkage</td>
<td>The Netherlands</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) De-coupled, Strong Market Signals</td>
<td>England, France, Ireland, Finland, Italy, Israel</td>
<td>Scotland, Sweden, Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) School placement function</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) De-coupled, Weak Market Signals</td>
<td></td>
<td>Canada, USA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


which institutionally constructs, supports and potentially constrains individual trajectories. At the other end of the continuum there is the “open market” model (perhaps typified by Ireland) where there are much fewer institutionalised connections between education, training and the labour market, and potentially more open competition between those with different levels and types of educational qualification for the same occupational positions. By taking this kind of abstract perspective on transitions from education to work we intend to arrive at a broad overview on the institutionally induced variation in transition processes in Europe.

4 Project Context and Expected Outputs

CATEWE is a research network established to address issues in comparative research on youth integration into the labour market on the basis of the above framework. The network is funded by the European Commission under the Targeted Socio-Economic Research (TSER) programme for the period December 1997-December 2000. Research is co-ordinated by the Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI), Dublin, and the full network comprises the Centre for Educational Sociology (CES), Edinburgh, DESAN Market Research, Amsterdam, the Research Centre for Education and the Labour Market (ROA), Maastricht, the Centre d’Études et de Recherches sur les Qualifications (CEREQ), Marseille, as well as the Mannheim Centre for European Social Research. Additionally, the Hoger instituut voor arbeid (HIVA), Leuven, and the Instituto para a Inovação na Formação (INOFOR), Lisbon, take part in the research as subcontractors to the original CATEWE partners, while the Swedish Institute for Social Research (SOFI), Stockholm, is associated to the network based on own funds. Within the CATEWE project, the MZES co-ordinates empirical analyses of the European and national Labour Force Surveys. Under the CATEWE research period it is hoped to achieve the following tasks:

1. to formulate a refined conceptual framework for comparative analysis of transitions from education to work, esp. highlighting their institutional embeddedness;
2. to arrive at an exploration of national similarities and differences in education and training systems and their outcomes;
3. to arrive at an identification of the main factors influencing successful labour market entry in conjunction with an attempt to explain similarities and differences in the observed patterns. Comparative explanations will be based on institutional hypotheses referring to the structure of education and training systems respectively labour market integration regimes as detailed above.

The CATEWE Network

Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI), Ireland (Project Co-ordinator)
Mannheimer Zentrum für Europäische Sozialforschung (MZES), Germany (LFS co-ordinator)
Centre for Educational Sociology (CES), Scotland
DESAN Market Research, The Netherlands
Research Centre for Education and the Labour Market (ROA), The Netherlands
Centre d’Études et de Recherches sur les Qualifications (CEREQ), Marseille
Hoger instituut voor arbeid (HIVA), Belgium (sub-contractor)
Instituto para a Inovação na Formação (INOFOR), Portugal (sub-contractor)
Swedish Institute for Social Research (SOFI), Sweden (associated partner)
4. the development of proposals to harmonize existing school leaver surveys, and the provision of advice and encouragement to research teams and countries planning to establish such surveys. Project results are to be published and disseminated through reports, working papers, conference presentations, and publications in scientific journals. Specifically, the project will directly contribute to the OECD’s current Thematic Review of the Transition from Initial Education to Working Life, and is integrated into other policy relevant channels through national or EU-level networks.

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Presentation


This volume is the sixth in a series of guidebooks, annotated bibliographies, bibliometrical analyses and meta-information for the social sciences, entitled “Europe in Comparison”. The series is published by Heinrich Best on behalf of the InformationsZentrum Sozialwissenschaften, Bonn, and Peter Flora on behalf of the Mannheim Centre for European Social Research.

This book is conceived as a guide to sources of official statistics which are relevant for the social sciences and empirical social research in a European context. Official statistics is, apart from university social survey research, probably the most important data source particularly for sociology, political science and economics. Although official statistics is one of the most important sources for social research, it is not easy to get an overview of available statistical data or to find statistical information on specific subjects. The situation is even worse if one looks for statistical data for other European countries produced by national statistical offices or intergovernmental organizations. The problems are aggravated by the fact that national statistical systems differ considerably and that statistical publications usually are only available in the respective country’s language.

This volume therefore intends to help users to find statistics for European countries. The countries dealt with are eighteen Western European countries: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, The Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. In addition to national statistics coming from these eighteen countries, statistical titles published by intergovernmental and supranational organizations are also listed. Special importance was placed on the United Nations, its specialized organizations and other bodies relevant to the social sciences. A second section deals with international organizations outside the UN-system which produce data that are relevant for the social sciences. A third section presents information on statistics published by the different regional organizations of Europe, the most important ones being the OECD, EFTA, Council of Europe and, finally, the European Union with EUROSTAT. A final section deals with statistics coming from intergovernmental organizations which only embrace a segment of the countries of Europe, as the Nordic Council or the Benelux Union. Apart from international and national statistics, secondary statistics in the form of historical and comparative data handbooks and statistical compendia are listed. The introduction describes, among other things, the historical development of international and national statistics, its current organization, major development trends, advantages and limits of official statistics.

The composition of the eighteen chapters on national statistics is standardized. A short introduction to the history and development of official statistics in each country precedes seven sections. The first section “General Publications” lists summarizing accounts and historical descriptions of the statistical system resp. office of the country. In section two “Catalogues” main sources of information on national statistics are listed, such as catalogues of statistical publications, statistical bibliographies, working programmes, etc.

In a third section “Series and Periodicals” the bulk of statistical information is presented. The main categories of statistical publications are: statistical abstracts, monthly (or quarterly) statistical reviews, and special statistical series with specific subjects. These statistical series deal with all the main statistical fields and are usually subdivided into a large number of such different topics as demography, labour market, education, health, national accounts, social security, environment, etc. As each country developed its own classification system, no effort was made to bring these different systems into an artificial new system. The fourth section deals with the “Population Censuses” as one main source of statistical information. The published results from the population censuses since the 1970s are listed title by title. Most of the censuses conducted prior to the 1970s have already been documented in other guides, therefore reference is made to these earlier guides. The fifth section is devoted to publications on social indicators and social reports as important products of official social statistics. A sixth section deals with “Historical Statistics” in the sense of specialized or comprehensive publications summarizing in the form of time series results of official statistics in a diachronically comparable way. This section only contains historical statistics published by the national statistical offices, while historico-statistical compendia published by others are included in the chapter on “Secondary Statistics”. The seventh and last section on “Databases” presents important statistical online and offline data bases run by the national statistical institutes. Furthermore data on electronic media (on diskette or CD-ROM) that can be obtained from national statistical offices are described.

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New Alliances and Concentration: Swiss Trade Unions in a process of restructuring

„Switzerland: Still as Smooth as Clockwork?“ is the question posed by Robert Fluder and Beat Hotz-Hart in the title of their recently published contribution analyzing the development trends of industrial relations in Switzerland.

Since the peace accord in the engineering and watch-making industry was concluded in 1937, conflicts of interests between employers and employees were mostly resolved peacefully. In Switzerland, the foundation of industrial relations is a long-standing tradition of a pragmatic policy based on agreements within the framework of a pronounced social partnership. There are hardly any cases of industrial action; Switzerland belongs to those countries in the world with the smallest number of strikes.

It is true that, due to the economic crisis, the bargaining environment became tougher in the 90s and resulted in an increase in protests on the part of the Swiss labour force as well as demonstrations and individual strikes against wage cuts and deregulation (Official statistics documented three cases of labour conflict in 1996 with 5,900 workers and employees in five companies participating, Statistical Yearbook 1998, 165). These actions, however, cannot be regarded as a sign of a general increase in conflict; they signal even less that there is a shift by unions to a militant strategy (Fluder 1998, 158).

Even though some regional unions have meanwhile asked for a tougher stance, the “cooperative relations between the social partners still predominate, reinforced by the integration of the professional representatives of each side in a network of policy-making institutions” (Fluder and Hotz-Hart 1998, 279).

Altogether, the authors therefore come to the conclusion that the question posed in the title of their contribution can be answered with a “yes” as regards collective bargaining: „Swiss industrial relations are undergoing a minor upheaval. (…) There has been a certain increase in conflict, but in general there remains a strong commitment to find consensusual solutions and corporatist institutions remain intact. In most areas the acceptance of social partnership remains” (ibid. 280).

In the 90s, however, things no longer went as smooth as a clockwork for the Swiss union movements. Since the beginning of the decade the impacts of industrial change and the economic crisis have been weakening the position of the unions. Many unions had suffered considerable membership losses in the last few years; due to financial losses the existence of some of them was even threatened. This development is not a phenomenon typical of the Swiss trade union movement alone; collective organizations in most other European countries are facing the same problems (Hoffmann and Waddington 1998).

As a result of its structural weaknesses, however, the Swiss unions’ structure is particularly affected by the impacts of the employment crisis. As a reaction to the membership decline and the weakened effectiveness of trade unions, for the first time in five centuries a noticeable concentration of trade unions can be observed in Switzerland. Before the current state of this restructuring process will be presented, some characteristics of the Swiss union landscape will be outlined.

With a union density of 22.5 % in 1994 (ILO-World Labour Report 1997-98 - calculated as union membership as % of wage and salary earners), the Swiss trade unions rank third from last compared to other European countries, followed only by Spain with 18.6 % and France with 9.1 %. With approximately 800,000 collectively organized manual and white-collar workers at present, the rate of membership is comparatively low in Switzerland. In addition, these members are organized in an extremely heterogenous and fragmented trade union system – a feature that has always been characteristic of the Swiss trade union movement. This diversity is a result of the establishment and continuous development of separate union branches and occupational unions, the formation of separate manual and white-collar organizations with their own umbrella confederations as well as of the division along political-ideological lines.

The Swiss Trade Union Confederation (Schweizerischer Gewerkschaftsbund - SGB), which is linked to the Swiss Social Democratic Party, was founded in 1880. It was and still is the largest umbrella federation at the national level. At the beginning of this century a rival Catholic trade union movement formed; its industrial unions joined the Christian National Trade Union Confederation (Christlichnationaler Gewerkschaftsbund - CNG) in 1907. It is politically affiliated to the Christian Democratic People’s Party (Christliche Volkspartei - EVP). The Swiss Association of Protestant Workers (evangelischer Arbeitnehmerverband - SVEA) functioned as a mutualistic organization after 1907 and was formally established as a trade union in 1920; in 1982 it joined the CNG. In 1919 the National Association of Free Swiss Workers (Landesverband Freier Schweizer Arbeitnehmer - LFSA) was founded, which stood for national-liberal goals and peaceful industrial relations. The confederation for status-oriented white-collar workers in the private sector was founded in 1918, the Swiss White-Collar Federation (Vereinigung Schweizerischer Angestelltenverbände - VSA) (Fluder et al. 1991, 64-70).

The numerous organizations forming outside the confederations and associations contributed to a further diversification of the Swiss trade union system. Altogether 32 organizations, that is, most of the so-called “independent unions”, were founded between 1919 and 1970. Up to 1918 there existed 15 independent unions, in the 70s and 80s another nine were established. By the mid-90s over 30 independent unions existed with a
total of about 247,000 members (Fluder and Hotz-Hart 1998, 270). They organize special occupational or status groups, such as the banking personnel (Association of Banking Staffs - SBPV with 19,000 members in 1997), teachers (Association of Swiss Teachers / Dachverband Schweizer Lehrerinnen und Lehrer - LCH, 46,000), federal and community employees (Swiss Central Federation of State and Community Employees/Zentralverband Staats- und Gemeindepersonal Schweiz - ZV, 31,000), nurses and orderlies (Swiss Association of Nurses - SBK, 16,000), federal civil servants (Union of Federal Civil Servants - PVB, 16,000) or the police (Association of Swiss Policemen - VSPB, 19,500) (membership data: Bauer 1998, 22). Apart from the formation of different independent unions and a few mergers within the individual groups of trade unions, the structure of the Swiss trade union movement was not changed substantially between the 40s and the 90s.

Beside the high degree of fragmentation, the Swiss trade union movement is characterized by a low degree of vertical integration of the affiliates into the umbrella confederations (SGB, CNG, VSA). Their most important function is the representation of interests at the political level, for example in the field of social policy or in the area of labour legislation. Apart from that they have barely any authority as regards the integration of affiliated unions or sanctions towards them, since these have the determinative responsibilities and the largest part of the resources (Fluder 1996, 419).

It fits into the picture of political-ideological dividing lines that have hardened over decades and heterogeneous organizational structures that the trade unions or trade union groups have not been able to develop general cooperation structures. The only “Agreement on Cooperation” worth mentioning was concluded between the SGB and the VSA in 1928. It was renewed in 1975 for the last time and terminated by the employees’ confederation in 1992. This was obviously the result of increasing competition in the field of recruiting white-collar workers (ibid.).

Cooperation between trade unions is more developed in the public sector where the unions, however, were able to establish themselves predominantly within the rivalling confederations. The Public Services Federation (Föderativverband des Personals öffentlicher Verwaltungen und Betriebe - FoV), which covers mainly SGB unions, and the less important Union of Christian Traffic and State Personnel (Verband des christlichen Verkehrs- und Staats-personals - VGCV) have for a long time formed two “sectoral confederations for the federal staff”. Originally the FoV had made efforts to create a unitary union for the federal staff; they failed, because the affiliates did not want to give up their autonomy (Fluder 1996, 281-96).

Against the background of changes in the public sector (privatization, job cuts), a coordination project including all four groups of trade unions formed in 1995 within the framework of the so-called “Ebenrain Conference” (named after castle Ebenrain in Sissach, where the first meeting took place). However, at present it just provides a platform for discussing common matters of concern. All other plans aimed at concentrating the dwindling powers in the altered economic, societal and political environment of the 90s have mostly been in keeping with the traditional confederations’ position (Fluder 1998, 161). A relativizing or even dissolution of rivalling confederations is not yet in sight, even though far-reaching changes in the labour markets as well as significant membership losses in the last few years have increased the necessity to modernize the organizational structures of the trade union movement.

Figure 1 shows the long-term development of membership and the accelerated membership decline in the most important confederations since the 90s. Altogether, they lost more than 75,000 members or 11 % of their membership between 1992 and 1997. With a minus of 16.7 % the development of the Christian National Trade Union Confederation (CNG) was the most negative one, followed by the Swiss White-Collar Federation with a loss of 9.8 %. The membership of the Swiss trade union movement.

Figure 1: Membership of Major Confederations SGB, CNG and VSA 1940-1997
i.e., the sectors which are most badly affected by the employment crisis resulting from the transformation of an industrial into an information- and service-oriented society and the structural changes this entails. The traditional membership basis of the trade unions is diminishing, as the number of industrial workers continues to decrease. Thus the negative development of membership in the SGB unions in 1997 (15,643 = 3.8 %) was largely a consequence of the membership decline in the Union of Construction and Industry (Gewerkschaft Bau und Holz – GBI). The GBI suffered almost 26.6 %). The GBI suffered almost all members in the public sector (that is, 51 % of all persons employed in this sector), and for only 15 % in the private sector (35 % of all persons employed in the private sector) (Fluder 1998, 45).

As in other European countries, in Switzerland mergers have also become an important strategy of union modernization. In response to their weakened position, brought about by membership decline, financial losses and a reduced capacity to mobilize the movement, the CNG and SGB, in particular, have tended towards a concentration of forces.

Table 1: Number of unions and membership share by domain and type of union 1996

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Private Sector</th>
<th>Public Sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>MS%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGB/FoV</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNG</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VSA</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent unions</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total membership</td>
<td>898.496</td>
<td>528.892</td>
<td>369.604</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = Number of Unions, MS = Membership share


Industry (Gewerkschaft Bau und Industrie - GBI). The largest SGB-affiliated union, the result of the merging of the Union of Textile, Chemical and Paper Industry (Gewerkschaft Textil, Chemie, Papier – GTCP) and the Union of Construction and Wood Workers (Gewerkschaft Bau und Holz – GBH), lost over 10 % of its members in 1997, a loss that is not surprising in view of the continuing crisis in the building sector and the drastic job cuts in the chemical industry (between 1991 and 992 the number of persons employed fell by 26.6 %). The GBI suffered almost three quarters of the total membership loss of all SGB-affiliated unions in that year (Bauer 1998, 3).

At the beginning of the 90s it was partly possible to compensate for losses in the industrial sector by gaining members in the public sector. Whereas total membership in the secondary sector decreased by 65,000 between 1990 and 1997, total membership in the public sector increased by 30,000 (Fluder 1998, 157). Since there have also been job cuts on a large scale within the framework of drastic restructuring processes – concerning the Postal Services and the Railways (SBB), for example – the SGB-affiliated unions in particular cannot compensate for structure-related membership losses in the areas of industry and manufacturing.

The marked differences in the degree of organization between the private and the public sector – in 1996 about 20 % of all persons employed were organized in the private sector, about 35 % in the secondary sector, 42 % in the public sector – can to a high degree be attributed to the trade unions’ organizational deficits (Fluder 1998, 44). Before the “unia”, a special service-sector union, was founded in 1996, the SGB was virtually not represented in this area. In 1997 the “unia” had recruited roughly 10,200 members and had closed the representation gap for the Swiss Trade Union Confederation.

The fact that the independent unions’ losses were considerably lower in the 90s, with some of them even gaining members, is closely linked to their concentrating on the public sector. Here they represent half of all collectively organized workers and are able to profit above all from the rapid growth of employment in the social services (education, health, welfare services) (Fluder 1998, 40).

There also are marked differences between the membership structure in the public sector and the private sector. Relatively few manual and foreign workers are employed in the public sector, while the share of pensioners (21 %) is considerably higher than in the private sector (11 %). In both sectors women are significantly underrepresented. It must be pointed out, however, that the share of women has steadily increased in the last few years. They accounted for 31 % of all members in the public sector (that is, 51 % of all persons employed in this sector), and for only 15 % in the private sector (35 % of all persons employed in the private sector) (Fluder 1998, 45).

As in previous years, the SGB Congress (1994) started a broad discussion about the development of its member unions: “The starting point of modernization and reform processes is the common will of all members to turn the SGB into a stronger federation which is able to act and push through its interests. (...) The Swiss Trade Union Confederation will modernize its structures at all levels continuously and consistently during the next few years” (quotation from Hoffmann and Waddington 1998, 305).

By the end of 1998, two mergers were, more or less successfully, executed within the SGB: the concentration of union forces in the media branch in the new Swiss trade
union “Comedia” (The Swiss Media Union) and the amalgamation of several PTT associations (Postal, Telephone and Telegraph workers) to form the Communication Workers’ Union (Gewerkschaft Kommunikation) (see Table 2).

According to plan, in October 1998 the PTT unions and the Association of Swiss Air Traffic Control Personnel merged to form a union with about 45,000 members. In the project “Comedia”, on the other hand, two partners withdrew during negotiations: the Swiss Association for Mass Media Workers (Schweizerisches Syndikat Medienschaffender - SSM) with about 3,000 members and the Swiss Association of Journalists (Schweizerischer Verband der Journalisten und Journalistinnen - SVJ) with roughly 6,000 members; in ballots membership in the new media workers’ union was voted down. Thus the concentration process in this area involved only four unions with 20,000 members altogether. Comedia was founded in Bern on December 12th, 1998.

Trade union structures were modernized more radically within the CNG. The first step to be taken in a far-reaching concentration process was the merging of all large CNG-affiliated private sector unions. Together with the National Association of Free Swiss Workers (LFSA) they founded the SYNA in 1998, a Christian union which covered several branches. With 85,000 members, SYNA has become the third largest force in the Swiss trade union landscape. Due to its size, it is able to carry out referenda and to play a decisive part in the determination of general conditions of employment. The second step towards a concentration of forces within the Christian confederation is planned.

Table 2: Mergers and planned fusions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>New Organization</th>
<th>Merger</th>
<th>Unions involved</th>
<th>Membership</th>
<th>Confederation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gewerkschaft Bau und Industrie (GBI)/Union of Construction and Industry</td>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Gewerkschaft Textil, Chemie, Papier (GTCP)</td>
<td>SGB</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gewerkschaft Bau und Holz (GBH)</td>
<td>SGB</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comedia – die Mediengewerkschaft/The Swiss Media Union</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>SGB</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gewerkschaft Druck und Papier (GDP)/Trade Union of Print and Paper</td>
<td>12,991</td>
<td>SGB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Schweizerischer Lithographenbund (SLB)/Swiss Lithographic Union</td>
<td>5,199</td>
<td>SGB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Schweizerische JournalistInnen Union (SJU)/Swiss Union of Journalists</td>
<td>Independent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Angestelltenverband des Schweizer Buchhandels (ASB)/Federation of Employees in Swiss Bookstores</td>
<td>Independent</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Gewerkschaft Kommunikation/Communication Workers’ Union</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>45,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Union schweizerischer Post-, Telefon- und Telegrafenbeamter (PTT-Union)/Swiss Union of Postal, Telephone and Telegraph Officials</td>
<td>28,360</td>
<td>SGB</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Verband schweizerischer PostbeamterInnen und Postbeamter (VSPB)</td>
<td>6.421</td>
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<td>Schweizerischer PosthalterInnen und Posthalter-Verband (SPV)</td>
<td>3,897</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Verband schweizerischer Telephon- und Telegraphenbeamten (VSTTB)</td>
<td>4,291</td>
<td>SGB</td>
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<td>Verband des schweizerischen Flugsicherungs Personals (VSFP)</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>SGB</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>Postal employees section of the Personalverband der Bundesverwaltung (PVB)/Union of Federal Civil Servant’s</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>Independent</td>
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<tr>
<td>SYNA (Private service)</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>85,000</td>
<td>CNG</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Christlicher Holz- und Bauarbeiterverband der Schweiz (CHB)</td>
<td>36,379</td>
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<td>Christliche Gewerkschaft für Industrie, Handel und Gewerbe (CMV)</td>
<td>28,163</td>
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<td>Landesverband freier Schweizer Arbeitnehmer (LFSA)/Federation of Free Swiss Workers</td>
<td>17,000</td>
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<td>“Transfair” (Public service)</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>CNG</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Schweizerischer Verband des christlichen PTT-Personals (ChPTT)</td>
<td>10,391</td>
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<td>Verband des Christlichen Staats- und Gemeindepersonals der Schweiz (VCHP)</td>
<td>1,456</td>
<td>CNG</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Verband des Christlichen Bundespersonals (VCB)</td>
<td>1,219</td>
<td>CNG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“KV Tertia”</td>
<td>1998/99</td>
<td>85,000</td>
<td>VSA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Schweizerischer Kaufmännischer Verband (SKV)/Swiss Distributive Workers’ Association</td>
<td>63,770</td>
<td>VSA</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Schweizerischer Bankpersonalverband (SBPV)</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>Independent</td>
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to be the merging of all CNG-affiliated public sector unions. The first ones to form such a new unitary union with the name “Transfair” was the “Confederation of Christian PTW workers”, then renamed to “Christian Confederation of Public Sector and Public Service workers”. By the beginning of 2000 the partners unions GCV (traffic), VGB (federal employees) and VCHP (community and state employees) are planned to have joined. “Transfair” will then represent the interests of about 22,000 employees.

Another project that has long been planned and announced but not yet realized is the merging of the Swiss Distributive Workers’ Association (Vereinigung des Schweizerischen Kaufmännischen Verbands - SKV) – a member of VSA – with the Association of Independent Banking Staff (Unabhängiger Schweizerischer Bankpersonalverband). The product of this merger of white-collar workers’ unions (project name: “KV Tertia”) would be an organization with about 85,000 members, another relatively large Swiss trade union.

Given the strongly fragmented trade union system in Switzerland that has for a long time remained practically unaltered, these reforms are remarkable. Compared to concentration processes in the Netherlands, Austria or Germany, however, Switzerland has a lot to catch up on. At the 50th SGB Congress (held in Davos, November 5th-7th, 1998) the then co-presidents (Vasco Pedrina and Christiane Brunner) took stock of the reform processes and emphasized: “We still are far away from achieving our goal to break up the corporatism isolation of individual unions in favour of a more interprofessional, confederatively organized trade union movement”. According to the co-presidents, the aims in the near future should be to extend the SGB’s power to intervene politically, to strengthen considerably the capacity to mobilize support on the spot, and to force more vehemently the reform of trade union structures (SGB-congress documents in the Internet).
Country Profile: **The Netherlands**

by Franz Rothenbacher

The Netherlands is one of the most highly developed countries of Europe and the world. At the same time it is one of the smallest countries of Europe if the territory of the country is considered: it only covers 41,029 km² and therefore ranks 13th among the 15 countries of the EU. The population density is the highest one of all European countries and one of the highest in the world. Concerning population size it ranks 6th in EU15. The proportion of the Dutch population is 4.1 per cent, that of the territory is 1.3 per cent of that of the EU15.

“Stateness” is rather low, as a distinct centre of the country does not exist. The decentralisation of the population, the cities, universities, etc. is high given the rather short distances.

In terms of economy, The Netherlands is, as it was earlier in history, a trading nation, occupying the most important seaports of the continent, and therefore is the real “gateway” for overseas trade to continental Europe.

**Geography and History**

The Netherlands is located at the North-Western edge of the continent. The country was settled by Germanic tribes and only partially influenced by the Roman empire. In the Middle ages the Netherlands were part of Burgundy; later it came under the rule of the Spanish Habsburgs. The major characteristics of the country started to develop in the 16th century: the influence of Calvinism, the erection of a colonial empire, and the fight for independence. These constellations still exert their influence on the country, as inter alia - the socio-cultural segmentation, the effects of decolonization (immigration from overseas) show.

The Netherlands was one of the first countries on the European continent to develop a republican system. The Eighty Years’ War of independence waged against the Spaniards ended with The Netherlands being recognized as a federation composed of the seven northern provinces. This federation was the reason for giving this system (as was the case with the Swiss cantons) the appellation “con- sociational democracies”. In 1648 the independence of the northern provinces was recognized. The southern provinces remained with the Austrian Habsburgs (and became Belgium later on). Under Napoleon, the northern and southern provinces were reunited (Batavian Republic), but as early as 1830 the southern Catholic and (partly) French provinces left the new Kingdom. Since 1839 boundaries have been more or less stable.

**Politics**

Formally, The Netherlands is a hereditary parliamentary monarchy. For more than a century the country has been reigned by a queen. The political system is bicameral. In the field of politics the country has traditionally been divided into several socio-cultural milieus. Theoretical literature distinguishes between four different milieus: the Roman Catholic, the Protestant, the Socialist, and the Liberal milieu. Parties organized according to these

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table: Statistical comparisons</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Nederland</th>
<th>Noord-Nederland</th>
<th>Oost-Nederland</th>
<th>West-Nederland</th>
<th>Zuid-Nederland</th>
<th>EU 15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Popul. (av., 000s)</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>15,382</td>
<td>1,619</td>
<td>3,163</td>
<td>7,204</td>
<td>3,395</td>
<td>371,007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inhab. Per km²</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>608</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rates per 1,000 inh.</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Live births</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deaths</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population change %, 31.12.1994/1 1.1.1994</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-of-wedlock live births (% live births)</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant Mortality (%)</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age structure %</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under 15 (%)</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>68.6</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td>67.9</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>69.9</td>
<td>67.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-64 (%)</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 and older (%)</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP per capita in PPS (EUR15=100)</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sectoral employment</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture (%)</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>68.5</td>
<td>78.7</td>
<td>67.1</td>
<td>65.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry (%)</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>59.7</td>
<td>57.0</td>
<td>59.6</td>
<td>60.2</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services (%)</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>49.3</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>50.4</td>
<td>49.2</td>
<td>45.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Econ. Activity rate (%)</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (%)</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female (%)</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

milieus. The segmentation of the country into these milieus has been called *pillarization* ("verzuiling") (Arend Lijphart). Taken as an ideal concept, Lijphart stated that the whole society would divide itself into these separate segments. Thus, the main social organizations and groups, such as trade unions, churches, the educational system, social circles and marriage markets would organize along these segmentation lines.

This diagnosis is true until the 1960s, but, as many studies now show, pillarization is vanishing in several fields. The Netherlands participates in the general trend towards secularization (the proportion of those not affiliated with a church is now higher than that of any other religious group). The welfare state and the internationalization of the economy have equalising effects on socio-cultural segments.

**Economy**

During its modern history The Netherlands has predominantly been a nation of merchants, while agriculture and fisheries as well as the crafts came only second. Thus industrialization came about rather late, after the decline of the colonial empire, and not before the end of the 19th century. Since World War II The Netherlands has managed to change its economy and move towards prosperity by means of economic integration, first by creating the Benelux Union, and second by being a founding member of the European Community. The Netherlands has benefitted strongly from the economic integration of Europe, as most of the commodities coming from overseas are channelled through Dutch ports. The Netherlands therefore functions as a gateway to the continent for a large amount of extra- and intra-EU trade. The economy did not experience such disturbances as did the French or Belgian, because The Netherlands did not have coal mining and metal-processing industries to any considerable degree. Instead, they took the lead in the field of industries concerned with crude oil and related products.

Altogether, the development towards a post-industrial society has strongly advanced, and services now dominate the economy, while agricultural employment is very low. But agriculture is nevertheless important in the Dutch economy, and the low employment rate is due to high mechanization. Industrial employment has been declining since several decades, but this is also a result of highly mechanized industries. Public employment is one large part of the service sector, but—although it has grown considerably—it is not as large as in comparable countries.

**Demography and Family**

Given the fact that the population density was very high as early as the 19th century, the continuously (in relation to the European average) high fertility rate is astonishing. The population growth in the last 150 years was very strong, but this cannot only be attributed to high fertility; to a much higher degree it is caused by a rather low infant mortality rate. Thus, the population in 1850 was only about 3 mio. and increased five times in 150 years.

The traditional "bourgeois" family model still plays an important role. Altogether, The Netherlands does not deviate strongly from the European average as regards core demographic indicators. Marriages, e.g., have been frequent until the present, after 1945 even a massive marriage boom set in. And there is no such massive decline in marriage frequency as in the Nordic countries. Until recently, the age at marriage was not much higher than in Western Europe; only the age at first birth has been higher since the 1970s. The age of mothers at all births exceeded the European average in the last 30 years, thus indicating a much longer period of procreation in a woman’s life than in other countries. This explains the rather high fertility rate. Divorces are only slightly more frequent than on the European average.

The only important exception is the traditionally very low rate of births out-of-wedlock which increased in the last two decades, but there is no convergence to the European average. Thus it can be said that the family in the traditional sense still has a strong standing, and values are still strongly in favour of the traditional model. The rather strong female labour force participation does not alter the picture, because nearly two thirds of all women employed have part-time jobs. The part-time employment rate in The Netherlands is the highest one in Europe, as is the rate of male part-time employment.

**Welfare Stateness and Social Reporting**

The growth of the welfare state in The Netherlands has been the strongest of all western European countries since the 1950s. Social protection expenditure is higher than the EU-average and is as high as in the Nordic countries with over 30 per cent of GDP. Special weight in Dutch social security was given to income maintenance, while expenditures for social services are lower by comparison. The generous disability legislation is anomalous in a European context and has lead to a very strong growth in disability benefits. While, on the European average, in 1994 (EU12) 9 per cent of total social protection expenditure went into the "invalidity/disability function", this proportion was 22.3 per cent in The Netherlands, twice the amount comparable countries spent. This anomaly is the consequence of the explosion of disability claims due to very high and generous benefits and the use of this regulation for early retirement by the employers. Reducing these expenditures is a major policy objective. This has become all the more important as high expenditures for disability reduce those for other purposes, as, e.g., for the family, where expenditures are rather low. Welfare state reforms and the expansion of the welfare state were accompanied by the institutionalization of social reporting and the heavy weight given to social statistics. Monitoring the outcomes of welfare policies has become a major objective of such public agencies as the [Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS)](http://www.cbs.nl) and the planning bureaus. The Netherlands have emphasized
Taking social surveys and made permanent the “Survey on the Living Situation” (Leefomstandigheden), which is the basis for the biennial reports. Many other specialized social surveys and social reports have been produced and published.

**Regional Diversity**

Regional diversity is rather low due to high urbanization and strong decentralization. The territory system is polycephalic and belongs to the old city belt (Stein Rokkan). But regional differences do exist. The economic centre is West-Nederland, where not only nearly half of the Dutch population is concentrated, but where the GDP per capita is the highest. The strongest economic development of all Dutch provinces is indicated by the very high population density, the out-migration from this densely populated region, the lowest share of agricultural employment, the highest overall economic activity rate, the highest rate of female employment and the strongest post-modern developments. An example of these latter developments is, e.g., the fact that West-Nederland has the highest out-of-wedlock birth rate of all Dutch provinces. Strongly differing from this economic centre of The Netherlands are the provinces of northern and – especially – eastern Netherlands: rurality and lower urbanization with agriculture and fisheries still shape these provinces.

**Social Data Production**

The Dutch system is unique in the sense that two institutions are the main producers of social data: the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) and the Social and Cultural Planning Office (SCP). The CBS is highly autonomous and strongly oriented to social statistics. It is innovative in that it comes up with new themes and statistical methods. The SCP conducts social surveys and is active in all kinds of social research domains. One of the most important products is the biannual “Social and Cultural Report” (see page 26 of this Newsletter). The third institution in the field of social data delivery is the Steinmetz-Archive, which stores social survey data sets for secondary analyses (for addresses see box above).

**Further Reading**


European Research Institutes

ELIAMEP – Hellenic Foundation for European and Foreign Policy

ELIAMEP was founded in 1988 as an independent non-profit organisation. Its aim is to promote the study of foreign and security policy, European affairs and international relations. In order to achieve this aim the foundation is active in several ways. Since the beginning it has organized more than fifty international conferences. It organizes seminars on the Aegean island of Chalki. Furthermore, ELIAMEP has started considerable and important publishing activities.

The main publications are two yearbooks. The first one, “The South-European Yearbook...”, was started in 1988 and is published in English. It covers all countries of south-east and east Europe in a very systematic way, presenting up-to-date information in the form of surveys and country profiles dealing with political, social, economic and military conditions. The second yearbook, *Greece and the World*, is published in Greek.

Apart from these two yearbooks publications concerning foreign relations, European affairs, political, social and economic problems in the Balkans, Eastern Europe and the East Mediterranean are issued. Furthermore, a series of *Occasional papers* is published (most of them were presented earlier at the Chalki seminars or at international conferences). Several of these can be downloaded from the Internet.

ELIAMEP, 4 Xenophonos Street, Athens GR-105 57, Greece. Tel.: +301 3315022; Fax: +301 3642139; E-mail: eliamep@compulink.gr; Internet: http://www.eliamep.gr.

Recent social reports in Europe

Publishing social reports becomes more and more a routine task of national statistical institutes (NSIs), intergovernmental organizations and national government agencies. In addition to our presentation in the previous edition of this newsletter (No. 7, Spring 1998, p. 34), we can add the following new social reports or social statistics compendia:

- The NSI of Estonia published the socio-statistical compendium “Social trends” for the first time in 1998, presenting social changes since the 1970s. Work in social reporting is supported by the UN ECE and the UNDP programme on “Support for Social and Demographic Statistics”. The following topics are covered: population, education, labour force, household income and consumption, health, social security and criminality. Statistical information is presented by means of informative graphs and tables, and is accompanied by descriptive texts and bibliographical information. A statistical appendix presents additional information.


  - Since 1987, a new system of Health Monitoring of the Federation has been built up in Germany. In 1998, the first comprehensive German health report could be presented. For the first time all relevant health information is synthesized in one social report. Eight chapters cover the following main fields: goals of health reporting, framework conditions of the health system, health status, health behaviour and risks, sickness, health care resources, benefits and use of health care provisions, and expenditure, cost and financing of health system.


  By publishing the 1998 Social and Cultural Report, the Social and Cultural Planning Office (SCP) of The Netherlands celebrates 25 years of social reporting. In 1973, the cabinet of Den Uyl decided to erect the SCP, and in 1974 the first *sccial en Cultureel Rapport appeared. The 1998 report is the 12th edition. The volume of the reports increased considerably from 240 pages of the 1st report to 790 pages of the 12th report. The 1998 report is therefore the most comprehensive and complete social report ever published for the Netherlands. The traditional mixture of objective statistical data and public opinion survey results have been kept. 17 chapters cover the following topics: synthesis, technological developments, demographic developments, economy and welfare state, values and norms in social life, politics, public administration, emancipation, towards a multi-ethnic society, health and health care, labour, social security, housing, education, criminal justice, leisure, the media and cultural activities, and participation. As usual, a shorter English edition will appear later.


Since 1990, the Human Development Report has been published annually. The 1998 report concentrates on consumption from the perspective of human development. There are two main topics related to consumption in a global view. Consumption is very unequally distributed over the world, with 1 billion people being completely deprived of western consumption patterns. The second topic deals with the problem of the sustainability of the consumption model of the industrialized countries with regard to the environment.


Historical statistics

The production of historico-statistical compendia progresses further. Since our last presentation in this
Newsletter (no. 7, 1998, p. 34), several other important titles have appeared. Especially the countries of Eastern Europe, by modernizing their statistical systems, invest enormous efforts in documenting their “statistical history”.

The Czech Statistical Office published in 1998 – for the first time in English - the Czech Demographic Handbook. Population statistics covering the territory of what is the Czech Republic today has a very long tradition and reaches back to 1785. The handbook covers the Czech Republic until 1995-96, former Czechoslovakia and the Slovak Republic until 1992 (mostly from 1920-92). Wherever possible, data for the 19th century or even since 1785 are included. The main databases for the handbook are the population censuses and the annual vital statistics. The main topics covered are: area and population, houses and dwellings, families and households, retrospective population changes, marriages, divorces, births, abortions, deaths, migration, and regional data.


In 1988, the statistical service of Luxembourg published a study on the development of mortality in Luxembourg during this century. This is, at the same time, a very detailed and comprehensive compilation and analysis of mortality statistics. In a first part, main developments in mortality are presented. A second part, the statistical annex, presents annual mortality tables for each generation.


New MZES Publications

Working Papers

The following working papers have just been released and can be obtained from the MZES, University of Mannheim, D-68131 Mannheim. Tel. +49-621-292-1885, Fax +49-621-292-1735. Working papers published since 1997 are also available online. The Internet address: http://www.mzes.uni-mannheim.de/ubli2_D.html.

Research Department I (AB I) ISSN 0948-0072:


Elisabetta Ruspini: Living on the Poverty Line. Lone Mothers in Belgium, Germany, Great Britain, Italy and Sweden. (AB I, No. 28, 1998).


Books

The following books can be ordered from your library or directly from Campus Verlag GmbH, Heerstr. 149, D-60488.


This publication deals with the perspectives of European integration considering the requirements of the European Monetary Union and the planned extension of the EU. It discusses the question which implications these two challenges have for a more extensive participation of European citizens. The contributions focus on three issues: How can the European institutions be developed further? How “European” are the EU citizens today? And how are the interests of EU citizens represented at EU level at present?

Forthcoming Events:

27th European Consortium for Political Research - ECPR Joint Session of Workshops, 26th March-31st March 1999, University of Mannheim, Mannheim Centre for European Social Research (MZES), Germany. Address: L7.1, D-68161 Mannheim, Germany. Further information is available from the local administrative officer: Birgit Blum, MZES, Phone: +49 621 621 292 1884; Fax: +49 621 292 1784; Home page: http://www.mzes.uni-mannheim.de/ECPR; E-mail: ECPR@mzes.uni-mannheim.de. - ECPR Central Services: University of Essex, Wivenhoe Park, Colchester, CO4 3 SQ, Essex, England. Tel. +44 1206 87 2501/2497; Fax +44 1206 87 2500; E-mail: ecpr@essex.ac.uk; WWW address: http://www.essex.ac.uk/ECPR/central.htm.

European Sociological Association (ESA) 4th European Conference of Sociology “Will Europe Work?”, 18th-21st August 1999, Amsterdam, The Netherlands. Organized by SISWO, Netherlands Universities Institute for Coordination of Research in Social Sciences. Conference secretariat: SISWO, Plantage Muidergracht 4, NL-1018 TV Amsterdam, The Netherlands. Phone: +31 20 5270600; Fax: +31 20 6229430; Email: esa@siswo.uva.nl.

Further information is available from the MZES, University of Mannheim, Tel. +49-621-292-1885, Fax +49-621-292-1735. Working papers published since 1997 are also available online. The Internet address: http://www.mzes.uni-mannheim.de/ubli2_D.html.

Abstracts of papers to be submitted should be sent to the organizers until 15 February 1999.

11th World Congress of the International Industrial Relations Association (IIRA) “Developing competitiveness and social justice: the interplay between institutions and social partners”, 22nd-26th September 1999, Bologna, Italy. Info: Congress secretariat, IIRA Congress, Sinnea International, Via Ronco, 3 I-40013 Castelmaggiore (BO), Italy. Phone: ++39-51-632 9511, Fax: ++39-51-632 5050; E-mail: info@iiracongress.com.
EURODATA Research Archive

The EURODATA Research Archive is an infrastructural unit of the Mannheim Centre for European Social Research (MZES) at the University of Mannheim (Germany). The archive has two basic objectives which are closely related to each other:

• to provide an adequate data infrastructure for the Centre’s comparative research on European societies and European integration;
• to contribute to the establishment of a European infrastructure for comparative social research.

EURODATA’s work is structured by own medium-term development and three-annual work plans, relating to three areas of activity:

• the systematic and continuous provision of metainformation on official statistics and social science data from the private sector (information archive);
• the development and maintenance of a library with statistical publications from statistical institutes, ministries, para-official institutions and certain intermediary organisations from the private sector (statistics library);
• the provision of computerised information, with a particular focus on the development of an integrated file system with historical time series and institutional information (file archive).

EURODATA Newsletter

This newsletter is intended to contribute to facilitate data-based comparative research on European societies and polities. It is a product of the EURODATA Research Archive and has three major objectives:

• to disseminate information on the research activities of the Mannheim Centre for European Social Research, with particular emphasis on data-generating cross-national research the archive is involved in;
• to provide information on European data infrastructures and important developments;
• to provide a forum for the exchange of information on ongoing comparative social research on European societies and on European integration.

The newsletter is intended to be an open forum: contributions from other research institutes and individual researchers are always welcome. The EURODATA Newsletter will, as a rule, be divided into eight sections: Feature reports substantive findings from on-going cross-national research. Data Infrastructure reports on data institutions such as data archives, governmental and non-governmental organisations, and covers historical developments and current modes of access to data. Research Institutes presents profiles of research institutions with a cross-national orientation. Research Groups and Projects informs on cooperations and networks in comparative social research on Europe. Computer deals with specific aspects of electronic information processing and the use of electronic networks in comparative research. Country Profile provides background information on individual countries. European Social Indicators gives a picture of the social structure of European societies. Noticeboard provides general news including information about new statistics, recent books and studies, conference reports and announcements.