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Working Paper

Institutional and financial framework for job rotation in nine European countries

WZB Discussion Paper, No. FS I 98-207

Provided in Cooperation with:

WZB Berlin Social Science Center

Suggested Citation: Schömann, Klaus; Mytzek, Ralf; Gülker, Silke (1998) : Institutional and financial framework for job rotation in nine European countries, WZB Discussion Paper, No. FS I 98-207, Wissenschaftszentrum Berlin für Sozialforschung (WZB), Berlin

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discussion paper

FS I 98 - 207

Institutional and Financial Framework for Job Rotation in Nine European Countries

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Dezember 1998
ISSN Nr. 1011-9523

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ZITIERWEISE / CITATION

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Institutional and Financial Framework for Job Rotation in Nine European Countries

Discussion Paper FS I 98 -207

Wissenschaftszentrum Berlin für Sozialforschung 1998

Forschungsschwerpunkt:

Arbeitsmarkt und
Beschäftigung

Research Area:

Labour Market and
Employment

Abteilung:

Arbeitsmarktpolitik und
Beschäftigung

Research Unit:

Labour Market Policy and
Employment

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Abstract

Job rotation as an important element of labour market policy has only a rather short tradition in most Member States of the European Union, except in the scandinavian countries. The transnational partnership "job rotation" was founded at the end of 1995 and financing for job rotation projects came mainly from the Community Initiative ADAPT, but also from the European Structural Funds. Job rotation here is defined as the combination of further training for the employed and substitution by a previously unemployed person. In the non-scandinavian countries manifold local initiatives were started, which operate under very heterogeneous institutional and financial national frameworks. For these reasons a solely quantitative comparison of results of the individual projects may be misleading. We attempt to analyse and compare in this study the legal, political and financial preconditions on the national and local level as well as the relevant incentives for the firm of job rotation projects.

The research strategy of the study initially identifies the major key areas for job rotation projects, which can be deduced from the theory of transitional labour markets. Based on hypotheses about the necessary framework for success of job rotation we then confront these hypotheses with both quantitative and qualitative indicators in a third step. For example, the legal framework is compared on the basis of indicators on the existence of a right to further training for the employed and unemployed, legal obligations or a levy on firms for further training of their employees, dismissal protection legislation in case an employees takes a longer leave as well as the potential use of already existing regulation of active labour market policies for job rotation project. We compare Denmark, Finland, France, Italy, Austria, Portugal, Sweden, United Kingdom and Germany.

The major results are:

1. far-reaching legal or collectively agreed regulations regarding further training for the employed and practice-oriented training for the unemployed and for sections of the non-working population are a necessary precondition for a wider spread of job rotation;
2. incentives for the substitution persons should be clearly positive and through an adequate reimbursement for substitution work, a sufficient increase in comparison to unemployment benefits needs to be assured;
3. costs incurred through job rotation projects should be 'fairly' distributed through a suitable co-funding structure in order to keep the so-called 'deadweight' effects as low as possible,
4. incentives for employees to undergo further training must be guaranteed through the existence of appropriate regulations and leave of absence for the purpose of improving one's skills must be flanked by secure dismissal protection legislation;

5. functional regional policy networks are necessary in order to implement the projects on the interface between labour market policy and structural policy;
6. job rotation in (not only) Germany could gain a new impetus through the wider spread of further training funds based on collective agreements including elements of job rotation and complemented through additional funding by labour market policy or tax reductions to participating firms. Under such a framework job rotation could make a stronger contribution to the reduction of unemployment by at the same time reaching higher productivity.

Zusammenfassung

Jobrotation als wichtiges Element der Arbeitsmarktpolitik hat in den meisten Mitgliedsländern der Europäischen Union, mit Ausnahme der skandinavischen Länder, eine kurze Tradition. Erst Ende 1995 wurde die transnationale Partnerschaft "Jobrotation" auf europäischer Ebene angeregt und Projektfinanzierung hauptsächlich durch die Gemeinschaftsinitiative ADAPT, aber auch aus den europäischen Strukturfonds ermöglicht. Jobrotation bezeichnet dabei die Verbindung von Weiterbildung für Beschäftigte und Stellvertretung durch zuvor Arbeitslose. In den nichtskandinavischen Ländern der EU wurden daraufhin eine Vielzahl an lokalen Initiativen gestartet, die unter sehr heterogenen institutionellen und finanziellen Rahmenbedingungen ihre Arbeit aufnahmen. Da aus diesen Gründen ein rein quantitativer Vergleich der Ergebnisse der Einzelprojekte nur schwer möglich ist, versucht diese Studie die jeweiligen Startbedingungen, die rechtlichen, politischen, finanziellen Rahmenbedingungen auf nationaler und lokaler Ebene sowie die betrieblich relevanten Voraussetzungen für Jobrotationsprojekte zu untersuchen.

Das Untersuchungsdesign der Studie identifiziert zunächst die wichtigsten möglichen Problemfelder für Jobrotationsprojekte, abgeleitet aus der Theorie der Übergangsmärkte, und versucht daraus hypothetische Erfolgsbedingungen abzuleiten, die dann in einem dritten Schritt mit jeweils mehreren quantitativen und qualitativen Erfolgsindikatoren zusammengeführt werden. Das Feld der rechtlichen Rahmenbedingungen wird beispielsweise inhaltlich verglichen anhand von Indikatoren zur Existenz eines Rechts auf Weiterbildung für Beschäftigte und Arbeitslose, gesetzliche Verpflichtungen oder Abgaben für Unternehmen zur Weiterbildung ihrer Beschäftigten, Kündigungsschutz bei längerer Freistellung sowie die Anwendbarkeit von existierenden Regelungen aktiver Arbeitsmarktpolitik für die Durchführung von Jobrotation. Die untersuchten Länder sind Dänemark, Finnland, Frankreich, Italien, Österreich, Portugal, Schweden, Vereinigtes Königreich und Deutschland.

Die wichtigsten Ergebnisse:

1. Weitreichende rechtliche oder tarifliche Regelungen bezüglich Weiterbildung für Beschäftigte und praxisnahe Aus- oder Weiterbildung für Arbeitslose und Teile der inaktiven Bevölkerung sind eine Grundvoraussetzung für eine breite Anwendungsbasis von Jobrotation;
2. Anreize für Beschäftigte, an Weiterbildung teilzunehmen, müssen durch die Existenz von entsprechenden Regelungen gewährleistet sein. Die Weiterbildungsfreistellungen sollten durch Arbeitsplatzsicherheit flankiert werden
3. Kosten, die durch Jobrotationsprojekte anfallen, sollten durch eine entsprechende Kofinanzierungsstruktur möglichst auch entsprechend den entstehenden Vorteilen verteilt sein, um Mitnahmeeffekte möglichst gering zu halten;
4. leistungsgerechte Entlohnung der Tätigkeit als Stellvertreter/in ist ein wichtiger Motivationsfaktor, d.h. ein ausreichender Abstand zwischen dem Niveau der Lohnersatzleistung und dem Entgelt für die Stellvertretung ist erforderlich;
5. funktionsfähige regionale Netzwerke der arbeitsmarktpolitischen und wirtschaftlichen Akteure sind notwendig für eine günstige Implementationsstruktur;
6. Jobrotationsprojekte in Deutschland könnten durch eine Verbreitung von tarifvertraglich geregelten Weiterbildungsfonds mit Jobrotationselementen und arbeitsmarktpolitischer oder steuerlich begünstigter Ergänzungsförderung, eine neue Dynamik erhalten. So könnte Jobrotation einen stärkeren Beitrag leisten zur Verringerung der Arbeitslosigkeit bei gleichzeitig erreichbaren Produktivitätsgewinnen.

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1. Introduction

Job rotation is a special form of combining further training for company employees and unemployed persons whereby the vacated workplaces are filled by unemployed substitutes during the further training period. Job rotation was first introduced in the 80's in Denmark and was then over the following years further developed and implemented on a nation-wide scale.¹ At the end of 1995 the transnational partnership "Job rotation – A new method in Europe" was established with the aim of testing this system in all Member States of the EU. The partnership initially comprised of 30 partner organisations in 14 countries.

Job rotation can be seen as an innovative combination of structural and employment policies corresponding to the strategy of the transitional labour markets.² As a structural policy measure on the one hand, the qualification deficits of a company's staff are improved, while on the other hand, thanks to training and temporary jobs for the unemployed, qualifications and placement chances are increased. These two aspects are reflected in the financial and institutional³ framework conditions for job rotation.

Job rotation projects are frequently co-financed by national and EU funding. On the **European level**, funding is primarily drawn from the community initiative **Adapt**, but also from **Objective 1** to **Objective 4** of the European Structural Funds⁴. **Adapt** was established in 1994 following the results of studies which showed that the European employment systems had lower performance levels than Japan and the USA (European Commission 1993 and 1997).

In Europe the majority of new jobs are created in small to medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). Since these firms, in comparison to large companies, offer lesser opportunities for further training, they are among those most threatened by global industrial changes. Employees of SMEs are one of the most important target groups for the community initiative Adapt. Adapt's intent is to help

¹ Similar substitution model projects were also successfully implemented in Norway and Sweden in the early 90's (cf.. Festoe 1998, Lindberg 1995).

² cf. Schmid (1993).

³ The term "institution" used in this study is based on the comprehension of institutions as "manifestation forms or symbol nets for regular activities or customs which are used publicly and have been socio-historically set for a 'relevant duration'" (Waschkuhn 1985: 376).

⁴ The main aim of the European Structural Funds is to create economic and social cohesion within the European Union through six objectives. **Objective 3** comprises of the battle against unemployment, the integration of young persons and those excluded from paid labour and the creation of equal opportunities between men and women. **Objective 4** deals with helping the employed to adapt to changes in industries and production structures.

businesses and their employees to tackle the demands and effects of industrial changes and thus to safeguard and increase employment standards. The aims of this initiative are to accelerate the economy's acclimatisation to the structural changes (1), to increase competition in trade and industry (2), to avoid unemployment by improving qualifications (3) and to hasten the creation of new jobs (4). These aims are to be predominantly fulfilled by the development of human resources. The initiative will continue until the end of the year 2000 and has a total budget of ECU 2.940 Million (DM 5.820 Million)⁵. Job rotation has been selected by Adapt as a model project and is receiving special support. (cf. EUROPS and European Commission: Internet⁶).

On the **national level** on other hand, there are several different funding models for job rotation projects and these models depend on the individual national institutional framework conditions. Since, apart from the differing levels of funding, the European framework conditions for the implementation of the job rotation projects are qualitatively similar, we are deducing that the differing national results are due to the individual national institutional and financial conditions.

⁵ The distribution of the Adapt budget for the individual countries and the proportion of national co-funding can be seen in Table 1: 2.5.

⁶ http://europa.eu.int/en/comm/dg05/esf/en/public/sr_adapt/sr_hor.htm
<http://www.europs.be/de/progci.htm>.

2. Aim of the study

The successful implementation of job rotation as an innovative combination of structural and employment policies is, due to its complexity, particularly dependent on the individual national institutional framework conditions. The aim of this study is to identify the conditions for successful job rotation, to identify the most important indicators which distinguish these institutional and financial framework conditions and then, using these indicators, to describe and assess the framework conditions for job rotation in the individual countries.

The research design for this study is based on hypotheses which were developed from the analysis of the various project planning phases for typically ideal job rotation projects. For this an inductive method was selected. This method was derived from the ten phases of a typical job rotation project – as agreed upon in the transnational module for job rotation project management⁷. In a general overview, these project phases – with the concrete experiences and problems of the parties involved – were set in correlation and analysed.⁸ A questionnaire was sent to certain co-ordination agencies (mainly Adapt projects) in the countries being surveyed in September 1998 to gain additional information.⁹

The experiences gained from the Danish example of successful, nation-wide implementation of job rotation projects set the analytical starting point for the study (European Commission 1997b). Each of the ten different project phases of job rotation bear particular problems, but also have a number of essential prerequisites in common which play a vital role in the success or failure of a project.

On analysing the various phases of a typical job rotation project, six different key areas were identified which were of particular importance for the

⁷ The progress of a typical job rotation project can be defined in 10 phases: Preparation; Contracts; Application phase; Information; Detailed planning; Recruitment phase; Carrying out the job rotation project; Implementation of new skills; Evaluation; Perspectives for new projects (cf. AOF Faglige Skole, Silkeborg, DK, Hans Bechgaard).

⁸ Conferences on the job rotation theme, discussions with experts and literature evaluation about initial job rotation experiences (Moraal 1998, Uhrig 1998, Fietz 1998, SPI 1997-1998) proved especially helpful here.

⁹ Bettina Uhrig (SPI) was of invaluable help in carrying out this questionnaire-based survey. Special thanks for co-operating go to SPI (Berlin), Arcidonna (Palermo, Italy), Direcção Geral dos Assuntos Consulares e Comunidades Portuguesas (Lisbon, Portugal), EU-Jobrotation Secretariat (Aalborg, Denmark), Glasgow Development Agency (Edinburgh, Scotland), Milton Keynes College (Buckinghamshire, England), Länsarbetsnämnden (Örebro, Sweden), ÖSB Unternehmensberatung GmbH (Vienna, Austria), University of Helsinki - Lahti Research and Training Centre (Lahti, Finland).

development of the projects. On the basis of these key areas, a second stage then developed hypothetical requirements for the success of job rotation projects. In the third stage, these prerequisites for success were developed and, using the data on the institutional framework conditions in nine countries, the established indicators for success of job rotation could be examined.¹⁰ The final stage at the end of the study deals with the evaluation of the results and the formation of conclusions. **Figure 1** shows an overview of the various study phases to identify the prerequisites for the successful implementation of job rotation.

A evaluation design was then established on the basis of these four working stages (see **Figure 2**) showing six different key areas of the study. The key areas (Column A) are assigned to the success prerequisites (Column B) which are then assigned to the corresponding indicators (Column C). **Table 1** (Appendix) shows a more detailed list of the indicators and their significance in the different countries. Chapter 3 deals with the elements and features of the individual key areas and the necessary conditions for success, along with their indicators, are described in more detail.

The institutional and financial framework conditions in the individual countries for job rotation are analysed and compared in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 is a summarised assessment of the analysis on hand and outlines, on a more abstract level, the favourable conditions for job rotation as well as presenting their pragmatic equivalents. This chapter also gives an evaluation of the future chances of integrative employment and structural policies, such as job rotation, in Germany.

¹⁰The nine countries are: Denmark, United Kingdom, Sweden, Finland, Austria, France, Germany, Italy and Portugal.

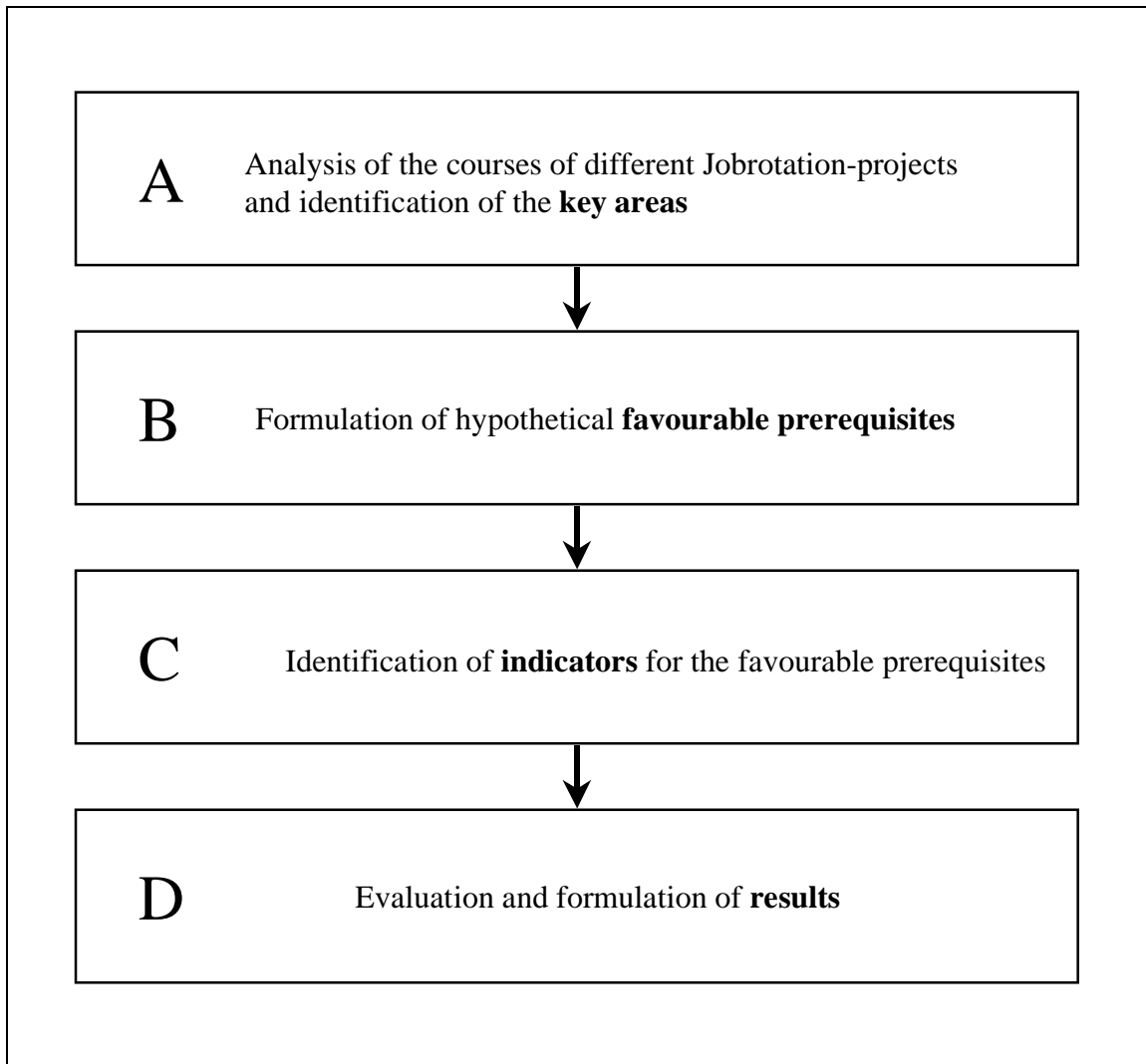
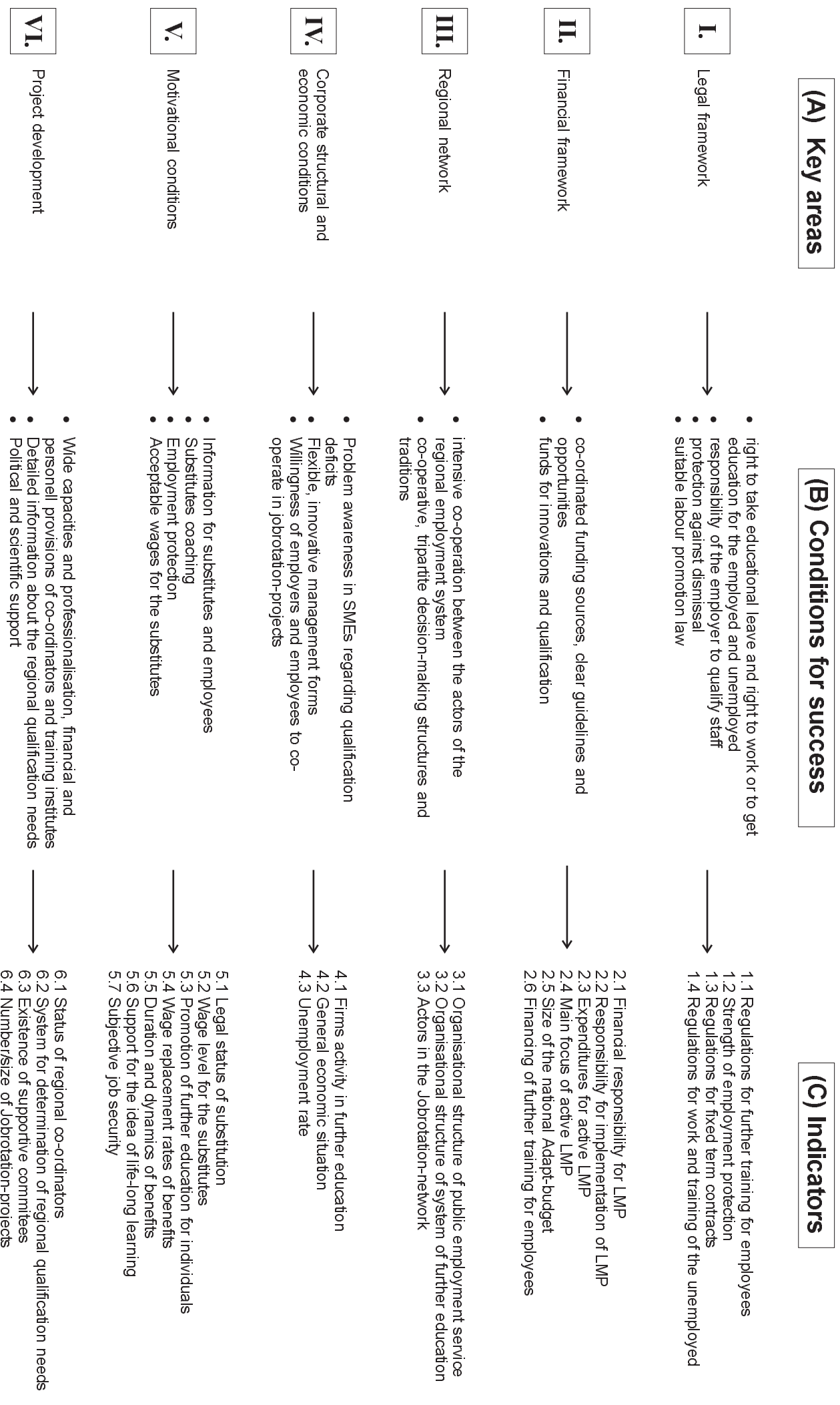


Figure 1: Sequential procedure method to identify the indicators for the requirements the success of job rotation. The grouping from A to C corresponds to the columns A to C in Figure 2.

Fig. 2: Job rotation - key areas, conditions for success and their indicators



3. Institutional and financial framework for job rotation

3.1. Legal framework

The legal framework conditions are very important preconditions for the development of job rotation projects. They stem directly from the individual legal systems and are therefore dependent on legal traditions and current laws. In our context, regulations governing vocational training for the employed and unemployed, dismissal protection laws and the national legislation regarding employment promotion are of particular relevance. Due to their sanction potential, legal regulations have a complementary effect on other incentive structures and may play a decisive role for the parties involved in job rotation projects.

A legally anchored right to further training is a favourable framework condition. If possible, a large number of workers should have access to this right and it should encompass a longer period thus allowing it to be used for job rotation training courses. Such rights however must also be flanked by effective dismissal protection laws so that a worker's job is not threatened when he/she is partaking in further training courses. Dismissal protection laws in this case are primarily to help win workers for further training. They work as an insurance against the loss of a job during the absence caused by the training.¹¹ On the other hand, secure dismissal protection laws promote higher company loyalty which is an important factor making companies willing to invest in their personnel. In cases of high fluctuation and high unemployment, companies may attempt to harness skilled workers from the external market and fire their non-qualified staff. If a company has made an initial investment in further training it will try to profit as long as possible from its staff's increased productivity in order to gain the highest returns possible from the human resources investment. This again lessens the probability of a company making lay-offs. (cf.. Mincer 1989, Becker 1964).

Secure dismissal protection can however also lessen staff motivation to acquire additional skills. If a job is safe, regardless of the workers' qualifications and productivity, then they are not bound to continue to upgrade their skills in order to keep their jobs.

¹¹ We thank our TSER co-operation partner Rachel Silvera for this comment. She notes that in France, work releases are often used to check the dispensability of staff members.

The motivation for workers to participate in further training and to bear part of the costs depends on the types of training on offer. The higher the level of general skills being offered by the courses, the stronger are their own interests. When a course offers a higher level of specific skills the workers are less motivated to make a personal investment in this area.¹²

Along with these incentive structures, conditions for job rotation could be very much improved if companies were legally bound to give their staff continual training.

Favourable for the unemployed would be legislation granting workers a legal right to further training which would allow all unemployed persons the opportunity to participate in job rotation projects. This infers the compatibility of legal regulations for employment promotion with job rotation. A clear-cut creation of legislation for job rotation in the national legal systems would be of great advantage. As an assistance, regulations for practice-oriented training for unemployed could also be used.

In the key area "legal framework conditions", a large selection of indicators could be identified which can be used for a systematic empirical description of the requirements for successful job rotation. The selected indicators are: regulations concerning further training for workers, the strength of the employment laws, the precepts for fixed-term contracts and the laws concerning active labour market policy (s. III.1 and Table. 1: 1.1 to 1.4).

3.2. Financial framework

Along with the legal framework conditions, the financial framework conditions are probably the most important factors for the success of job rotation. Funding for the project management, for the training courses and for the evaluation must be guaranteed as well as the salaries for the trainees and substitutes. This report shows vast differences in international comparisons (Table 1: 5.2 and EU Job Rotation – The Secretariat 1998), which, through the corresponding differences in the incentive structures, we assume, greatly influence the individual participating parties. The financial framework conditions are closely connected to the motivational conditions (s. 3.5), but are on another level within our research system. Therefore we differentiate within our analysis scheme between financial framework conditions and motivational conditions which also have financial aspects.

¹² *General skills* are beneficial for many other employers and raise the worker's wage level; *specific skills*, on the other hand, are beneficial only to the company carrying out the training (Becker 1964).

We believe that the structure of the national labour administration or employment service, as the main source for funding of active labour market policy, plays an important role for job rotation as an instrument for integrated structural and labour market policy (cf. Moraal 1998: 14). Job rotation is a combination of employment and structural policies. The labour market policy aspect is met by training and job placement for unemployed persons while the components of the structural aspect are the state-assisted training of workers and the establishment of regional networks. In many countries these three policy areas can be assigned to up to three different government ministries whose separate political objectives and budgets may vary widely. The analysis of indicators for the financial liability for labour market policy, administrative responsibility for policy, for the responsibility for company further training and for funding job rotation projects shows the relation between the administrative and financial organisational structure and the framework conditions for job rotation (Ill..1 and Table 1: 2.1, 2.2, 2.6 in appendix and EU Job Rotation – The Secretariat 1998). Additionally one must investigate as to whether the budget allocated to active labour market policy and its focuses, which varies widely in the all the countries, influences the conditions for the success of job rotation.

Based on the indicators for the financial framework conditions, primarily the conditions for the promotion of job rotation projects as an instrument for active labour market policy are described. Since a large percentage of funding comes from the Adapt initiative, we expect that a relation will be seen from the amount of the national Adapt budget (Tab.1: 2.5) and the number and size of the job rotation projects in the nine countries being investigated in this study (Tab.1: 6.4). Furthermore, indicators have been selected which give information on the different possibilities of funding further training and on the already existing job rotation model projects. This will assist us in showing the most important features of the funding systems for enterprises, workers and the unemployed.

3.3. Regional networks

The participation of many different parties in job rotation projects calls for an immense amount of co-ordination. Specialist literature maintains that the resulting costs can be reduced by establishing and institutionalising regional networks (Schmid 1996a: 217ff.). Beyond the actual co-ordination output, co-operative network structures provide employment and structural policy solutions, job rotation being one of them.

In drawing up the conditions for success in this area we are assuming that already existing regional networks and co-operative institutions can be utilised in developing and carrying out job rotation projects. This is only possible in a co-operative environment with mutual trust and with all parties working together. If these prerequisites are not fulfilled, or only in a very rudimentary

fashion, then the co-ordinating agency has substantially more work in planning and implementing job rotation projects. The proficiency of a co-operative network is, however, dependent on the autonomy of the individual participants (cf. Benson 1975). This is why the sovereignty of the regional labour offices of the employment service, which are important network participants, plays such a significant role. If their decision-making authority is severely limited then there will be a smaller repertory of solutions. In order to describe the structure of regional networks, the indicators showing the organisational structures of the labour offices and the further training system, along with their network partners, have therefore been taken into account (Tab.: 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3).

3.4. Companies' structural and economic conditions

The community initiative Adapt, and therefore most of the job rotation model projects are targeted primarily towards SMEs. These enterprises very often suffer from the lack of a skilled workforce without being properly aware of this problem, not to mention having a strategy to overcome these skill deficiencies. One of the main objectives of job rotation is to make these companies aware of this problem and to develop suitable training programmes with the SMEs and other involved parties. However, the degree of the obstacles to implementing job rotation projects does not only depend on management and the personnel departments but also on the company's current economic situation.

Economically viable companies are usually more prepared to invest time and capital in their human resources as opposed to businesses which are in economic difficulties. Furthermore the so-called desired "adherence" effect, i.e. when the substitute is kept on by the company as a permanent worker, increases in accordance with higher actual or expected turnover. On the other hand, the probability of a substitute being kept on is lessened when a company must in any case decrease its workforce for economic reasons.

Corporate further training activities, the general economic climate and the average rate of unemployment in the individual countries are the indicators for the structural and economic conditions for job rotation (Tab. 1: 4.1 to 4.3). The use of these indicators should assist the comparable empirical study of the requirements necessary in this key area for the success of projects.

A society which has integrated structural changes and technological progress in the employment system has a stronger awareness of present and future challenges in comparison to a system which still adheres to the old production structures and technology. In this context the indicators for the general economic climate and further training activities in enterprises also give indirect information. These indicators are of course only rough guidelines, as the pace of structural changes can vary widely in the different sectors,

branches and regions of an economy, with a large discrepancy among the SMEs.

The structural changes and dynamics of the employment system can work in two ways for job rotation: on the one hand, the obligation to adapt to new production and consumer situations increase further training activities, while on the other hand, competitive pressure and the necessary acclimatisation can lead to a very difficult economic situation whereby many enterprises may neglect personnel development.

This also applies to SMEs and staff training. This indicator can also work both ways for job rotation. On the one hand high activity in the training field implies that a company is generally open for further training opportunities, while it can also imply that these needs are already adequately covered by the company itself. This second probability however is rather unlikely. The implementation of job rotation projects with companies which, in any case, are active in the training area may also increase the danger of a so-called 'deadweight' effect. This can occur when companies abuse the wide range of assistance and subventions for job rotation to undertake training schemes which they could have afforded to carry out without external assistance.

The indicator for the general economic climate (Tab.1: 4.2) can also be interpreted in two directions: A healthy climate can be advantageous for job rotation as good turnover forecasts will make investments in new technology and human resources seem profitable¹³, on the other hand, full production capacity may lead to lack of extra resources to plan and carry out job rotation projects. Decisive factors here are how 'lean' the company's individual production structures are and the average number of overtime hours.

3.5. Motivational conditions

Job rotation can only be a success if the participants partake on a voluntary basis. Both the employees and their substitutes must show a high degree of motivation and willingness to learn. Only a motivated substitute can be smoothly integrated in the workplace while only a motivated employee will reap the benefits of a further training course which will in turn increase the company's productivity and flexibility. We expect that the participants' personal motives for taking part in further training are mainly due to financial incentives or the hope of immaterial gains. This is why the incentives are closely interwoven with the financial framework conditions for job rotation.

¹³The close connection between economic growth and employment has been confirmed in a comprehensive OECD study (1996b).

The wages for the substitutes and the amount, duration and development of unemployment benefits have been chosen as indicators. We expect that the motivation of unemployed persons to participate in job rotation projects increases in line with the difference between the wage for substitutes and unemployment benefits. We also expect their motivation to increase if the duration of unemployment payments is relatively short (cf. OECD 1997b: 51ff.).

One of the non-commercial advantages to participation in job rotation projects is social status. This can be indirectly associated with the substitute's authorised status in the company. If the substitutes are only active as 'unskilled part-time help' they are not likely to be accepted as equal colleagues by other staff. Regulations which allow for the employment of substitutes with fixed-term contracts in companies could help raise their working status and thus increase motivation for potential substitutes.

State promotion of further training can very much increase workers' incentives to participate in job rotation projects. An idea worth considering in this context would be a certification standard by which further training would be awarded with a government-recognised certificate. This would mean that the new skills acquired could be utilised in other jobs and not solely for the enterprise participating in job rotation.

An indication of the likelihood of finding enough workers and unemployed to participate in job rotation schemes is their willingness for life-long learning (Tab.1: 5.6). Such unemployed persons would be more inclined to take on a new work area within a project rather than those who are not willing to learn new skills and are only prepared to take on the same type of work which they had before unemployment. Willingness for life-long learning is an even more important influence for workers to take part in further training.

An interesting, though ambivalent, indicator is the worker's subjective feeling of job security in the various employment systems (Tab.1: 5.7, cf. also Chapter 3.5 on pages 8-9). Low job security would probably increase the worker's efforts to improve his/her skills in order to secure his/her job or to improve chances of finding more steadfast employment. On the other hand, the fear of job loss could also impede a worker's motivation to learn new skills as he/she may be afraid that a (temporary) absence could heighten chances of being laid off.

3.6. Project development

The high degree of complexity in job rotation projects is due to the multiple elements whose complicated interaction results in much time and trouble having to be invested in setting up a project. The interests of many different

parties must be taken into account and many separate projects must be co-ordinated and synchronised. This calls for a professional project management body which initiates and co-ordinates all the necessary stages. This task is taken over by the regional co-ordination agencies for the job rotation model projects.

In order to master this task professionally and effectively the co-ordination agencies must have adequate planning capacities, staff and funding. The project management must be able to work with the other parties involved to develop and implement good and practical project ideas. Success indicators here are the task areas and other functions of the co-ordination agencies (Tab.1: 6.1).

Another important prerequisite for job rotation projects is the development of suitable training modules for the staff of companies partaking in the projects. These are often developed in close co-operation with the enterprises themselves and with business associations and trade unions. This calls for detailed and concrete information on the current or future qualification requirements for the individual companies. Analyses of the regional training requirements – the results of which could be useful for job rotation projects – were however not carried out in all the European countries involved. Existent regional surveys on training requirements are therefore very important indicators within the key area "Project development" (Tab.1: 6.2).

The political and academic environment also plays an important role in the realisation of job rotation projects. There is indeed a strong political willingness on a European level to initiate and implement model projects which forms to an equal degree the political framework for job rotation in all EU Member States. However the heterogeneous methods of putting EU initiatives into practice can lead to varying results. Furthermore the differing administrative and organisational structures (centralism, federalism) can also influence the individual national and regional framework conditions for job rotation.

This also applies to the community initiative Adapt, which according to its definition is put into practice on the initiative of the Member States (European Commission: Internet). This involves implementing schemes at grass root level. Additionally the framework conditions for job rotation projects are also influenced and decided upon by the actors on the national and regional levels. This is not only true for concrete legislation but also in relation to administrative regulations, work instructions and informal decision-making processes.

General and specific support from individual and collective parties on national, regional and local levels for job rotation projects would be an advantageous political framework condition. This support could be both in the form of political decision making as well as on an administrative level. There is a wide scope of possibilities to support or hinder job rotation. This range

encompasses from tight or flexible administrative regulations right through to adapting regional or national laws to the requirements of employment and structural policy-related schemes such as job rotation.

The academic environment can also have either positive or negative repercussions for job rotation projects. Here one must mention interaction between science and the political actors, identified by experts or research surveys on job rotation projects – this interaction may well influence policy behaviour. Scientific background information and structural analyses can be helpful and encouraging when developing concepts and carrying out projects. Committees with members from political, research and practice-orientated backgrounds can be of particular advantage as they can use their wide scope of influence to counter barriers in the planning and implementation of projects.

Unfortunately it is difficult to gather empirical data in this area. Long interviews would be necessary with the parties involved in the national job rotation projects and these would then have to be analysed and evaluated from a network-theoretical standpoint. This undertaking is beyond the scope of this study so a systematic description of the political and academic support had to be omitted. Instead, the regional supporting committees with representatives from business associations, politics, research bodies and from the projects who identified and discussed job rotation problems at regular intervals were taken as an indicator (Tab.1: 6.3).

4. Discussions of the conditions for job rotation in nine European countries

The conditions leading to the success of job rotation projects are structured in the third part of this study. The fourth part deals with the analysis for conditions for projects in the individual national contexts. We shall commence with Denmark where job rotation has been implemented on a nation-wide scale and has been developed as an important element for employment and structural policy. Denmark will thus serve as a contrast foil with which the institutional and financial regulations in the other countries can be compared and evaluated.

4.1. Denmark

The implementation of job rotation in Denmark can be regarded as successful. The number of participants taking part in job rotation makes this evident. Soerensen (1998: 49) reports over 17,800 participants for 1994, over 29,000 for 1995 and over 36,500 for 1996 (cf. Tab.2). The numbers however according to the European Commission (1997b: 14) are somewhat less, with official figures for 1995 at 24,340.¹⁴ While it is expected that participant numbers will have decreased for 1997, a strong increase in numbers is planned for 1998 and 1999.¹⁵ A comparison between the number of participants in Denmark and in the other countries (Tab. 1: 6.3) clearly shows that job rotation has been much further developed here, along only with Sweden. What are the reasons for this success?

4.1.1. Institutional framework

Active labour market policy is held in high regard in Denmark and the intensity with which it's propagated lies just behind that of Sweden in the list of countries under survey (Tab.1: 2.3). Qualification and training enjoys an immensely high priority within employment schemes (Tab.1: 2.4). The state plays an excellent role in further education by providing training centres and centres for adult education.

¹⁴The discrepancy between these figures is based on the different definitions for "job rotation". The border between a normal substitution for an absent employee e.g. in Germany for maternity leave, and a substitution within the job rotation framework is not always clearly defined.

¹⁵Relevant estimations for Denmark were delivered by Stig Skovbo, AOF Silkeborg.

The Danish law on work release is an important legal framework condition allowing the large-scale implementation of job rotation projects. From 1993 to 1994 the number of participants rose by almost a third from approx. 6,700 to approx. 19,000. According to DTI (European Commission 1997b: 7), this increase is due mainly to changes in the employment laws which came into force at the beginning of 1994 encouraging work leave. These law reforms concerned three areas: firstly, the a much wider section of the workforce were given a right to study leave, secondly pay during leave was increased to 100% of unemployment benefits and thirdly a direct substitution for the worker on educational leave was no longer compulsory (Nätti 1997, Höcker/Reissert 1995). It is interesting to note here that, according to the statistics on hand, this voluntary basis did not lead to a decrease of unemployed substitutes but on the contrary, figures increased from approx. 1,000 to approx. 5,000 (Tab.2).

This could be due to two factors. In broadening the rights to educational leave with corresponding better payment benefits, a distinct incentive was established leading to an increase in the number of employees availing of study leave from approx. 12,000 to approx. 80,000 between 1993 and 1996.¹⁶ Secondly, job rotation has been intensively implemented nation-wide since 1994. To help achieve this, intensive public awareness campaigns were carried out to make the new opportunities for leave-taking better known.

The fact that there is a lesser number of substitutes in comparison to employed workers participating in job rotation projects in Denmark is an indicator that on average several workers are replaced by a single substitute and that therefore the average replacement period by the substitute is of longer duration than the worker's study leave.¹⁷

Tab.2: Job rotation and further training: Number of participants and total number of employees on leave in Denmark.

	1993	1994	1995
Employed JR Participants	3.680	12.200	21.015
Unemployed JR Participants	1.042	5.600	7.988
Total JR Participants	4.722	17.800	29.003
Total of leave for training	2.400	47.000	80.000
Ratio of employed JR participants to total of leave for training	3:2	1:4	1:4

Sources: Nätti and AOF Silkeborg, own calculations.

Joint statutory and union regulations allow workers to avail of regular leave for further training for up to 1 year duration (unemployed persons: 2 years) (s.

¹⁶ However during the same period the utilisation of family leave and sabbaticals decreased perceptibly. Thus the total figures for persons on leave through these three programmes fell from 140,000 in 1994 to 132,000 in 1995.

¹⁷ This observation has also been confirmed for job rotation projects in other European countries Uhrig (1998: 37). The Berlin model projects, where a single substitute replaces an employee on training are to be seen more as an exception.

Tab.1, 1.1). Corresponding employment legislation (UTB/ATB Laws) enables unemployed persons to participate in further training which includes a practical work period. This "employment offer" is available as an individual activation plan to people who have been unemployed for (according to which risk group they belong) between six months and two years. The combination of both of these sets of regulations played an important role in the implementation of job rotation projects, especially during the initial period (Soerensen 1998: 43).

Settlements for leave of absence for employees in Denmark have been accompanied by corresponding funding arrangements. Both funding for companies partaking in further training (Tab.1: 2.6), and funding for the individual participants can be described as comparably generous. Educational leave is specially designed for the introduction of job rotation (European Commission, BIR Denmark 1997: 38). Payment is in line with 100% of the maximum amount of unemployment assistance (Tab.1: 5.3 and 5.5). Loss of income during a longer period of study leave is relatively low for members of the lower and middle wage brackets as compensatory payments are 90% of the last gross wages.¹⁸ This circumstance could explain an interesting phenomenon in the participant statistics: Even though empirical studies (Audier/Giraud 1996, Schömann/Becker 1994, Tuijnman/Schömann 1996) show, that companies are in general more interested in training their better educated employees¹⁹ and that this group is more interested in further training, (Eurobarometer 44.0), the proportion of lesser skilled workers is higher (European Commission 1997b: 15f). The companies could be compelled to subsidise income loss for their highly qualified employees while on educational leave which would only add to the high production losses incurred during the absence of such a well-integrated highly productive colleague.

A further explanation for the above-average participation of lesser-skilled participation in job rotation projects would be the difficulty in finding suitably qualified substitutes in Denmark. This shortage would then mean that fewer projects could be tailored to highly-skilled participants.

The structure of the trade unions offers a further explanation for high rate of participation of lower-skilled workers. Since union membership is designated according to occupational groups and not according to sectors, a strong lobby for the non-skilled and low-skilled workers can sway a lot of influence for their particular demands. Furthermore the trade unions' responsibility for the unemployment insurance funds means that their members still remain closely associated with the unions even after job loss.

¹⁸In general, unemployment benefit rates in Denmark are 90% of the last gross salary (Schmid/Reissert 1994: 239). However, the level for net unemployment benefits for 1994 was set much lower by the OECD (1996). The relatively low maximum benefit which reduces an average earner's unemployment benefits to well below 90% of the last gross wage could help explain the difference.

¹⁹This can be very clearly observed in France (European Commission, BIR France 1996).

4.1.2. Incentive structure and evaluation

Job rotation's success in Denmark is remarkable in regard to its extent and the results for labour market policy. The longer replacement duration of substitutes in enterprises had possibly a positive influence on the number kept on as permanent employees. 60-80% of the substitutes were kept on in many regions of Denmark (European Commission 1997b: 1) which is a great success factor for an labour market policy measure. Both the offers for further training along with their financial framework conditions act as strong incentives for **companies** and **individuals** to avail of these opportunities. This is obvious due to the high number of enterprises training their workforces (Tab.1: 4.1), as well as the Danish people's extremely positive attitude to life-long learning (Tab.1: 5.6).

The number of substitutes in 1995 was only approx. 4% of the total number of unemployed in Denmark (AOF 1998 and OECD 1997e). Job rotation however becomes more significant when the substitute figures are compared to the difference in the total unemployment statistics between 1994 and 1995: In 1995 the total unemployment figures dropped by approx. 25,000 compared to the previous year. 16% (approx. 4.000 persons) of this reduction can be seen as a direct result of job rotation²⁰, when using the premise that on average 70% of the substitutes are taken over and when disregarding other fluctuation factors.

The percentage of unemployed who are participating, within the framework of "employment offers"²¹ in job rotation projects is between 5 and 10%.²² These figures show that the general effects of job rotation on the long-term unemployment rate²³ in Denmark are relatively low: when 70% of the substitutions are taken on permanently after the replacement period, the percentage of long-term unemployed obtaining regular jobs is between 2 and 5% of the total number of long-term unemployed persons, whereby this percentage is not checked for substitution effects. On the assumption that a new job could be created anyway for half the substitution posts, which would be filled by an unemployed person under different circumstances, the percentage of new jobs for long-term unemployed created through job rotation would be reduced to between 1 and 2.5%.

²⁰This very simple model calculations based on the premises of very advantageous circumstances and ignores some important factors.

²¹After a period of between 6 months to 2 years an unemployed person must be offered a job or training – here job rotation is very suitable. The length of the unemployment period before this must be offered depends on his/her placement chances. This scheme is to protect target groups who are difficult to place from long phases of unemployment.

²²Cf. Soerensen (1998: 49) and European Commission (1997b: 14).

²³Here all unemployed persons with a job offer (see Footnote 22) are classified as being long-term unemployed.

The relation between the number of participants in job rotation to the total number of short and long-term unemployed shows that job rotation can indeed have a significant effect on reducing unemployment. However, at least in the form implemented in Denmark, it is less suitable as an instrument to counter long-term unemployment.

On examining Danish dismissal protection laws (Tab.1: 1.2), which are however flanked by high and long on-going benefits, one can observe that strong further training activities on the part of enterprises, a high willingness to participate on the part of workers and unemployed and weak dismissal protection laws are not necessary contradictory. Despite the weak dismissal protection laws, the subjective job security consciousness in Denmark is higher than in all other countries being surveyed. This can be accounted for by the strongly growing economy and the decreasing unemployment rates.

4.2. Finland

4.2.1. Institutional framework

The legal framework conditions which can be related to Adapt Job Rotation were adopted in Finland in 1995. The foundation for these is the leave of absence legislation which furnishes far-reaching legal conditions similar to Denmark. After a certain continuous working period, workers have a right to up to a year's leave of absence (Nätti 1997). In contrast to Denmark however, this period can be freely utilised and the employer is compelled to replace him/her with an unemployed substitute for this period (Tab.1: 1.1). Distinct regulations for vocational training for the unemployed are anchored in the employment promotion laws. Furthermore, the opportunity of utilising job rotation projects has been explicitly adopted by the legislation (Tab.1: 1.4).

Although the percentage of Finland's budget for active labour market policy is a high proportion of the gross domestic product (GDP), the intensity of expenditure is very weak due to the high unemployment rate. The main emphasis of the labour market policy is on training schemes (Tab.1: 2.3, 2.4).

Further training in enterprises is, as in Denmark, co-funded by the state. This responsibility does not lie completely with the enterprises – a factor which makes job rotation projects easier to implement. Furthermore the social partners, whose structures and networks could be used for job rotation projects, also have funds for further training (Tab.1: 2.6).

The tripartite and yet decentralised structure of the labour administration is of advantage to job rotation's labour market policy and social policy functions. Trade union representation on all important committees is also a warrant for the

even-handed implementation of job rotation (Tab.1: 2.6). The desired "adherence" effect of the substitutes is relatively strong thanks to Finland's particularly good economy which lends itself to expansion potential (Tab.1: 4.4).

4.2.2. Incentive structure and evaluation

The incentives for **employees** are relatively weak. Payments would have to be increased in order to be able to utilise the opportunities for leave of absence in Finland for job rotation. The low financial compensation (Tab.1: 5.3) has proved to be the main deterrent to avail of leave of absence. 73% of the workers who took leave were female which indicates that the opportunity is often availed of for maternity leave. The average length of absence was 8.5 months (Nätti 1997).

The projects established through the Adapt Job Rotation initiative also seemed to offer little incentive for the **substitutes**. They were normally not taken on the staff roll but continued to have unemployed status (either during job experience or in the form of further training). Additionally their remuneration is low in comparison to a worker's wage (Tab.1: 5.1, 5.2).

The low incentives could however be counterbalanced by the high unemployment rate, the medium wages level and the above-average willingness of the unemployed for life-long learning (Tab.1: 5.4, 5.5, 5.6).

For **enterprises**, participation in job rotation projects, is in contrast, worthwhile as, according to our calculation model, they do not have to bear any part of the active costs.

Despite the inadequately developed incentive structures, the indicators available justify the classification of Finland's institutional structures as being suitable for employment and structural policies such as job rotation. The legal framework conditions on the level of reimbursement payments however, must be adapted. The fact that legal regulations specifically suitable to job rotation already exist is a positive factor. The promising start of the "*Act on Job alternation*" (*Työvuorottelutoimikunnan väliraportti*) project can be evaluated as a sign of positive conditions for job rotation. Further surveys on the possibilities of combining "*Job alternation leave*" with job rotation must be carried out however before reaching a final conclusion.

4.3. Sweden

Experience with substitution models has been gathered in Sweden since 1987 which led to the introduction of 'further training substitution' (Utbildningsvikariat) in 1991. This has since been developed into a nation-wide policy instrument and led to placements of approx. 42,000 substitutes in 1994/5 (Olsson 1997).

4.3.1. Institutional framework

Far-reaching laws dealing with leave of absence for further training exist in Sweden as in the other Scandinavian countries. Additionally since 1996 the Swedish employment promotion legislation has laws dealing particularly with substitutions (Tab.1: 1.1 and 1.4).

The percentage of 2,25% of the GDP for active labour market policy is high, exceeded only by Denmark. The intensity of this policy is clearly at the top of the countries surveyed (Tab.1: 2.3).

Leave of absence is especially encouraged by the Swedish labour administration when it can deter lay-offs. About DM 12,600 (ECU 6,350) is available per worker (Tab.1: 2.6) but only if the employer guarantees that no lay-offs shall occur for the duration of the project (Olsson 1997). This offer for further training is combined with the labour office offer to fill the free work places with unemployed substitutes. Despite this rather contradictory arrangement²⁴, according to Lindbeck (1995), 7,600 unemployed substitutes could be integrated in courses in autumn 1994.

In contrast to Denmark, the most use for the substitute method has been found in the public administration sector. It is mainly the regional administrations (regional parliaments) and municipalities which successfully utilise this scheme in the health and care sector. The restructuring of the regional parliaments brought an added inducement to apply the further training substitution method (Lindbeck 1995).

The decentralised organisational structure of the Swedish labour administration is probably advantageous to the implementation of the substitution models. Its tripartite structure is beneficial in achieving social policy targets and in finding agreement with the social partners (Tab. 1: 3.1).

As is the case in Finland, the relationship between the 'Swedish version' of the substitution model with Adapt Job Rotation is not fully clear. A combination

²⁴ If funding is only paid for training for workers whose jobs are in danger the company will not have any great interest in filling these surplus workplaces with unemployed persons.

of both instruments could of course be taken into consideration. On the other hand the Swedish 'Further training offer' focuses more strongly on directly endangered jobs as is usually the case in Adapt projects. Which of these possibilities is relevant could not, unfortunately be clarified.

According to information from LAA Örebro, 1,414 persons (workers plus substitutes) partook in job rotation projects. This is an immense difference in comparison to the other countries and is probably due to the participation of larger firms in the projects.

4.3.2. Incentive structure and evaluation

The incentives for **unemployed** to participate in job rotation seem especially strong in Sweden. According to the model calculation, 96% of normal wages are paid and the substitutes receive a fixed-term contract with the enterprises. Furthermore the 35% difference to the unemployment benefits is completely sufficient and is the third highest in the countries surveyed, behind the United Kingdom and Austria (Tab.1: 5.1 to 5.3).

The willingness towards life-long learning is somewhat less prevalent among Swedish **employees** as is among their Danish and Finnish colleagues. In Sweden 79% of the workers accept the principle of the necessity for life-long learning while in Finland the figure is 81% and in Denmark 93% (Tab.1: 5.6). The worker's subjective feeling of job security is also less than in Denmark and Finland even though Swedish employment protection laws are stronger than those of the other two countries (Tab.1: 1.2). As a lower level on this indicator can also signalise higher willingness for further training, this would be a positive influence for job rotation, at least when the courses consisted of a certain ratio of general skills (s. Chapter 3, 3.1 and 3.5, P. 8,9 and 13).

The enterprise funding share for job rotation projects is, according to the model calculation, the highest of all the surveyed countries. This could pose a problem for implementing projects.

The framework conditions for job rotation can be described as positive. This assessment is supported by the current participant figures.

4.4. France

The job rotation model projects in France are the most recent in the European partner countries. Although projects were being planned in 1996, actual implementation with Adapt approval only began in 1998. Apart from the Adapt

initiative, no other job alteration methods have been developed in France comparable to those in Denmark and Finland.

The study of the framework conditions for the concrete application can therefore only refer to the very few reports available on project experience and is to be regarded as provisional.

4.4.1. Institutional framework

The French further training system for employees is well-developed. It is based on an obligatory levy from the enterprises. These must invest 1.5% of their gross wage bill in training and further training whereby the lion's share is invested in in-company training (Tab.1: 2.6). This system offers an explanation for the high involvement of French enterprises in further training. This involvement is however not uniform in all enterprises: smaller companies offer far less training than firms with over 250 employees (Tab.1: 4.1). It has also been observed that it is mainly the higher-skilled workers who get the opportunity to participate in further training courses (Audier/Giraud 1996). Both of these observations point to unequal opportunities as a result of this allotment structure and is contradictory to social policy objectives. Job rotation could, in this situation, help lessen these inequalities: further training in SMEs could be encouraged with a special focus on helping lower-skilled workers.

The chances of developing job rotation projects in France depend on certain unknown factors. If it were possible to utilise funds invested in enterprise training then the funding for employees in job rotation projects would be secured. Additionally a considerable amount of the EU's Adapt budget has been reserved for France (Tab. 1: 2.5). Since active labour market policy has a great significance in France (Tab. 1: 2.3, 2.4) and many programmes for the unemployed exist, there should not be any great hurdles for job rotation projects to be expected in the area of the financial and legal framework conditions.

However the fragmentation of the labour administration could lead to problems for job rotation. Questions regarding areas of responsibility, sector and branch-related peculiarities and the split unions make the assessment of job rotation's chances uncertain (Tab.1: 2.2, 3.1). There is not sufficient data available for an exact prognosis on the development of the framework conditions. This is because the Adapt projects are still in an early stage.

A number of indicators among the motivational factors indicate positive conditions for job rotation. Workers and unemployed have a positive attitude towards life-long learning, the unemployment rate is well above the European average and wages for substitutes, at least according to our calculation model, are considerably more than unemployment benefits (Tab.1: 5.2, 5.6, 4.4). The

about average French dismissal protection laws (Tab.1: 1.2 and 5.7) could pose a problem for the incentives for workers to undergo further training to acquire special skills. This, combined with the clear sense of job insecurity prevalent in France (Tab.1: 1.2 and 5.7), could result in workers rejecting a longer leave of absence for training for fear of losing their jobs in their absence due to economic reasons.

4.4.2. Incentive structure and evaluation

A combination of all recognisable framework conditions for the implementation of job rotation schemes signals a positive incentive structure for **enterprises**. According to the model calculation, no extra costs for participation in projects would be incurred which would not already be covered by the normal contributions to the further training funds.

One shall have to see as to what extent the weak dismissal protection laws will be a positive or negative incentive factor for **employees** (cf. Chapter 3, 3.1 and 3.6). An evaluation of the incentive structure for the **unemployed** is currently not possible because the most important indicators for the legal status and wages of substitutes in enterprises are still unclear.

An overall assessment of the financial and institutional conditions for job rotation in France has therefore somewhat conflicting results. All estimations have a high uncertainty factor due to the high level of fragmentation in the French employment system. The chances for job rotation are lesser in comparison to the north-European countries as the most important constituent of a positive legal and financial structure, namely the existence of regulations for long-term leave of absence for further training, is less prevalent than in Denmark or Finland. Nevertheless it is possible that the existing rules for individual study leave and the pledges for further training are sufficient for a dynamic development of job rotation projects.

4.5. United Kingdom

4.5.1. Institutional framework

Against its background of a liberal legal tradition, The United Kingdom does not have any general binding laws regarding leave of absence for workers. Up to now, the government has focused on incentives for companies and individuals to help raise the level of further training activities. Further agreements may then be negotiated individually or with the union partners. Correspondingly, the labour laws are less adjusted and have no restrictions for fixed-term and a low level of dismissal protection (Tab.1: 1.1, 1.2, 1.3). On the other hand, the laws

for employment promotion contain elements of the combination of training and work experience which could be utilised for job rotation (Tab.1: 1.4).

Funding for active labour market policy is low in the United Kingdom. Both as a percentage of the GDP and the strength of spending are five to six times below that of the better equipped countries (Tab.1: 2.3). Accordingly the priorities for active labour market policy lie within the labour administration's classical core tasks: the lion's share of funding is made available for the placement of the unemployed (Tab.1: 2.4)²⁵. The United Kingdom, however, receives a large sum from the Adapt budget – the total amount being the highest of all the countries in this survey (Tab.1: 2.5).

The fact that the organisational structure of the employment service and labour market policy is geared towards enterprise needs and the creation of privately-run TECs (Training and Enterprise Councils) to the disadvantage of tripartite administrative structures is in sharp contrast to the situation already described in Denmark, Finland and Sweden as well as in France. TECs are organisations which receive contracts via public tender from the authorities to perform public tasks. After a certain period the TECs must reapply for these contracts. The objective is to make these public services as economically viable as possible. The question here is to what an extent this principle may hinder demanding and, in the planning and implementation of projects, complicated, long-lasting forms of labour market policy such as job rotation. If TEC activities are to be evaluated on a narrow benefit – cost analysis whereby the "quick success" counts, then it would be difficult to organise job rotation projects with them. In the light of this institutional structure, it seems important that the influential British employers should be convinced of the benefits of job rotation projects so that the Industrial Training Boards, the TECs and Employers Associations would be willing to co-operate on projects. Only so can one imagine a nation-wide implementation of job rotation in the United Kingdom.

The structural and economic conditions for enterprises seem advantageous for this. British enterprises are extremely active in further training in comparison to the other countries. In companies with over 250 employees the United Kingdom tops the scale ahead of France with a rate of 48% while for SMEs it follows Denmark in second place (Tab.1: 4.1). Furthermore, the economic situation, which gives pointers to the likelihood of enterprises making growth investments, looks relatively healthy even though economic growth in 1998 and 1999 is significantly weaker than in 1997 (Tab.1: 4.4). The indicators among the incentive factors can also be seen as positive. The substitutes are employed by companies with wages well exceeding unemployment benefits, dole payments are extremely low and the British are

²⁵ Both qualitative and quantitative changes can be expected from the objectives set by the United Kingdom's new government. The budget for active labour market policy is to be increased and the training of workers is to be designated as one of the most important aims.

second to the Danes in their positive attitude to life-long learning (Tab.1: 5.1 to 5.6).

4.5.2. Incentive structure and evaluation

The incentives for **employees** to participate in further training schemes such as job rotation are strengthened by the compulsion for continually improving one's own skills – this is due to low job security caused by weak employment protection laws.

The incentives for **enterprises** are no doubt dependant on whether participation in job rotation projects decreases or raises the costs for giving their employees further training.

The incentives for the **unemployed** to participate in job rotation projects are strong. According to our model calculations, substitutes' wages are on par with those of regular employees and much higher than average unemployment payments.

The estimation of the chances for a nation-wide implementation of job rotation projects in Britain is also somewhat contradictory. The main uncertainty factor is the TECs' reaction and suitability. Their suitability for active co-operation in a job rotation network is difficult to gauge. Their co-operation, however, is of vital importance because of the central role they play in implementing active labour market policy in the United Kingdom.

4.6. Italy

4.6.1. Institutional framework

A legislative reform encompassing leave of absence for employees and grants for further training is being planned in Italy where previously no general regulations existed for training for workers. Regulations already exist for fixed-term employment of staff as well as rights for the unemployed to participate in training courses and practical training (Tab.1: 1.1 to 1.4) – these can be utilised within the job rotation framework.

Italy takes third last place in front of the United Kingdom and Austria in its spending for active labour market policy measured as a percentage of the GDP. This ranking is improved when the strength of spending is observed: here Italy takes fourth place together with Portugal. The main focus of the active labour market policy is, due to the high rate of youth unemployment, on assistance and schemes for the youth and for jobless young persons. These

measures offer a variety of vocational training programmes. Most of the funding comes from the government with EU subsidies also as an important source, especially for the more underdeveloped regions (Tab.1: 2.1 to 2.6). The importance of the European contributions for Adapt job rotation projects is obvious from our model calculation: as in Finland and the United Kingdom, the calculation model is based on the high funding share from EU resources (EU-Job rotation – the secretariat 1998).²⁶

The organisation structure of the labour administration could have a detrimental effect on the development of nation-wide job rotation projects in Italy. It is a centrally organised, yet horizontally fragmented structure with a strong regulated focus on job placement.²⁷ There is a large number of boards and management committees with tripartite structures.

Several steps have been taken recently to decentralise the labour administration with the aim of giving more policy responsibility to the individual regions (Tab.1: 3.1).

In 1993 further training activities in Italian enterprises were, on average, less than in Portugal and the lowest of all surveyed countries (Tab.1: 4.1). This is a clear indicator for Italy's huge structural problems in this area. Despite this situation, Italy's economic barometer (Tab.1: 4.4) is similar to that of the other countries so that one may speak of good conditions for job rotation-induced further training and a positive prognosis of companies undertaking expansion investments.

Willingness for life-long learning is high among the unemployed. They have a mid-range position when compared with the other countries and the same can be said of Italian employees. These figures are in stark contrast to the other sections of the population with 66% having a positive attitude – thus taking the third last place ahead of Austria and Germany (Tab.1: 5.6).

4.6.2. Incentive structure and evaluation

The framework conditions as far as the motivational factors are concerned may be described as relatively poor. The **substitutes** do not have a contract with the employer and their wage level is, according to the model calculation (Tab. 1: 5.2) only 40% of that of the regular employees and a mere 6% more than

²⁶The study of the financing models, however, has shown that the assessment of the cost sharing is to be viewed with scepticism. In southern Italy a co-funding from the EU to the given extent (EU-Job Rotation – the secretariat 1998) is quite improbable and would be in contradiction to the principle of "Supplementation" (European Commission 1996a: 23).

²⁷In Italy enterprises are legally bound to give the employment administration notice of vacancies. Only registered unemployed persons may be taken on. Changes are occurring however in this area and legislation has been introduced, opening the market for temporary employment agencies.

average unemployment benefits. Unemployment benefits are, however, so low in Italy (Tab.1: 5.4) that an incentive to participation in job rotation projects may be expected –alone due to the dire straits of the unemployed.

Positive incentives for **employees** and **employers** remain low as long as there are no regulations for leave of absence for further training.

In view of the institutional changes being planned or already initiated in Italy, one may be curious as to the future developments in active labour market policy. The status quo is probably only to a certain limit suitable for a nation-wide implementation of job rotation. This appraisal is confirmed by the lack of effective study leave regulations, the low compensatory wage level which is a decisive factor for substitutions in northern Europe, the rigid rules governing fixed-term contracts and job placement.

4.7. Portugal

4.7.1. Institutional framework

The right of the individual to vocational training is anchored in the Portuguese constitution. Due to the high rate of youth unemployment, the main focus of the employment and training regulations is geared towards this target group. This focal point is mirrored in the funding for the various fields of active labour market policy (Tab.1: 1.1, 1.4). It comes as a surprise that the Adapt budget for Portugal is relatively modest when compared to that of the other countries. Its volume is, on par with Sweden's, the lowest – however with a 72% co-funding share from the EU (Tab.1: 2.5)²⁸.

The state-run institute for training and employment (IEFP) plays a central role in the Portuguese vocational training and further training system. It runs active labour market policy programmes and its "Protocol Centres" form a significant part of the further training infrastructure (Tab.1: 2.2, 2.6, 3.1, 3.2). The IEFP is administered in a tripartite form and plays a central role in current and future job rotation projects.

Further training activities in Portuguese enterprises are underdeveloped (Tab.1: 4.1). In the SME sector, Portugal lies in second last place in front of Italy while taking last place in the area of larger enterprises. Despite these low results, the willingness towards life-long learning is surprisingly high, especially among the unemployed. The rate in Portugal is 84%, surpassed only by the British and Danish unemployed.

²⁸ See footnote 26.

Subjective job security in Portugal is low despite the healthy economic climate and the relatively low unemployment rate (Tab.1: 4.3, 4.4, 5.7). This could increase workers' incentives to participate in further training in order to improve their chances on the internal and external labour markets (cf. Sengenberger 1987).

4.7.2. Incentive structure and evaluation

The incentive for the **unemployed** to participate in job rotation projects in Portugal does not seem very high. Substitutes do not receive contractual employment and the 16% difference between the compensatory wages and unemployment benefits is in the mid-range of the survey countries. The unemployment rate of 6.6% in Portugal is relatively low so one must expect a shortage of motivated substitutes.

When participating in job rotation further training schemes **workers** do not lose their status as employees and can profit from increased productivity and corresponding salary increases. This proves that their incentives are positive, at least when the training encompasses a wider selection of general skills.

According to our model calculation, the incentive for Portuguese **enterprises** for participating in job rotation projects is high (EU-Job Rotation – The Secretariat 1998). The employer must only bear the costs of a possible loss in productivity caused by the use of a replacement worker. This loss however is merely short term and is compensated through the productivity gain from employees' improved skills, implying that participation will bring a clear profit.

A detailed evaluation of the chances for a future nation-wide implementation of job rotation involves a certain degree of uncertainty due to the data available. The chances for job rotation in Portugal can be gauged as cautiously optimistic due to a) the strong position of the government in the institutional structure of the further training system, b) the reliance of the Portuguese economy on a rapid modernisation in order to increase competitiveness and c) the general positive attitude towards life-long learning.

The most recent legislation draft for the explicit promotion of job rotation schemes undoubtedly mirrors a great political enthusiasm. As to whether these new regulations will actually promote a nation-wide implementation remains to be seen.

4.8. Austria

4.8.1. Institutional framework

A new law for leave of absence for educational purposes has been passed in Austria. At a first glance these new regulations offer an extensive legal foundation for job rotation: workers have a right to a 6-12 month sabbatical after a constant three year term of employment and this is financed through unemployment insurance (Tab. 1: 1.1). However the singularities of this law are such that it cannot be utilised for job rotation projects: ²⁹: A minimum of 6 months leave is too much for most company managers and the financial losses for the employees are so large (a standard monthly rate of ECU 400 is paid for leave duration) that most of them cannot afford to undertake further training under these conditions.

Austria has a centralised integrated employment service which is responsible for passive and active labour market policy programmes and services (Tab.1: 2.2, 3.1). This situation raises the question as to whether the responsibility labour market policy lying in a single organisation and the resulting minimised interweaving of budget administration could have a positive effect on the development of integrated co-operative forms of labour market policy such as job rotation. The labour administration is controlled on all levels by committees made up of various parties which are also responsible for drawing up labour market policy objectives. These co-operative structures are also mirrored in the Austrian further training system (Tab.1: 3.2).

The assumption that the integrated structure of the employment service would lead to an increased activation of labour market policy cannot be confirmed through the Austrian archetype. Funding for active labour market policy is only 0.38% of the GDP which corresponds to a spending intensity of 0.06. This is extremely low in comparison to the other countries, with the exception of the United Kingdom (Tab.1: 2.3). As in the United Kingdom, Austrian labour market policy focuses primarily on job placement for the unemployed. This is followed however by training for the unemployed and not by special programmes targeted towards youth unemployment (Tab.1: 2.4). This difference is certainly due to the differing problem areas in both countries: thanks to the dual apprentice system, Austria has, in comparison to most of the other countries, no problems with youth unemployment.

The passivity of the Austrian employment service in regard to its structure of objectives is possibly due to the extremely low unemployment rate in comparison to the other countries . It was 4.5% in May 1998, together with Denmark (4.7%) the best results of all countries surveyed (Tab.1: 4.4).

²⁹We would like to thank the expert for job rotation from ÖSB who gave us valuable information on the practicalities of the new legislation during one of our conferences.

Another unusual result is the attitude of the Austrians to life-long learning. Both workers and the unemployed have little interest (Tab.1: 5.6) – this could be due to the thorough original training offered by the dual system.

4.8.2. Incentive structure and evaluation

The incentive for **unemployed** to participate in job rotation projects as substitutes is quite high in Austria. The substitutes receive a fixed-term contract from the company and their wages are significantly higher than the average unemployment benefits (Tab.1: 5.1, 5.2).

The incentive for **employees** to begin a course in further training with the help of the newly introduced regulations is to be seen as still too low. Although the possibility of being able to take a longer leave of absence may be judged as positive, the payment of 400 ECU is as a rule too much of a wage loss and cannot be seen as a positive motivational factor for employees.

The costs for job rotation projects are divided among the various actors in line with a co-operative social partner-structure of the Austrian employment system. Austria does not receive a strong European funding subsidy as do Italy, Finland or the United Kingdom. The **enterprises** bear 13% of the costs, a rate surpassed only in Sweden and the United Kingdom. This burden could possibly have negative results for support from enterprises for job rotation. Furthermore, the new and, from the point of view of time, inflexible new regulations lower still further the motivation for enterprises to take part in job rotation.

While an attempt has been made in Austria to create institutional and financial framework conditions for equal job opportunities for all, the new regulations must be thoroughly improved in order to facilitate a nation-wide implementation of job rotation. This primarily applies to the flexibility of leave duration and the financial incentives for the released workers. The co-operative structures of the employment system, on the other hand, signalise a positive prognosis for job rotation projects, so that one may venture an overall positive forecast.

4.9. Germany

The first job rotation projects were begun in 1996 in Germany. The project organiser, SPI in Berlin, was contracted to test the possibilities for a nation-wide implementation of job rotation as well as implementing the actual projects on a pilot basis.

4.9.1. Institutional framework

The traditionally strong division in German labour market policy between general initial training and further training in enterprises is one of the most important institutional framework conditions for the implementation of job rotation projects. In contrast to other European countries, the objectives of government training policy are strongly separated from the interests of the enterprises (Tab. 1: 2.6). The employment promotion law reform has, due to its content matter and as a result of political strategy, lessened this division somewhat. But the labour market policy structure is, up to now, not well geared to applying job rotation as an instrument providing an interface between labour market policy and structural policy. The consequences of this institutional structure can be seen in the implementation of further training for employees and the utilisation of substitutes.

There is no uniform national law for educational leave in Germany. Ten federal states³⁰ have laws giving employees the right to ten days study leave every two years (Tab. 1: 1.1). These laws stem from the German tradition towards adult education and are designed to allow workers general access to also a very general form of further education. Educational leave is normally not availed of for concrete further training and in many small companies the employees are often not allowed to take this leave. All in all, a total of only 2% of all employees avail of this right (cf. Moraal 1998).

Further training activities in enterprises are well behind the other big European countries (Tab.1: 4.1). The structural features, especially of the SMEs result in an inadequate strategic utilisation of further training to help increase competitiveness.

Quite a large sum is allocated by the government for the further training for workers and unemployed (Tab.1: 2.3; 2.4). In 1995 approx. 17,1 billion DM , almost 50% of the total funds for active labour market policy, was spent on vocational training schemes (a high sum in international comparison) (cf. Schmid 1998). However employees must fulfil strict conditions in order to avail of these schemes – they may only participate in further training courses when "there is a threat of unemployment or when training is necessary due to a lack of a recognised qualification" (§77 Abs. 1 SGBIII). "Employees may not be supported when the results of the training are in the interests of the company where they are employed". This means that in structural policy terms, a future-orientated training is not only not planned but is explicitly excluded from promotion. As a result of these laws as well as the dual vocational training system, one can interpret the willingness of workers and unemployed towards

³⁰In the new *Laender*, laws governing educational leave have been passed only in Brandenburg and Sachsen-Anhalt. The old *Laender* with study laws are Berlin, Bremen, Hamburg, Hessen, Lower Saxony, North Rhine Westphalia, Rhineland-Palatinate and Schleswig-Holstein.

life-long learning as being very low – 64% of the former and 55% of the latter have a positive attitude – low in comparison to the other countries (Tab.1: 5.6).

For the implementation of job rotation these legal framework conditions mean that with EU support these national regulations are more or less passed by. Adapt or Objective 1 to 4 funding is usually used for this purpose. The national ADAPT budget of 1,068 Mill. DM is high and 47,6% of this comes from EU funding (Tab.1: 2.5). This co-funding sum is calculated taking into account that Germany comprises of both Target 1 regions and non-Target 1 regions. The Target 1 regions (these include all the new *Laender*) are supported with a 65% share from EU funds while other areas receive 42%.

The legal regulations and the funding of the substitutes describe the second effect of the strong division of responsibility for general skills training and company-specific training – this division is traditional in Germany. The substitutions are usually organised through programmes run by the Federal Employment Service and they are given a period of practical work experience in an enterprise for the duration of the substitution. (Tab. 1: 1.4). The combination of the German contribution payments with the centralisation of decision-making responsibility at the Federal Employment Service results in the problem of making adequate active labour market policy funds available which are in an anticyclical relationship to the current business cycle. However, these decision-making structures are being partially decentralised through the SGB III amendment which allots 'experiment budgets' to the local employment services (Tab.1: 3.1).

In principle, §89 SGBIII (Practical training) has greatly improved the legal foundation for the utilisation of substitutes in enterprises in comparison to the AFG (Employment Promotion Law) regulations. A period of company training in programmes run by the Federal Labour Office was however possible under the AFG laws if "the course is completed with an examination of the type laid down in §46 of the Vocational Education Law or in §§42 or 45 of the Trades and Crafts Rules or if not less than one quarter of the curriculum encompasses theory" (§41 Abs. 2a AFG). Experience has shown however that this regulation is not concrete enough to include the possibility of substitutions so the discretionary powers of the local labour offices and the necessary amount of co-ordination were high. §89 formulates periods of practical training "which serve to promote further training in a workplace which is temporarily vacated due to the usual employee's leave of absence for further education..." (§89 Abs. 1 SGB III).

However despite this clear improvement of the legal framework conditions, there still remain serious difficulties for the implementation of job rotation. For example unemployed persons normally have a right to avail of a labour office-run course only once every two years. Exceptions are so called "assessment courses" with a duration of up to two months. But since the integration chances

for substitutes increase in accordance with the length of the substitution period (cf. Olsson 1997), the unemployed must fundamentally show interest in courses of longer duration.

Additionally, the funding of the substitution through the Federal Employment Service brings the problem that the maintenance payments are not higher than unemployment benefits (Tab. 1: 5.1, 5.2). As well as the low short-term financial incentive for the unemployed to participate in substitution,³¹ this can also have negative implications for their acceptance within the company's social system.

Finally, the implementation of job rotation schemes calls for an enormous degree of co-operation between the parties from politics and the economy. The, up to now, strict separation of German labour market policy from structural and economical policies means that one cannot expect such net-work structures to have been widely established or institutionalised on local levels. Thus for example, negotiations between the social partners about the framework conditions for further training has very little tradition in comparison to other European countries.

4.9.2. Incentive structure and evaluation

The institutional framework conditions listed here, show the incentive structures for the participating main parties – the unemployed, the employees and the enterprises.

It can be seen that the incentive for the **unemployed** to participate in job rotation schemes is low. On the one hand, their substitution wages are little or no improvement on unemployment benefit and their status remains the same. On the other hand, there is also a chance that they could lose their right to participate on another, possibly longer and more successful, labour office-run scheme for two years if they participate in a job rotation course. These negative incentives can only be balanced out if the unemployed have a realistic chance of finding a permanent job through the substitution. The take-over figures and thus the direct labour market policy success of job rotation have not yet been systematically analysed. There are indications that the take-over quota is on a medium range. This is probably due to the necessary concentration on small and medium-sized enterprises.

Basically there are more positive incentives for **employees** to participate in job rotation projects. Usually they do not have to pay a share of the costs for courses of the further training which means that their investment involves the time needed for the course and helping to incorporate the substitute in his/her

³¹ An enterprise subsidy of up to DM 310,- monthly is possible under the unemployment insurance regulations.

workplace. Considering the increasing necessity for life-long learning, one may speak here of a positive cost-benefit ratio.

However the institutional framework conditions described above mean that, despite the generally positive incentive structures, the employees are not free to decide to participate in such schemes. So long as there are no general regulations concerning training leave, the company management usually selects the staff members who are to participate. This results frequently in an increase of segmentation within the company (cf. Sengenberger 1987).

In general, the incentive structure for **enterprises** is positive. In the German system to date, the enterprises also only have to bear a share of the active further training costs – this is limited to continuing the employees' wage payments. On the assumption that suitable substitutes are selected (this choice of course being the highest risk factor for the enterprise), the potential increase in the company's competitiveness outweighs the costs incurred.

From an labour market policy viewpoint, there are, in regard to the enterprises, so-called 'deadweight' effects to be discussed. All reports on the state of the German SMEs emphasise the fact that there is a low awareness of the necessity for strategic further training planning. This means that those parties responsible for implementing projects must make a special effort to include enterprises in the schemes which need assistance in protecting their workplaces through upgrading of qualifications. If this does not succeed, there is, in the light of the German institutional framework, a danger that the training courses which have been planned anyway, will be subsidised for the more active companies which will then produce detrimental effects for the other enterprises.

Finally, these outlined incentive structures can only be accepted in the light of the current implementation methods. It has become clear that an implementation of job rotation especially within the present national legal conditions would be very difficult without EU support. On the national level there is, up to now, no public budget or suitable instrument available to update further training for employees in the preventative sense as promoted by the ADAPT initiative.

A summary therefore in a final assessment calls on those responsible to improve the incentive structures for the unemployed, to provide the means for employees to participate without European subsidies and possibly that enterprises take more responsibility for further training also in financial terms which could help the prevention of 'deadweight' effects.

Certain aspects of such a development of the framework conditions for a long-term, nation-wide implementation of job rotation schemes in Germany will be briefly discussed at the end of the following summary.

5. Conclusion and outlook

The aim of this study was to theoretically develop the conditions necessary for a nation-wide implementation of job rotation schemes in nine Member States of the European Union and to investigate them empirically in an international comparison.

Six separate key areas could be identified which are particularly relevant for the expected success of job rotation schemes. These could be differentiated in "external" conditions, i.e. those that cannot be immediately altered through labour market policy and instruments and in "internal" conditions. From our viewpoint, the external factors include the economic health of the individual sectors and the level of competitiveness of the participating companies. On the other hand there are factors which, for a long-lasting success of job rotation schemes in a national context, must be influenced by political strategies: the legal and the financial framework conditions and the prerequisites to implementation. Indicators were specified which showed advantageous or disadvantageous development potential for job rotation in the individual countries. In this context, the most important indicators can be summarised as: the legal regulations for the further training of the employed and the unemployed, the strength of the dismissal protection laws, the financial and political responsibility for training, the relation between unemployment benefits and substitution payments and the co-operative structure of the regional implementation networks.

Empirically based opinions about the actual effects of the individual framework conditions on the success of job rotation schemes are, all in all, still very difficult to make at this present stage of project developments in the various European countries. The Danish example however, shows that one of the main factors for setting up a nation-wide implementation is a combination of just a few framework conditions:

- Far-reaching legal or collectively agreed regulations regarding further training for the employed and practice-oriented (further) training for the unemployed and for sections of the non-working population are necessary.
- The incentives for employees to undergo further training must be guaranteed through the existence of appropriate regulations. Leave of absence for the purpose of improving one's skills must be flanked by secure dismissal protection legislation.
- The costs incurred through job rotation projects should be 'fairly' distributed through a suitable co-funding structure in order to keep the so-called 'deadweight' effects as low as possible.

- The incentives for the substitution persons should be clearly positive. Through an adequate reimbursement for substitution work, an sufficient increase in comparison to unemployment benefits should be assured.
- Efficient regional networks are necessary in order to implement the projects on the interface between labour market policy and structural policy.

A stable legal basis for the further training of workers has been created in Denmark through the creation of new regulations for leave of absence. Parallel to this, due to the right of an unemployed person to a job offer after a six month period of unemployment, the legal as well as the financial prerequisites for the implementation of job rotation have been created. In the context of the above-mentioned necessary framework conditions, both of these new regulations within the past few years appear to be the key to the successful Danish nation-wide implementation of job rotation projects.

When taking both of these factors as fundamental prerequisites, one can also say that along with Denmark, Finland and Sweden have also fulfilled these conditions. Similar legal regulations are presently being drafted in Italy while in Austria, although the new regulations need to be improved along with a useful co-operative structure in the labour administration, the development potential can be deemed as positive. In France, Portugal and the United Kingdom, there is presently no legal basis tailored to job rotation. France however could create a new innovative and, possibly in the long-term, a more successful structure for job rotation implementation by utilising the system of the further training funds. Portugal has also already institutionalised initial stages towards co-operative labour market policy through the training societies, which can well provide a foundation for new innovative legislation. Implementation in the United Kingdom will prove more difficult. The combination of the traditionally low rate of government activity in training both the employed and the unemployed with the weak dismissal protection laws is certainly detrimental to the creation of positive framework conditions offering all parties involved incentives for enterprises to partake in job rotation. However in this case, the promising new political developments must be observed – these could well lead to a positive turn in integrative labour market and structural policies.

When estimating the development potential of the German model in the light of the other nine countries compared in this study, a very positive prognosis can be ventured. Active labour market policy in Germany focuses traditionally on training for the unemployed and, thanks to the changes made in the legislation governing labour market policy (SGB III), one of the barriers in this area has been overcome: when participating in schemes run by the employment service, unemployed persons may now undergo longer practical training in enterprises. This deserves special mention as this is an example how quickly the law-makers reacted to make necessary changes the need of which was recognised through the practical implementation of job rotation. This reflects the willingness to create more suitable framework conditions.

On the other hand it has also become clear that more far-reaching changes are necessary in order to achieve a labour market policy of long-term successful job rotation implementation: the area of training for the employed is still not covered by the German employment promotion laws which means that the implementation of job rotation schemes is still extremely dependent on European co-funding.

The current form of implementation in Germany offers the unemployed too few, and the enterprises possible too many, positive incentives to participate in job rotation schemes. An important way to tackle this problem would be through restructuring the funding models.

For the long-term perspective, a form of funding needs to be found which is counterpart to the current systematic logic in the Scandinavian countries and which will simultaneously utilise their experience in order to draft ones own long-term, workable financing concept. Corresponding to the practice in Denmark and Finland for example, the substitutes need to be offered a better financial incentive to participate in job rotation projects. This can be managed by concluding a fixed-term contract with the enterprise for the duration of the substitution period. When it is assumed that, due to lack of experience, the substitute cannot match 100% of the productivity of the worker being substituted but rather around 80%, then the wages could be agreed on as 80% of the agreed union rate.

The employees undergoing further training would receive unemployment benefit for this period which in the German unemployment insurance system would amount to approx. 68-78% of their previous wages for a training period of up to six months (cf. Tab.1: 5.4). Since it can be assumed that the employees will have increased productivity after the training and will thus also benefit from a wage increase, then they have also incentives to participate despite the short-term decrease in wages. This would to a certain extent be an extra burden on the unemployment insurance system as the workers undergoing training probably have a right to higher unemployment benefits than the substitutes. But through this change-over in financial responsibilities, there would be such a fundamental change in the incentive structures that in the long-term, a net benefit for the economy may be expected.³²

It is clear that this restructuring of the funding has been suggested from a mid-term to long-term perspective. However for the short-term and for a transitory period until fundamental changes to the financing structures have been made, more leeway for funding the substitutes could be found through involving the social security offices to a greater extent. The social security

³²In order to exactly determine this net benefit, deadweight, ousting and substitution effects must of course be checked and the cost-benefit ratio for all participating parties must be more precisely estimated as was possible within the framework of this study. Here only the trends from the analysis of the international comparison could be considered. For exact figures see the publication by Günther Schmid which is currently being prepared.

offices play an important role in any case in seeking and funding substitutes, although their degree of involvement varies from region to region. Their involvement is advantageous because the local social security offices may often freely avail of certain amounts of the budgets (this applies to the local employment service since the SGB III is in force) and also because many experts of the regional economic structure are employed there.

In any case, a co-ordination of all parties responsible for the unemployed (as well as the labour and social security offices, also smaller initiatives) to help create a type of "pool of unemployed persons" is an interesting variant in order to lower the current high transactions costs of finding suitable substitutes.

It has been pointed out that to date no regular financial conditions, which are independent of European funding, have been set up in Germany for the further training of employees. In the sense of a fair co-funding form, it could be argued that the enterprises, which have a direct interest in further training due to the increased productivity of their employees who undergo training, should also pay a share of the active training costs. Thus, a proportional funding from public finances, whereby active labour market policy must be extended to include more preventive schemes, and funding from private enterprises could be a solution.

The developments in Denmark have shown that the participation of enterprises in job rotation depends much on the economic climate. In the current healthy economy, production is running at maximum capacity which means that little freedom remains to partake in further training schemes. On the other hand, especially the small and medium-sized enterprises – the most important target group – have, in periods of low turnover, insufficient financial resources to share the active costs of further training. The nation-wide introduction of further training funds, as is practised in France for example, would be a solution to this dilemma and would help create a fair financing structure. In Germany also there are already in certain sectors further training funds and their effects have been generally deemed as positive by the enterprises. Moreover, if enterprises were to participate in a fund system, their willingness for further training would be increased³³.

Apart from disseminating an idea "whose time has come"³⁴ and the active engagement of all parties involved, the successful implementation of job rotation calls for the creation of suitable framework conditions for employees and positive incentives for the unemployed. This is however only to be achieved by those responsible within the political system and the enterprise associations and is no doubt dependent on prevailing political majorities and the balance of power.

³³ This result has been described by Moraal and Schmidt (1998) for the social fund in the scaffolding sector.

³⁴ In context with Job Rotation a quote from Victor Hugo is often cited: "Nothing is as powerful as an idea whose time has come".

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Appendix

Tab. 1: Indicators of the institutional and financial framework for Job rotation in nine European countries.

Indicator	United Kingdom	Sweden	Denmark	France	Portugal	Italy	Finland	Austria	Germany
I. Legal framework									
1.1. Regulations for further training (FT) for employees	No compulsion for enterprises for FT, but incentives such as the "Investors in People" standard. Access to training and paid education leave is negotiated between the employer and employee.	Access to FT is guaranteed by the right of all employees to leave of absence. Since 1978 all employees can avail of 25 working days for leave. No government funding for the work release (OECD 1997: 97)	Employees, unemployed and self-employed (Employment for a min. of 3 yrs. within the past 5 yrs.) have a right every 5 years to a year-long (unemployed: 2 years) leave for FT (with the employers consent). FT during work time for low-skilled workers, additional collective agreements. Employment of unemployed substitutes during educational leave is voluntary ³⁵ (since 1994).	Employees have a right to individual study leave (CIF) Low utilisation, no state funding for the work release (OECD 1997: 97). Enterprises must invest fixed sum in FT (s. 2.6.)	Constitutional right to vocational training. Legal regulations exist for government funding for FT for employees. Regulations for unpaid FT leave are agreed upon with the unions.	No general FT regulations. Educational leave possible. According to the "Agreement on Employment", legal regulations are being planned for work release, grants for FT and a levy for training	Leave of absence ("job alternation leave", JAL) (90-359 days) with employer's consent after periods of continual employment (as of 1 year). Employment of unemployed substitutes compulsory . Leave of absence may be used for any purpose. Additional collective agreements possible	Employees (Firms > 200 staff): after 3 years employment break for FT ("unpaid leave, unpaid study leave") Payment from unemployment insurance: 5565AS (approx. 400 ECU). Higher payments for special training possible. No compulsory re-employment for job release for FT; otherwise (parental leave, sabbatical): replacement.	In 10 of the 16 <i>Laender</i> educational leave regulations for employees (5 days annually) Federal laws for master craftsman training in the trade sector. FT laws cover private FT and funding. Additional collective agreements (possible).
1.2. Strength of dismissal protection legislation (End of the 80s) ³⁶	(2,0) weak	(11,0) strong	(4,0) weak	(6,0) medium	(16,0) strong	(14,0) strong	(9,5) medium	(13,0) strong	(9,5) medium

³⁵ cf. Nätti (1997).

³⁶ Source: OECD (1994b).

Indicator	United Kingdom	Sweden	Denmark	France	Portugal	Italy	Finland	Austria	Germany
1.3. Regulations for fixed term contracts ³⁷	No restrictions	Several restrictions and regulations, no maximum duration, renewable twice.	Only restriction: renewable only under certain conditions.	Several restrictions and regulations, under normal circumstances not renewable, otherwise not more than twice. Maximum duration 18 months.	Several restrictions and regulations, maximum duration months, renewable twice.	Several restrictions and regulations, conditions not renewable, maximum duration 6 months.	*	Few restrictions, under normal circumstances not renewable.	Certain restrictions and regulations, renewable, maximum duration 18 months
1.4. Regulations for work and training of the unemployed	Training for Work programme: Combination of FT and work experience for the unemployed; Implementation: TECs	Offer of training through the labour administration, practical training and courses at the workplace, Substitution for employees in FT legally regulated (Utbildningsvikaariat 1996)	Combination of further training laws for the unemployed and leave of absence for employees possible ³⁸ ; regulations for employees and the unemployed have been brought into line. Free AMU courses.	Right to support for vocational training schemes, assistance for job commencement, integration courses	Vocational training for young people and problem groups, practical training especially for young persons.	Right to participate in vocational training courses, practical training.	Labour market training with a right to financial support, vocational training (esp. youth). Law through job rotation : Substitution of released employees by unemployed persons ³⁹	Vocational training, FT, training,	Job start assistance, possibility to participate in FT and job creation schemes, full-time courses lasting up to 1 year, in job rotation and schemes with a particularly high practical portion. Special target groups: Long-term unemployed, older and young unemployed persons. The unemployed also receive payments during training.

³⁷ Source: EIRR (No. 284, 1997), European Commission (1996).

³⁸ The combination of further training for employees and the employment of unemployed persons in the form of job rotation has been made easier through the long-term leaves of absences (VUS) and the regulations for further training and activation for the unemployed (UTB/ATB).

³⁹ Additional state subsidies for inner-company training is possible since the beginning of 1998 when the further training is combined with the employment of a long-term unemployed person (cf. inforMISEP No. 62, Summer 1998, P. 27).

Indicator	United Kingdom	Sweden	Denmark	France	Portugal	Italy	Finland	Austria	Germany
II. Financial framework									
2.1. Financial responsibility for labour market policy	Ministry for education and Employment (DIEE)	Ministry for Labour	Ministry for Labour	Ministry for Labour and Solidarity	Ministry for Education and Labour	Ministry for Labour and Social Insurance	Ministry for Labour	Federal Ministry for Labour and Social Affairs	Federal Ministry for Labour and Social Affairs (BMA)
2.2. Responsibility for labour market policy implementation	Active and passive measures: Labour administration. Active measures in co-operation with the privately organised TECs (Training and Enterprise Councils).	Active measures: Labour administration (AMV) Passive measures: Unemployment insurance funds (Social partners) and the labour administration (basic security) (KAS)	Active measures: Labour administration (AMS/AF) Passive measures: Payment of unemployment benefits from many unemployment insurance funds ("A Funds")	Active measures: ANPE (labour market services, labour market training, FT) and Ministry for labour (special training courses due to the structural changes etc.) Passive measures: UNEDIC	Active measures: Institute for Employment and Training (IEFP) Passive measures: INPS or labour directorates	Active measures: Regional and local labour directorates Passive measures: INPS or labour directorates	Active measures: Labour Administration Passive measures: Ministry for Health and Social Welfare, payments through the unemployment insurance.	Active and passive measures: Labour Administration (AMS).	Active and passive measures: "Federal labour Office" (BA), regional labour offices, regional public authorities.
2.3. Expenditures ⁴⁰ for active labour market policy (1995 or 1996)	a) 0,46 b) 0,06	a) 2,25 b) 0,39	a) 2,26 b) 0,23	a) 1,3 b) 0,10	a) 1,04 b) 0,11	a) 0,9 b) 0,11	a) 1,73 b) 0,09	a) 0,38 b) 0,06	a) 1,43 b) 0,14
2.4. Main focus of active labour market policy ⁴²	1. Placement 2. Young unemployed	1. Wage subsidies 2. Young unemployed	1. Training 2. Wage subsidies	1. Training 2. Young unemployed	1. Young unemployed 2. Training	1. Young unemployed	1. Training 2. Young unemployed	1. Placement 2. Training	1. Training 2. Wage subsidies
2.5. a) National Adapt budget ⁴³ b) EU share in % c) per employee (1996) ⁴⁴	a) 1,421 Mill. DM b) 44,2 % c) 49,40 DM	a) 49 Mill. DM b) 52% c) 11,40 DMDM	a) 140 Mill. b) 45 % c) 49,20 DM	a) 1,270 Mill. b) 43,4% c) 49,60 DM	a) 59 Mill. b) 72,0 % c) 13 DM	a) 821 Mill. b) 53 % c) 35,90 DM	a) 102 Mill. b) 45,9 % c) 40,80 DM	a) 60 Mill. b) 45 % c) 16,50 DM	a) 1068 Mill. b) 47,6 % c) 27,80 DM

⁴⁰ Sources: OECD Economic Surveys: Ireland (1997: 96), European Commission (1995-1998): MISEP Basis information report Austria 1998.

⁴¹ Spending intensity: Spending as a percentage rate of the GDP divided by the number of unemployed.

⁴² Source: OECD (1996a).

⁴³ The total national budget for Adapt projects consists of a European share (31-75%) and a national share. Conversion: 1 ECU = 1,98 DM. Source: EUROPS in the internet.

⁴⁴ The employment rate of 1996 was the basis for the calculation of Adapt support per employee (Source: OECD 1998b).

Indicator	United Kingdom	Sweden	Denmark	France	Portugal	Italy	Finland	Austria	Germany
2.6. Financing of FT for employees	Enterprises pay for the FT, levies to the Industrial Training Boards. Special loans for further training are available to small enterprises (up to 50 employees).	State subsidies for inner-company training and FT possible (60 SEK/h, 920h/employee in 2 years). No subsidies for leaves of absence. Local authorities finance general FT	FT for employees is mainly funded by the government (AMU), the costs for the enterprises depends on the company specification of the courses.	Enterprises (>10 employees) must invest (1,5%) of their gross wage sum in training: 0,2% individual FT, 0,4% initial training, 0,9% enterprise FT Enterprises (<10 employees): 0,15% in a global training fund, no subsidies for leaves of absence	State financed IEFP further training activities: 30% of funding is directly allocated to their own "protocol centres", 70% to semi-state centres or other co-operatives.	Vocational and further training is funded by the government (national and regional). EU funds play a significant role, especially in underdeveloped regions. Shared funding of courses by larger companies and the government.	State subsidies for vocational training and training in the enterprises. Social partners' FT funds for employees. Leaves of absence financed through unemployment insurance.	Enterprises and trade unions	Responsibility lies with the enterprises; funds solutions available in certain sectors (building and construction)
III. Regional networks									
3.1. Organisational structure of the labour administration ⁴⁵	Decentralised organisation: "Management by objectives", local "Employment Service Centres" (ESC) High degree of independence. Tripartite administrative structures have been dismantled in favour of more influence from regional employers.	Decentralised organisation: Labour administration (AMS and AMV) is responsible for the co-ordination and analysis of labour market policy. Also responsible for ESF funds. Communal pilot projects to strengthen the regionalisation of measures. Tripartite representation on all levels. "One entry system"	Decentralised organisation: 14 regional branches which co-operate with the administrative boards of the regional labour offices, with the social partners and with the local authorities.	Centralised, fragmented organisation. State control is high but there are tripartite boards on all levels. Responsibility for FT is divided more strongly among the regions. 500 different contracts exist between the labour market parties (high grade of fragmentation) 'Guichet unique' (One-stop-office)	Centralised, integrated organisation. The social partners are involved in the administration of IEFP and IGFFS.	(Still:) centralised, fragmented organisation. Large number of different authorities, administrations and corporatist bodies are involved in labour market policy. Strongly regulated job placement. Tripartite arrangements on all levels of labour market policy. Regional level is important for industrial restructuring. Extensive regionalisation of labour market policy is being planned. ⁴⁶	Decentralised organisation: tripartite consultations on all levels, targeted policy implementation; the labour regions and local labour offices are responsible for implementation.	Centralised, integrated organisation: All levels have a committee with equal tripartite representation with controlling and decision-making authority. On the federal state and regional levels: Formulation of employment policy objectives in the individual regions.	Centralised, integrated organisation: Administration through a tripartite committee on national, regional and local levels. Financial independence increased through the introduction of an "experimental budget" which the local labour offices can freely utilise within the framework of the normal legal conditions.

⁴⁵ Sources: Höcker (1994), European Commission (1995-1998): MISEP Basis information reports.

⁴⁶ cf. European Commission: informISEP Measures No. 62, Summer 1998.

Indicator	United Kingdom	Sweden	Denmark	France	Portugal	Italy	Finland	Austria	Germany
3.2. Organisational structure of the further training system	Regional government representatives co-operate with the regional authorities and the TEC. Industrial Training Boards run training institutions for the employed which are financed by the enterprises. SMEs receive support from the TECs in questions regarding further training.	FT for adults offered by the municipalities (vocational training, school and university education) Subsidised inner-company FT (s. 2.6.)	Regional labour market boards (comprising regional labour offices, social partners and local authorities) responsible for planning active labour market policy. Offer of special occupational sector and branch oriented "Labour market training schemes" (AMU), whose utilisation in the enterprises is organised by cooperative committees (works committees, trade unions, employers' representatives). VUC (general adult education) also for the unemployed.	Further training funds (cf. Tab. 1: 3.6.) exist in all branches, tripartite representation on the upper level only, enterprises responsible for FT of employees, special training offer for SME employees. AFPA: Regional responsibility for contributing to further training for employees increasing.	Responsibility for FT lies with the Ministry for Labour and Social Affairs which controls the IEFP training centres. Offer: Vocational training for employees and for the unemployed and manager training for SMEs. Target groups: lower skilled workers, SME employees, the long-term unemployed, ethnic minorities, workers affected by structural changes.	Vocational training, further training for the employed, for school-leaver and for the unemployed is the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour and of the regions which run vocational training centres. FT for employees is run in-house by larger companies. FT also for short-time workers (Wage Compensation Fund). Quality certification for further training institutions	The labour administration is responsible for financing further training for the unemployed whereby planning and implementation is done on regional and local levels.	Both social partners run their own further training institutions. Tariff contracts and rewards for enterprises stimulate further training activities. "Second Chance" programme.	The vocational training and further training system is left mainly to the trade chambers which set the examination requirements and award certification. Strong focus on training as master craftsman in crafts and industry. Individual sectors (chemicals, banking and insurance) have their own further training systems. Collective agreements: various regulations (rationalisation protection agreements, qualification of tariff contracts) (of little significance)
3.3. Actors in the JR network	TEC (Scotland: LEC), Chambers, regional and municipal boards, private and state-run schools	*	Labour market boards, state and semi-state educational institutes, often with corporatist administration	AFPA (adult education), ANPE (labour administration), trade unions, further training institutes, regional authorities	Labour administration, further training institutions, consultancies	Regional labour administrations, social partners	*	Labour administration, social partners, training bodies	Labour offices, steering committees, employers' associations, enterprises, research institutes, co-ordinating bodies, co-ordination agencies

Indicator	United Kingdom	Sweden	Denmark	France	Portugal	Italy	Finland	Austria	Germany
IV. Corporate structural and economic conditions									
4.1. Further training activities of the enterprises (1993) ⁴⁷									
a) SME (10-249 employees)	a) 28	*	a) 35	a) 22	a) 7	a) 5	*	*	a) 16
b) Companies (>250 employees)	b) 48		b) 32	b) 47	b) 22	b) 23			b) 26
4.2. General economic situation (Percentual change of the GDP in comparison to the previous year (1997, 1998, 1999) ⁴⁸	3,3/1,7/1,8	1,8/2,6/2,4	3,4/3,0/2,8	2,4/2,9/2,8	3,5/3,8/3,2	2,4/2,9/2,8	5,9/4,2/3,0	2,1/2,7/2,9	2,2/2,7/2,9
4.3. Unemployment rate ⁴⁹									
a) 1995 / 1996 / 1997	a) 8.7 / 8.2 / 7.0	a) 8.8 / 9.6 / 9.9	a) 7.2 / 6.8 / 5.5	a) 11.7 / 12.4	a) 7.3 / 7.3 / 6.8	a) 11.9 / 12.1	a) 16.2 / 15.3	a) 3.9 / 4.3 / 4.4	a) 8.2 / 8.9 / 10.0
b) 1998 (Month)	b) 6.4 (March)	b) 8.9 (May)	b) 4.7 (April)	b) 11.9 (May)	b) 6.4 (May)	b) 12.0 (January)	b) 12.7 (May)	b) 4.5 (May)	b) 9.8 (May)
V. Motivational conditions									
5.1. Legal status of the substitution	Temporarily employed by the company	Temporarily employed by the company	Temporarily employed by the company	Not yet clarified	Not employed by the company	Not employed by the company	Not employed by the company	Employed with a fixed term contract	(Not) temporarily employed by the company ⁵⁰

⁴⁷ Proportion of the employees who participated in further training in 1993 as a percentage of the total staff. Source: Eurostat (1996), the percentages show the arithmetic average of the percentual number of further training participants in the categories 10-49 employees, 50-99 employees and 100-249 employees (a), as well as 250-499 employees, 500-999 employees and 1000+ employees (b).

⁴⁸ Source: OECD Economic Outlook (1998), Figures for 1998 and 1999 are OECD estimates.

⁴⁹ Standardised, season-related unemployment rate in percent according to OECD estimates; definition corresponds to the ILO convention. Source: OECD News Release in the Internet (www.oecd.org).

⁵⁰ Possible status: Training scheme (§48 SGB III), work practical further training scheme (§89 SGB III), practical training in job creation scheme, SAM, free measures.

Indicator	United Kingdom	Sweden	Denmark	France	Portugal	Italy	Finland	Austria	Germany
<p>5.2. Wage level for the substitute⁵¹</p> <p>a) as a % of the employees' wages</p> <p>b) Difference between substitutions' wages and compensatory payment benefits</p>	<p>a) 100%</p> <p>b) 70%</p>	<p>a) 96%</p> <p>b) 35%</p>	<p>a) 100%</p> <p>b) 10%</p>	<p>a) 75%</p> <p>b) 34%</p>	<p>a) 72%</p> <p>b) 16%</p>	<p>a) 40%</p> <p>b) 6%</p>	<p>a) 42%</p> <p>b) 15%</p>	<p>a) 76%</p> <p>b) 64%</p>	<p>a) 45%⁵²</p> <p>b) 0%⁵³</p>
<p>5.3. Promotion of further education for individuals</p>	<p>Learning accounts, training cheques for youth. Tax reductions, good borrowing rates.</p>	<p>Government-financed promotional programme for employees on educational leave, but no state or funds-based payments.</p>	<p>FT in free AMU courses generally lead to recognised certification. Financial support comparable to unemployment benefits for employees on further training leave.</p>	<p>Support for youth training (crédit formation), no general state or funds-based payments</p>	<p>Educational leave with state-financed support possible. Evening courses for employees. Special target groups: badly-qualified SME employees.</p>	<p>Certification also for short further training courses. Compensation for further training periods through new working time models, grants for employees in FT, "honorary loans" for employees who combine part-time employment with FT.</p>	<p>Government support for individuals. Financial support: 60% of unemployment benefits, max. FIM 4500 (DM 1495) per month for employees on release, in vocational FT.+ FIM 1000 tax free.</p>	<p>Government-run further training offers usually free of charge. Financial support for the unemployed, assistance for employees, financial support partially from the enterprises</p>	<p>Individual support for FT (study grants etc.). Subsidies for training institutions</p>

⁵¹ The calculation is based on the national model calculations EU job rotation (1998).

⁵² In Germany an enterprise subvention of up to DM 310 monthly for the substitution is possible.

⁵³ As an unemployed person in further training: maintenance corresponding to unemployment benefit or unemployment assistance. As a participant in a job creation scheme (practical training): corresponds to job creation schemes rates.

Indicator	United Kingdom	Sweden	Denmark	France	Portugal	Italy	Finland	Austria	Germany
5.4. Wage replacement rates of benefits after tax (OECD 1997) ^{54 55} : a) Single person b) Couple, 2 children, incl. housing benefits, initial c) Couple, 2 children, incl. housing benefits, after the 60 th month of unemployment	a) 23 b) 77 c) 77	a) 75 b) 89 c) 99	a) 70 b) 83 c) 83	a) 67 b) 80 c) 65	*	a) 36 b) 47 c) 11	a) 63 b) 88 c) 98	*	a) 68 b) 78 c) 71
5.5. Duration and dynamics of benefit payments	6 months maximum duration, then unemployment assistance roughly corresponding to social welfare benefits	300 – 450 days, extension possible when conditions fulfilled (Availability and willingness to work)	Up to 5 years. (unemployed over 60: 30 months, under 25: 6 months, then job offer. Maximum limit: 2630 DKr (1997) per week (349 ECU, 688 DM)	max. 27 months unemployment benefits then gradual reduction over 33 months followed by social welfare benefits and other assistance	Depends on the age at which the unemployed person commenced last job. Examples: 30 years: 15 months, 40 years: 21 months.	6 months maximum duration, then social welfare benefits after assessment	2 years unemployment benefits, then basic rate of unemployment assistance (not wage-related)	20-30 or 52 weeks unemployment benefits, then unemployment assistance for unlimited period	6 to 32 months depending on age and contributions levied, then unemployment assistance for unlimited period
5.6. Support for the idea of life-long learning ⁵⁶ a) Working population (15-64) b) Employees c) Unemployed	a) 82 b) 85 c) 84	a) 76 b) 79 c) 72	a) 91 b) 93 c) 92	a) 80 b) 83 c) 80	a) 67 b) 71 c) 84	a) 66 b) 72 c) 76	a) 74 b) 81 c) 71	a) 47 b) 49 c) 38	a) 58 b) 64 c) 55
5.7. Subjective job security (Spring 1996) ⁵⁷	33	27	56	21	25	30	31	37	28

⁵⁴ Source: OECD (1997d). Data was gathered for the years 1994/1995.

⁵⁵ The average net compensatory payments are for a 40 year-old average production worker (APW, single or with family), who has been continually employed since age 18, one month after the commencement of unemployment.

⁵⁶ Eurobarometer 44.0 (Autumn 1996). Percentage of workers and unemployed which have a positive attitude to the principle of life-long learning. **All** age groups are represented.

⁵⁷ Percentage of employees who completely agree with the statement "My job is secure". Source: OECD (1997a: 133) based on Eurobarometer 44.3.

Indicator	United Kingdom	Sweden	Denmark	France	Portugal	Italy	Finland	Austria	Germany
VI. Project development									
6.1. Status of the regional co-ordination agency	WEA: private, non-profit-making training organisations (Worker-FT) GDA: co-operation with Scottish Enterprise (Scottish TECs), private companies under contract by the public authorities Warrington Borough Council and South Ayrshire Council: municipal bodies. Milton Keynes College: School for FT	ABF: private, non-profit-making training organisation (Worker-FT) County Labour Board of Örebro: is the regional labour administration as steering committee for AAMP (also administers ESF funds)	AOF: private, non-profit-making training organisation (Worker-FT) job rotation is implemented by 8 regional AOF branches.	E21 : consulting for the private and public sectors. ANFA: Training funds, established by the social partners (Worker-FT)	SOPROFOR : private enterprise consulting (personnel development, FT). Projects with associations and trade unions. DGACCP: national state-run organisation for the implementation of reintegration and further training policies.	Arcidonna: independent non-profit-making society for the promotion of equality on the labour market. Funding sources: Ministry for Labour, regional and local authorities and <i>public funding</i> .	Lahti Research and Training Centre. State-run college for university education, FT and labour market training	ÖSB: private, limited company, consultancy.	SPI: non-profit-making foundation, implementation of labour market policy, consultancy BFZ: training institute in co-operation with the labour administration, non-profit-making.
6.2. System for determination of regional qualification needs	Government: annual questionnaires to enterprises, TECs and further training institutions: regional analyses, annual national general analysis	Establishment of a very flexible training and further training system which can quickly react to changes.	Quarterly sector and occupation-related studies on regional levels by associations, labour market service, annual national report	Enterprises: reports on personnel development plans but are neither compulsory nor monitored. Government surveys in individual sectors, regional observation bodies	Data collection (enterprises, regions, sectors) for the prospective national requirements planning by an employment and training watch-dog	Preliminary investigations by industrial and trade associations on the systemisation of requirements planning	Prospective requirements planning by the Ministry for Labour	Surveys by the board of Economic and Social Affairs, federal Ministry for Labour and Social Affairs, AMS (regional levels)	Estimations by the Federal Ministries on a national level, surveys and reports by the labour offices and the IAB, regional model projects. Sporadic large regional and national studies
6.3. Supportive committees	yes	*	no	*	*	no	no	no	yes
6.4. Size of the JR projects (Number of projects / employees in JR / substitutions)⁵⁸	3 / 135 / 34	39 / 1130 / 285	80 / 3000 / 1200	*	8 / 299 / 193	4 / 60 / 80	1 / 450 / 32	32 / 900 / 223	8 / 76 / 86 (only SPI)

⁵⁸ Source: Questionnaire for the survey. Stand: September 1998. Only the figures for SPI are available for Germany. Six further projects in the UK are still in the planning stages.

BÜCHER
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