

The Fight Against Unemployment Across Europe: On The Path Towards the 2020 Goal

Europe 2020 First Target: Fighting Unemployment
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Current Active and Passive Policies in Europe Possible Solutions for Unemployment

Germany - Greece - Italy - Poland - Spain - Turkey



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1. Solutions proposed by the European Union

INTRODUCTION

The European Commission considers employment as the first target for the EU in 2020 (75% of the 20-64 year-olds to be employed). We have been asked to find out how the measures proposed by the EU and the national government bodies are being implemented and which new measures could be undertaken in order to reach the goal mentioned above.

The labor market is the key tool for understanding the social position of the people, their income and their personal progression. Being unemployed or working in precarious conditions exponentially increases the chances of going through precarious situations or extreme poverty. Unemployed people have a higher risk of poverty than employed people, as we can see in the following data related to the **index of risk of poverty according to the labor activity** in Catalonia (Spain) for 2011: *ocupat* (employed), *aturat* (unemployed), *jubilat* (retired), *altres situacions d'activitat* (other situations of labor inactivity).

Taula 1 Taxa de risc a la pobresa¹ segons relació amb l'activitat.
Població major de 16 anys. Catalunya 2011

		Taxa
ACTIU	- Ocupat	14,82
	- Aturat	37,40
INACTIU	- Jubilat	15,97
	- Altres situacions d'inactivitat	29,67
Total		21,43

Font: Idescat i IERMB. Enquesta de condicions de vida i hàbits de la població.²

We also see that the **number of employed people who can be described as “poor unemployed people”** has increased in Catalonia (Spain), and the European Union:

Taula 2 Evolució de treballadors pobres a Catalunya, Estat espanyol i Unió Europea. 2007-2010

	2007	2008	2009	2010
Catalunya	11,40%	10,40%	12,00%	13,70%
Estat espanyol	10,70%	10,70%	11,40%	12,70%
Unió Europea	8,50%	8,60%	8,40%	8,50%

font: Font: Idescat i Eurostat. ICV (Enquesta de Condicions de Vida)

Policies related to this problem are socially strategic. Some measures were adopted to alleviate the shortcomings of people with no access to paid work. One of the key measures was money transfers to people with no or few resources. As an example, the next chart shows the changes in the index of risk of poverty (according to ages) in Catalonia (Spain) for 2011 **before the so-called social transfers, after retirement incomes, and after all the social transfers including retirement incomes:**

Taula 3 Taxa de risc a la pobresa abans/després de les transferències socials² per sexe i edat. Catalunya 2011

	menys de 16 anys	de 16 a 64 anys	65 anys i més	Total
Abans de totes les transferències socials	34,70	33,40	87,30	42,70
Després de pensions, abans d'altres transferències	31,70	25,20	22,90	26,30
Després de totes les transferències socials	26,40	17,70	17,70	19,10

font: Idescat. ECV (Encuesta de Condicions de Vida)

As it can be seen, social transfers have a decisive impact on poverty.

PASSIVE AND ACTIVE POLICIES

In order to cope with unemployment, there are the so-called passive and active policies.

- **Active policies:** public employment services and administration, supplementary training courses for the unemployed, measures against youth unemployment, subsidised employment measures for people with disabilities.
- **Passive policies:** unemployment compensation, early retirement.

Active policies

Active policies were consolidated immediately after the Second World War, according to a model of welfare state that has lasted until today. Nowadays, however, as a result of the new structural conditions of the economy, social relations, etc., some of the assumptions and realities sustaining this policy do not exist anymore. It is obvious that these policies have had different results depending on the context in which they are adopted. The most common active policies are:

- **Labor market intermediation services:** information services, guidance and counselling.
- **Training:** Training is a fundamental aspect of active policies. Currently, there are many people who have lost their jobs because their jobs were no "viable" anymore. Therefore, training is needed in order to restructure large volumes of employed people.
- **Employment promotion:** There are sectors of workers difficult to insert without encouraging their employment with special measures. These measures are often directed at long-term unemployed people to avoid discouragement in their job search and to reduce the risk of acute loss of welfare. These measures are particularly appropriate when the number of long-term unemployed people begins to increase when unemployment is persistent.
- **Direct creation of employment:** It refers to the creation of subsidised jobs. Historically, the creation of jobs has been justified because the market was unable to meet certain social needs and, therefore, the public sector was asked to provide these services by generating the related jobs. The direct creation of employment can offer jobs to people with employment problems. One of the risks of direct creation of jobs is that people employed in this market do not make the leap towards the private labor sector. However, the direct creation of employment can provide people with experience and better chances to seek job outside the public sector.

- **Direct support and rehabilitation:** There are job creation measures specifically dedicated to supporting people with disabilities or socially vulnerable people. These measures are usually temporary. The need for this type of special support is justified because of the specific difficulties of these groups.
- **Promotion of self-employment:** This policy can be carried out through various initiatives. The first one is guidance in the process of starting a business. Secondly, there are direct economic aids for the early stages of a company. Finally, soft loans can be provided by the government in order to promote these initiatives.

Passive Policies

Passive policies were created as a means of protection for the population that was excluded from the labor market for a short period of time and as a means to prevent the collapse of families in poverty. Passive policies have helped alleviate poverty or situations of risk.

High levels of unemployment are creating problems for the traditional passive policies, as they need a growing volume of financial resources.

In periods of massive unemployment, the number of people affected by the problem of unemployment can make traditional financing mechanisms to be insufficient and inefficient.

Type of passive policies

There are two types of passive policies of occupation. On the one hand, the unemployment benefits policy, i.e., transfers of monetary resources to those who have lost their jobs. On the other hand, there are policies promoting early retirement.

- **Unemployment benefit:** Provision against a sudden loss of income in order to ensure a minimum income. This fact acts as a stabilising economic aid and maintains the economic and social stability of the unemployed people.

- **Early retirement:** It is justified by the need to encourage the recruitment of young people and make room for this sector of the population in the labor market. Nevertheless, these measures are questioned at a time and in a context in which people with retirement pensions are becoming more active and busy workers are decreasing.

Comparative investment on active and passive policies

Investment on active policies and passive policies related to the labor market has great differences due to different criteria between countries and regions inside the countries. As shown in the following chart, for example, **the total investment on active policies (in 2011)** in Spain is the highest in the EU in absolute terms, only surpassed by France and Germany.

Taula 4 Despesa total en polítiques ACTIVES⁶ (milions d'euros)

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
França	12.317,628	13.398,389	12.388,235	13.815,002	16.144,570	13.646,211
Alemanya	13.993,464	11.336,890	12.703,148	15.048,302	13.971,817	11.636,650
Espanya	6.172,966	6.608,444	6.584,542	6.876,443	7.637,249	7.403,619
Bèlgica	2.905,726	3.280,555	3.715,527	4.032,404	4.444,398	5.101,338
Itàlia	6.227,295	5.802,840	5.920,655	5.532,463	4.966,173	4.845,281
Països Baixos	4.230,771	4.140,713	4.283,158	4.581,084	4.634,692	4.191,425
Dinamarca	2.654,883	2.320,278	2.280,329	2.510,701	3.298,241	3.706,082
Suècia	3.188,753	2.733,981	2.162,618	1.947,999	2.809,495	3.103,502
Àustria	1.394,798	1.391,054	1.454,560	1.833,747	1.887,071	1.708,774
Finlàndia	1.219,115	1.258,351	1.240,664	1.287,454	1.553,026	1.617,089
Noruega	1.248,327	1.271,958	1.286,027	1.310,390	1.609,722	1.601,543
Polònia	976,339	1.257,556	1.699,839	1.533,468	2.133,538	1.235,727
Irlanda	828,389	920,011	982,529	1.042,349	1.148,401	1.160,937
Portugal	707,228	630,053	700,588	1.061,185	1.000,436	783,375
Hongria	226,649	255,155	278,952	357,515	534,457	349,216
República Txeca	147,867	159,422	175,275	227,630	329,374	276,310
Luxemburg	130,893	137,485	133,074	141,689	168,774	195,832
Eslovàquia	63,714	53,950	96,916	94,583	152,661	154,160
Eslovènia	54,377	38,332	34,720	88,050	141,849	91,040
Letònia	29,788	22,872	18,028	50,458	92,137	66,994
Lituània	43,285	52,358	52,491	52,856	62,340	56,140
Xipre	7,794	12,853	19,619	28,954	44,301	55,895

Bulgària	98,012	88,096	89,501	78,315	33,925	50,723
Romania	97,840	95,036	83,462	47,867	34,754	27,474
Estònia	6,603	4,405	5,627	20,634	20,662	23,630
Malta	3,404	1,775	2,886	1,730	2,352	3,330
Grècia	304,319	344,760	335,570	498,294	497,984	:
Regne Unit	806,171	939,507	718,114	634,924	:	:

Font: Eurostat

In Spain, since 2006, the overall investment has been increasing gradually until 2010 with a slight decline in 2011, the last year for which data are available. In the rest of the EU, however, this investment increases in the first year of the most recent crisis (2009).

The explanation of the increased investment seems obvious, as they is a growing number of unemployed people both in absolute terms (Spain is one of the largest population in the EU) and relative terms (the unemployment rate is very high in Spain).

Regarding **investment in passive policies in 2011 in absolute terms** (see the following chart), Spain occupies the first place in the European ranking, followed by France and Germany. The investment in passive policies has also increased steadily between 2006 and 2010, especially in 2008 with the outbreak of the crisis.

Taula 5 Despesa total en polítiques PASSIVES⁷ (milions d'euros)

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
UE 27	131.988,865	118.312,893	120.405,499	164.667,466	168.025,654	:
UE 15	128.678,559	115.263,118	117.530,476	160.485,351	163.563,060	:
Espanya	14.205,395	15.365,677	20.534,656	31.382,230	33.002,853	30.140,492
França	24.985,192	23.460,806	22.790,293	27.042,688	28.139,690	28.054,398
Alemanya	40.093,696	31.376,838	27.372,955	35.959,056	33.061,742	26.668,541
Itàlia	11.361,585	10.713,687	12.690,254	21.007,820	22.550,250	21.540,561
Països Baixos	9.194,000	8.039,700	7.687,700	9.689,900	10.304,400	9.832,100
Bèlgica	6.978,686	6.733,845	6.916,029	8.079,408	8.050,503	7.735,065
Regne unit	3.575,880	3.273,227	3.589,190	5.126,047	5.245,733	:
Irlanda	1.507,676	1.733,540	2.404,172	4.184,447	4.666,136	4.747,508
Dinamarca	4.060,419	3.403,068	2.833,329	3.847,170	4.203,443	3.956,675
Àustria	3.592,614	3.379,591	3.271,566	4.100,184	4.016,867	3.848,477
Finlàndia	2.820,761	2.563,332	2.494,619	3.241,435	3.199,406	2.783,603
Suècia	3.374,296	2.489,999	1.920,402	2.673,752	2.791,933	2.433,295
Portugal	1.913,521	1.775,544	1.700,604	2.204,796	2.399,778	2.283,704
Grècia	805,189	759,171	1.104,109	1.615,231	1.613,614	:
Noruega	1.334,471	1.179,035	988,975	1.585,002	1.530,422	1.438,902
Polònia	1.934,502	1.596,810	1.266,885	1.046,347	1.213,075	1.127,481
Hongria	320,907	359,397	389,937	630,181	697,843	661,198
República Txeca	264,311	259,734	291,238	602,298	547,798	436,693
Eslovàquia	150,881	199,568	279,402	422,531	398,765	342,737

Romania	270,819	283,708	242,515	449,610	679,610	324,265
Eslovènia	118,876	103,448	99,564	217,120	239,876	314,460
Luxemburg	200,700	195,093	206,599	331,135	316,711	271,755
Bulgària	45,964	44,300	53,179	133,966	162,421	162,612
Xipre	96,390	74,489	69,700	114,000	120,100	123,400
Lituània	29,750	32,434	49,624	162,751	132,457	90,887

Expenses per person

In order to evaluate the impact and effectiveness of the policies proposed, it is necessary to look at the relative expenses. In this regard, there are several indicators that can be used, but one of the most important indicators is the investment in such policies according to the number of people who are unemployed, as it can be seen in the next charter (passive policies and active policies):

EXPENSES IN ACTIVE POLICIES per unemployed person (2011 Eurostat)

Taula 6 Despesa per persona aturada, en polítiques ACTIVES

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Bèlgica	4.609,14	5.485,85	6.438,16	6.166,90	6.509,53	7.084,94
Dinamarca	8.145,30	6.234,50	7.023,19	5.703,64	6.334,96	6.605,56
Luxemburg	9.522,71	11.628,87	7.425,43	3.655,32	5.026,05	5.184,15
Noruega	4.388,08	5.337,16	4.828,40	4.480,17	4.823,17	4.912,65
Països Baixos	4.885,62	5.399,49	6.079,71	5.566,53	4.895,99	4.397,56
Suècia	4.534,96	4.317,55	3.485,87	2.591,87	3.354,09	3.831,67
Finlàndia	2.659,10	3.050,35	3.268,62	2.761,35	3.210,32	3.381,82
França	3.271,07	3.870,56	3.692,34	3.377,78	3.911,15	3.279,25
Àustria	2.305,76	2.366,48	2.370,41	2.696,04	2.825,30	2.696,82
Irlanda	3.548,43	4.109,80	3.679,60	2.375,18	2.475,99	2.511,30
Alemanya	2.031,67	1.846,73	2.187,45	2.592,06	2.655,14	2.354,64
UE (15)	1.989,72	2.014,01	2.007,14	1.919,24	:	:
UE (27)	1.632,43	1.703,14	1.757,07	1.685,01	:	:
Xipre	272,25	528,46	856,73	983,42	1.158,52	1.217,24
Espanya	1.930,15	2.215,75	1.765,72	1.268,00	1.308,77	1.199,18
Portugal	1.609,52	1.407,63	1.586,75	1.995,88	1.712,84	956,16
Itàlia	1.147,57	1.045,84	1.016,48	928,86	795,40	784,24
Grècia	639,67	746,74	772,59	909,09	730,59	:

Eslovènia	518,37	426,56	442,95	845,85	1.254,41	778,85
Hongria	574,56	645,53	644,54	782,59	1.052,75	670,60
República Txeca	385,76	518,03	563,88	606,98	802,75	692,74
Polònia	382,51	571,31	825,76	898,67	1.010,39	606,66
Eslovàquia	256,28	269,97	431,57	338,92	462,41	484,68
Letònia	200,40	163,26	122,76	220,53	404,26	320,99
Lituània	508,47	700,09	402,74	263,18	282,32	301,46
Estònia	115,82	83,46	104,98	207,47	182,29	237,30
Bulgària	359,08	389,60	470,82	345,14	114,42	158,42
Regne Unit	188,20	212,80	173,21	140,78	:	:
Malta	192,43	94,37	171,70	86,50	113,82	153,71
Romania	152,87	138,29	133,99	71,66	47,46	33,02

Font: Eurostat

EXPENSES IN PASSIVE POLICIES per unemployed person (2011 Eurostat)

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Bèlgica	11.060,79	11.260,55	11.983,90	12.356,13	11.791,25	10.742,76
Països Baixos	10.617,08	10.483,78	10.912,27	11.774,31	10.885,36	10.315,65
Irlanda	6.457,96	7.743,93	9.022,43	9.535,12	10.060,33	9.285,42
Luxemburg	14.501,33	16.501,52	11.528,08	8.542,71	9.431,59	7.194,01
Dinamarca	12.485,16	9.143,91	8.726,37	8.404,98	8.073,59	7.052,20
França	6.835,07	6.777,42	6.792,70	6.611,97	6.817,06	6.741,62
Àustria	5.339,01	5.740,41	5.331,47	6.028,23	6.014,00	6.073,74
Finlàndia	6.152,57	6.164,75	6.572,25	6.952,27	6.613,61	5.821,35
Alemanya	5.821,08	5.085,72	4.713,55	6.183,93	6.282,97	5.396,30
Espanya	4.441,72	5.151,96	5.506,59	5.786,82	5.655,61	4.881,91
UE15	4.485,35	4.197,59	4.242,56	5.053,98	4.984,89	:
Noruega	4.590,80	4.947,25	3.713,12	5.410,05	4.585,57	4.413,76
UE27	3.861,06	3.512,02	3.637,53	4.360,88	4.236,41	:
Portugal	4.354,83	3.965,83	3.851,68	4.146,70	4.106,65	2.787,41
Itàlia	2.093,72	1.930,92	2.180,26	3.527,05	3.611,74	3.486,48
Suècia	4.798,84	3.932,25	3.095,44	3.557,50	3.333,12	3.004,21
Xipre	3.367,05	3.060,24	3.043,73	3.872,05	3.140,76	2.687,34
Grècia	1.692,50	1.644,35	2.542,02	2.946,83	2.367,33	:
Eslovènia	1.133,24	1.151,17	1.270,23	2.085,77	2.121,29	2.590,20
Hongria	813,50	874,96	900,97	1.379,44	1.374,58	1.259,70
República Txeca	989,55	843,99	936,95	1.606,03	1.335,10	1.094,84
Eslovàquia	506,89	842,38	1.244,20	1.514,07	1.207,85	1.077,58
Regne Unit	834,81	741,38	865,74	1.136,57	1.090,82	:
Malta	1.169,37	1.045,09	1.104,46	1.054,44	1.047,28	981,08
Estònia	187,65	297,59	643,45	1.921,66	1.098,50	801,20
Polònia	257,91	725,43	615,43	525,66	574,48	553,51
Bulgària	168,40	195,92	279,75	500,40	547,81	507,88
Lituània	349,47	364,14	380,74	810,38	595,86	488,05
Romania	423,15	412,83	389,34	673,09	928,06	389,72
Letònia	312,97	432,02	544,31	831,75	546,23	308,36

Font: Eurostat

Analysing this indicator, there are some aspects to be taken into account

- Spain is below the European average in investment on active policies for unemployed. Cyprus is above Spain in this regard, and Germany invested in active policies per unemployed person almost the double.
- As for passive policies, Spain is slightly above the average investment per person in the EU but still remains below the most advanced welfare states. Analysis of the impact of active and passive policies

Analysis of the impact of active and passive policies

Active policies help create a workforce more productive and better trained. Active policies are implemented in times of full employment and do not respond adequately to the problems of mass unemployment situation. These policies aim to resolve situations of structural unemployment, in which the characteristics of the unemployed people (their level of education or their geographical location) does not match the job vacancies. In these circumstances, active policies must provide the necessary training and encourage mobility so that these imbalances disappear. In a situation of mass unemployment, these measures can no longer fulfill their mission as there is a sufficient number of vacancies.

In the case of subsidised jobs, active policies have certain negative effects, e.g. the so-called "bargain" or "deadweight" effect. In highly competitive activities, the advantages that can be achieved in this way can "eject" other competitors from the labor market, by destroying jobs in other companies. This is the "displacement effect".

Passive policies for employment are intended to have positive effects on the living conditions of the unemployed or to help decrease the poverty rate. However, their effects are questionable, especially considering costs and benefits. Some of the criticisms are:

- **The financial impact on the deficit of the states.**
- **They can be disincentives for job seeking.**

- **The may contribute to the increase of long-term unemployment.**

Thus, the positive effects of passive policies are closely linked to the implementation of effective active policies at the same time.

Assessment of the solutions proposed by the EU

The Economic and Monetary Union (EMU) is the fifth institutional framework resulting from the economic and political integration project undertaken in Europe.

The historical background is important to understand the economic and geopolitical nature of the project: the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC), created in 1952, and the Treaty of Rome, in 1957, established the principle of market economy and serve as a roadmap for the construction of the European Economic Community (EEC), a customs union beginning with the elimination of tariffs to allow the free movement of goods between Member States, as a result of the international coordination that required the reconstruction of Europe according to the Plan Marshall.

After the crisis of the 70s, the ECC adopted the Single Act to raise the necessary institutions of the European Union (EU), set in the Maastricht Treaty (1992), which sought to expand the single market and created a common currency (the Euro in 2020).

One of the pillars of the European economic policy is the Stability and Growth Pact. It defines the economic conditions necessary to join the project of the economic and monetary European union. These conditions are:

- A budget deficit lower than 3% of GDP.
- Public debt below 60% of GDP.
- Inflation below 2%.

This fiscal rigor led to an adjustment of the public deficit at 3% by regressive tax reforms and reducing public expenditure. The European Central Bank (ECB) is responsible for controlling inflation and has carried out a monetarist policy in the Euro area focusing on controlling inflation through fixing interest rate. These

restrictions created greater economic liberalisation and flexibility in the labour market. However, they also brought a progressive privatisation and the progressive dismantling of the public sector.

The last important element of the European economic framework is the Lisbon Strategy. Adopted in 2000, it aimed to achieve the most competitive and dynamic economy in the world in terms of sustainable economic growth, accompanied by a quantitative and qualitative improvement of employment and greater social cohesion. It also aimed to the privatisation and the deregulation of large public companies and some so-called strategic sectors (such as energy, supplies, transport, infrastructure and telecommunications). The flexibility of the labor market, which aimed to encourage labor mobility, led also to a lower cost of labor and to the increase of job insecurity. The Lisbon Treaty, signed in 2007, came into force in 2009 and provided the EU with greater legal powers to sign international agreements at EU levels.

The promotion of liberalisation and the preeminence of the private sector in the economic development, along with the control of inflation and the defence of the financial sector, have favoured the economic dominance of countries such as Germany in the EU. These countries could produce at reduced costs and opened new markets by flooding credits to more dependent economies, such as those of southern Europe. It was positive for these economies to have a strong currency like the euro in the international markets. However, they could hardly face the competitiveness fostered by countries like Germany.

From 2007-2008 we are in what is possibly the greatest crisis of global capitalism. The economic crisis opened a new phase in the history of the EU. We think that the European management of the crisis had as a main objective to achieve deeper economic liberalisation instead of greater coordination and convergence. For this reason, the management of the crisis created many problems to the working population of Europe, especially in countries such as those of southern and eastern Europe and Ireland. Regarding this situation, we can talk about three solutions proposed and/or implemented by some countries:

Austerity: it refers to the implementation of fiscal austerity policies and structural adjustment, i.e., a series of budget cuts involving the reduction of public spending, social benefits and wages of civil servants. It is a short-term solution which does not generate growth. This policy has been strongly related to the European Stability Mechanism (ESM). The ESM was created by the European Council in response to the debt crisis of 2010 in order to provide funding to some states with difficulties in accessing financial markets. This involved a series of structural reforms such as a more flexible labor market, privatisation and restrictions on social benefits such as pensions.

Institutional reform: it refers to a profound institutional reform in the Euro zone that could remedy the imbalances generated by having a unified monetary policy and many different fiscal policies. The statutory reform of the ECB¹ to act as financier of public deficits would be an important focus of institutional reform. We think that the Stability and Growth Pact² should be reformulated to fit the limits of deficit and public debt in the new economic reality if it really wants to revive the economy. Moreover, the European Investment Bank (EIB) and the European Investment Fund (EIF) should be crucial for economic development and job creation. Greater policy coordination could promote a common policy for labor competitiveness and equality in the EU.

Devaluation of the Euro: it would improve competitiveness by reducing real prices. Exports increase would reduce the deficit of the trade balance. However, **a fall in the value of the Euro** would make difficult for large European banks to operate internationally, encouraging speculative attacks on the debt of countries with higher deficits, and fiscal deficits differentials within the Euro zone would be unbearable. Therefore, the solution of a major European budget and a wider redistribution policy would probably be insufficient. A state with greater economic integration would have to support the common currency. A **fiscal**

¹ The European Central Bank is the central bank of the 19 EU countries that have adopted the euro. Our main function is to maintain price stability in the euro area to preserve the purchasing power of the currency.

² It is an agreement of the Member States of the European Union in relation to fiscal policy, its basic objective is to facilitate and maintain Economic and Monetary Union of the European Union.

policy reform to reduce indirect taxes could be very important in order for the improvement of social benefits and the redistribution of wealth.

We believe that this is not a technical problem, but a political conflict about the legal and democratic society and its institutions. It is related to the production of surpluses and the mechanisms of redistribution of these surpluses, which essentially favour private interests to the detriment of the majority of the population that has nothing else than a job.

2. Which measures could be adopted in order to reach the 2020 goal of the European Union.

In order to reach the goal set by the European Union concerning unemployment, and after dealing with the most important policies undertaken by the European Union and the member states, we think that it would be important to adopt the following 10 measures:

1. **Passive and active measures should be better linked**, providing better benefits to those who are actively seeking work places, analysing and defining better the profiles of the unemployed people and their real chances to find a work place in the fields of their interests and capacities.
2. **Confusion between social assistance and active policies to promote employment should be avoided**. Authorities should focus on policies for active people who take responsibility for their employment search. They should also establish control mechanisms to ensure that active policies are effective, without forgetting the need for social assistance and benefits when necessary.
3. **Active policies should be reformed in order to be more effective by specialising them according to the target groups of people**. We think

that these policies are not taking into account one of the most important problems of employability, i.e. the workers' abilities. Unemployed workers could benefit better from policies helping them specialise in concrete labor sectors.

4. **Policies against unemployment should promote stable models of public-private partnerships.** Public and private bodies should find better ways to collaborate in order to create employment.
5. **Active policies should be strengthened** in order to support the creation of new companies and business growth to help revive the productive economy of the countries.
6. **Specialized training in emerging sectors.** We must analyse key emerging sectors of our environment and focus our efforts on training for new emerging sectors.
7. **Promotion of dual/alternate training in companies.** This is a system well established in Germany that should be expanded to other European countries with measures promoting this kind of training among employers.
8. **Geographical mobility should be encouraged.** Workers can gain experience abroad and return with baggage. Support for mobility only makes sense, however, if it goes hand in hand with measures to promote the return of the workers to their countries.