Dr. Beyza SÜMER, Dokuz Eylül University, Business Administration Faculty, Departments of Economics, beyza.sumer@deu.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

Any fundamental change in a society has a deep effect on the structure and composition of employment. In the era of knowledge society, this structural transformation brings about the creation of new jobs and the extinction of certain traditional jobs. An analysis of employment by occupations may show the new jobs created by new technologies and industries, and also may reveal labour market risks related with non-decent jobs.

In this paper an analysis of occupational composition of employment in the EU15 and Turkey has been made for the purpose of highlighting the dual increase in both skilled and non-skilled jobs created by the ongoing structural changes; and labour market risks related with low-skilled occupations. The study is supported with empirical data, and it concludes that people having non-decent jobs in services and elementary jobs are in need of social protection; and that new jobs can be generated in certain subgroups.

Key words: occupations, employment, EU, Turkey

1. INTRODUCTION

Since the early 1980s, there has been marked economic transformation in most western countries, and to a certain extent, in the developing world as well. This structural change is said to be a function of technology, globalisation, and specialisation (Gallie, 1996; Green and Owen, 2006). There is comprehensive literature addressing major aspects of the changes in technology, economy and the labour market. The most distinct aspect is that traditional industries have undergone large job losses, while service jobs have grown tremendously (Gallie, 1996; Castells, 1996; Meisenheimer, 1998; Ntermanakis, 2000; Green and Owen, 2006; Oesch, 2006). Restructuring from heavy, male-dominated

labour intensive physical production to one based upon the production and exchange of information, the provision of business and consumer services, the strong growth in part-time working, expanding employment of women in part-time jobs constitute some of the main features of this ongoing process (Elias and Purcell, 2006).

Due to technological advancements, new products and new production processes have had implications for international competitiveness, productivity, overall economic growth, and the creation of new jobs (Hecker, 2005). On one hand, international competition has forced the firms to adapt to the new technological changes and on the other hand, to lower their costs. This adaptation process requires high skills, creativity, use and creation of new technologies, entrepreneurship, and on-going education and training. (Meisenheimer, 1998). New technologies are accompanied by higher skill requirements and thus have increased the demand for high-skilled labour (Gallie, 1996; Corley, Perardel and Popova, 2005).

Transformation in the sectoral composition of employment has implications for the occupational and skills profile of employment. There has been a shift from less skilled or unskilled manual jobs to personal services jobs. So, while a professionalisation of the employment structure is evident, there remains a substantial number of jobs at the bottom end of the labour market with limited skill requirements, often associated with low pay and poor working conditions, and sometimes requiring a great deal of flexibility (Segal and Sullivan, 1995; Green and Owen, 2006). Additionally, contemporary strategic management in a deregulated environment has encouraged flexibility in organizational practices and labour markets. A consequence of these practices has been a rapid rise of nonstandard or atypical forms of work in many occupations and industries, mainly in services (Casey and Alach, 2004; Segal and Sullivan, 1995).

There is considerable evidence that the market for labor is segmented according to the nature of the employment contract, with a major division being that between standard and non-standard contracts. Non-standard employment arrangements have been used as a means of reducing labour costs, notably through reductions in wages, social insurance, fringe benefits, and redundancy payments. That said, it has been stated that there is the possibility that employers may also use nonstandard, especially fixed-term contracts, to obtain certain kinds of expertise for a short period (e.g., computer programmers) and that such employees may be relatively well paid (McGovern, Smeaton and Hill, 2004; 227-243). A growing rate of female employment with non-standard contracts in service jobs constitutes another degrading aspect of the labour market as a consequence of the structural changes that have been undertaken since the 1990s (Zeytinoglu and Cooke, 2008).

Non-decent or bad jobs are usually within the scope of non-standard forms of work. Bad jobs have been conceptualized as those with low pay; no sick pay; no pension scheme, beyond the basic state scheme; and are not part of a

recognized career or promotion ladder (McGovern, Smeaton and Hill, 2004;230). There is prevalent opinion that non-decent jobs are usually generated in the services sector, but some researchers assert that services shouldn't be regarded as a single, homogenous sector where only 'McJobs' (jobs with low skills, low pay, low prestige, dignity and benefit) are created (Lindsay and McQuaid, 2004). Nevertheless, it is widely accepted that non-standard forms of work created in services which encompass bad jobs, 'McJobs' or "hamburger jobs" (Vos, 2005) are more degrading (Casey and Alach, 2004; 464).

The EU's Lisbon Strategy, as a societal design for the knowledge era, puts emphasis on the creation of decent jobs. In the conceptualization of decent jobs, higher wages, benefits, job security, occupational safety, good working conditions, individual preferences and other variables are taken into account. Though wage composition is an important aspect in the evaluation of decent jobs, it may not represent by itself whether a job is decent or not. Some jobs pay more but can be regarded as not decent (IIg, 2006). A decent job is conceptualized as the promotion of opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity (ILO, 1999; 3).

This article presents an analysis of the occupational trends in the EU and in Turkey during the period of 1990-2005. The purpose of the study is to highlight the dual increases in skilled and non-skilled jobs created by the ongoing structural change; labour market risks related with non-decent jobs; and the possibilities for job creation in certain subgroups of occupations.

2. SCOPE OF THE ANALYSIS

The methodology of the analysis is comparative and based on empirical data. It shows the increasing and decreasing trends in each group of occupations for every country in the EU15 and Turkey. The data covering 16 years (1990-2005) are taken from the database of ILO, namely Laborsta. In this paper, only 14 countries of the EU have been evaluated because the data for Luxembourg is unavailable on the database.

The main difference of this analysis from the other studies lies in the gathering of the occupations under five groups instead of four. The reason for making a group of five is to draw attention to the increase in non-decent jobs, which are defined as elementary occupations on the database.

A classification of occupations is usually made under four groups, according to the skill levels and as being manual or non-manual. Thus, the grouping of four includes high skilled and non-manual; low-skilled and non-manual; skilled and manual; and elementary occupations. My classification of occupations under five groups also depends on skills and being manual or non-manual, but it assesses the 'elementary and non-defined occupations' under a different group.

In categorizing the occupations, some of the countries had used ISCO68 for some time, and some of the other countries have adjusted their data according to ISCO88 (1). The major change brought about by ISCO88 is the concept of skill level. In ISCO88 this is related to the amount of formal education and formal or informal training and work experience generally associated with competent task performance (Elias, 1997). In order to make a grouping of five, a harmonization of the systems of International Standard Classification of Occupations, namely ISCO68 and ISCO88, had to be done. After harmonizing the classes of occupations under the two international systems; I categorized the occupations under five groups, namely G1, G2, G3, G4 and G5 (2).

 Table 1: Groupings of Occupations, based on the harmonization of ISCO68 and ISCO88

	130000			
	ISCO 68	ISCO 88		
G1	0,1 Professional, technical and	1 Legislators, senior officials and		
	related workers;	managers		
	2 Administrative and managerial	2 Professionals		
	workers	3 Technicians and associate		
		professionals		
G2	7,8,9 Production and related workers,	7 Craft and related trades workers		
	transport equipment operators and	8 Plant and machine operators and		
	labourers	assemblers		
G3	3 Clerical and related workers	4 Clerks		
	4 Sales workers	5 Service workers and Shop and		
	5 Service workers	market sales workers		
G4	6 Agriculture, animal husbandry and	6 Skilled agricultural and fishery		
	forestry workers, fishermen and	workers		
	hunters			
G5	X Workers not classifiable by	9 Elementary occupations		
	occupation	X Occupations not classifiable		

Source: Author's grouping.

G1: The occupations in this group include legislators, senior officials, managers, professionals, technicians and associate professionals. This broad group covers managerial, professional and associate professional occupations, essentially those which are strongly connected with the growth of the knowledge economy.

G2: This group encompasses craft and related trades workers, plant and machine operators and assemblers. These occupations are skilled and manual. People performing these occupations work mainly in production- manufacturing, construction and mining sectors.

G3: This group includes clerks, service workers, and shop and market sales workers with low-skills.

G4: This group includes skilled agricultural and fishery workers. The people with 'skills' are in this group; the people 'without skills' are delegated to the G5 grouping.

G5: This group includes elementary occupations, such as street vendors, porters, garbage collectors, and non-classified occupations. In the analysis of

some countries, only the class of "9" in ISCO 88 is taken and the class of "X" has been omitted.

The number of people employed in each group has been calculated for every country for the period of 1990-2005. The trend in the occupational structure of employment by five categories for each country is presented in the following section.

3. OUTCOMES OF THE ANALYSIS

The following subsections display the graphical occupational trends covering sixteen years and give some explanation about the particularities of data pertaining to each country. Subsequently, occupational typologies, specific characteristics of occupations in some countries, and an overall assessment will be put forward.

For the comprehensive evaluation of data in hand, the forming of common properties is essential. Setting time periods (1990-1995, 1995-2000, and 2000-2006) in lieu of the above aspect will be beneficial for a better assessment. Also two additional indicators are put into consideration as viable data. Firstly, the biggest occupational group, secondly vectorial movements (an increase, a decrease, or no significant change) in each country. Thus, it will be evident that there are common characteristics which have been obtained.

3.1. Occupational Typologies

In this part, it will be worthwile to recall the occupations in each group. G1 includes highly skilled occupations. G2 encompasses craft and related trades workers, plant and machine operators and assemblers. These occupations are skilled and manual. G3 includes clerks, service workers, and shop and market sales workers with low-skills. G4 includes skilled agricultural and fishery workers. The people with skills are in this group; the people without skills are included in elementary occupations. G5 includes elementary occupations such as street vendors, porters, garbage collectors, and non-classified occupations

For the 1990-1995 period, the trends in the EU15 were as follows:

- There was an increase in G1 in all the countries, except Finland.
- There was a decrease in G2 in most of the countries, except an increase in UK, Ireland, Portugal, and Turkey.
- There was a decrease in G3 in most of the countries, except an increase in Holland, Austria, Ireland, and Turkey.
- There was a decrease in G4 in all the countries, except Austria.
- There was an increase in G5, however decreases in UK, Germany, and Italy.

• The greatest occupational group in this period was mainly G3 in Sweden, Holland, Finland, Denmark, Ireland, Belgium, Austria. G2 was also another biggest group in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Turkey. Greece had the biggest group in both G3 and G2.

During the 1995-2000 period;

- There was an increase in G1 in all the countries, with an exception of no significant change in Portugal.
- There was a decrease in G2 in certain countries (Sweden, Holland, Denmark, Spain, Portugal, Belgium, Germany, Austria); an increase in certain countries (Finland, Ireland, Turkey); no significant change in UK, Italy, and Greece.
- There was an increase in G3 in certain countries (Spain, Italy, Turkey, Ireland, UK, and Belgium); a decrease in certain countries (Sweden, Holland, Denmark, Finland, and Greece); no significant change in Portugal, Germany, Austria.
- There was a decrease in G4 in all the countries, except an increase in Portugal, and no significant change in Germany.
- There was an increase in G5 in Portugal, Greece, Ireland, Belgium, Denmark, and Germany; a decrease in Finland and Holland; no significant change in Sweden, Holland, Spain, UK, and Austria.
- The biggest occupational group during this period was G1 in all the countries except Portugal, Turkey, and Italy. Portugal and Turkey had G2 as the biggest group; Italy had G1 and G3 as equally large in size and grouping.

The last period (2000-2005) showed the below characteristics:

- There was an increase in G1 in all the countries without exceptions.
- There was a decrease in G2 in most of the countries, except an increase in Spain and Italy; and no significant change in Greece, Turkey, and Ireland.
- There was an increase in G3 in certain countries (Spain, Portugal, Turkey, Ireland, and Holland); a decrease in Denmark and Finland; and no significant change in the rest of the countries.
- There was a decrease in G4 in most of the countries, except an increase in Austria, Belgium, and Denmark; and no significant change in Portugal and UK.
- There was an increase in G5 in most of the countries, except a decrease in Sweden and Denmark. There was no significant change in this group in Portugal, Holland, Finland, Belgium, and Germany.
- The biggest occupational group in this period was G1 in all the countries, except Portugal and Turkey with G2 as the biggest group.
- G5 has been greater than G4 in most of the countries, except UK, Turkey and Greece.

In 2005, the total number of employment was 166.54 million in the EU15, not including Luxembourg. G1 encompasses the highest number of people with 65.3 million. It makes up 39% of the total occupations. G3 and G2 are the second and third largest groups. The number of people in G3 and G2 is in a state of stable convergence. G2 encompasses 37.16 million people and G3 encompasses about 42 million people. Their percentages in the total occupations are 22% and 25% respectively. In G4 there are 7.8 million people, with a share of 4.6% in the total.

Table 2: Total Number of Occupations by Groups and Countries, million, 2005

	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	Total
UK	11.50	5.30	7.93	3.22	0.064	28.01
Sweden	1.87	0.885	1.20	0.085	0.218	4.25
Spain	5.83	4.99	4.66	0.574	2.83	18.88
Austria	1.46	0.778	0.979	0.200	0.402	3.81
Belgium	1.87	0.750	1.13	0.090	0.365	4.20
Denmark	1.20	0.473	0.682	0.063	0.299	2.72
Finland	1.05	0.492	0.547	0.109	0.195	2.39
Greece	1.40	0.999	1.10	0.525	0.345	4.38
Germany	15.26	8.18	8.75	0.686	3.42	36.30
Ireland	0.750	0.426	0.558	0.013	0.175	1.92
Italy	8.65	5.85	5.06	0.545	2.20	22.31
Holland	3.60	1.19	2.06	0.110	0.784	7.75
Portugal	1.35	1.37	1.20	0.560	0.620	7.81
France	9.53	5.47	6.11	1.03	2.45	24.59
Turkey	4.78	5.45	3.46	5.67	2.69	22.05

Source: Author's grouping.

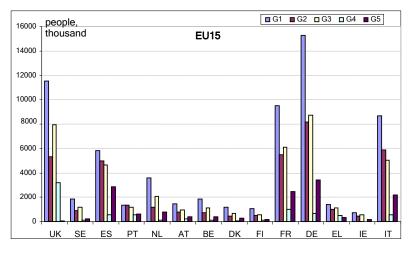


Figure 1: Occupational Groups in the EU15, 2005 Source: Author's calculation.

In G5, there is a total of 14.3 million people, with a share of 8.4%. This group includes occupations such as street vendors, other street services, domestic helpers, cleaners and launderers, window cleaners, garbage collectors, porters, doorkeepers, agricultural, fishery and related labourers, and labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport.

3.2. Specific Characteristics

3.2.1. Turkey

The main aspect of the trend in Turkey is that G4 has been the highest group for the whole period, though there were some drops in 1994, 2001 and 2003. When compared with the initial and final years, there is a big difference in the number of people in this group. Another main feature is the proportional massiveness in G2. This group has been the highest group in Turkey after G4. After 2001 there was a drop in G2 and after 2001 there was a slight recovery. G3 almost remained the same between 1990-1994. Between 1994 and 2001 a very slight increase occurred in G3. In 2002 there was a very sharp decrease in this group and then it remained the same for the rest of the years. G1 was the lowest until 2001 and a sharp increase happened after 2001. G5 slightly increased with very small changes during the period.

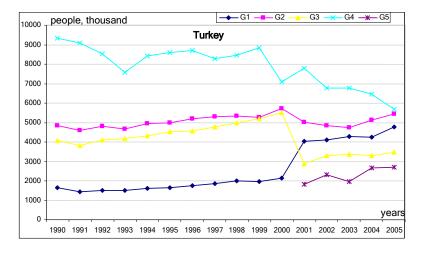


Figure 2: Occupational Trend in Turkey

Source: Author's calculation. The data for Turkey for the whole period of 1990-2005 is complete. The data for the period of 1990-2005 is based on ISCO 68, and the data for the period of 2001-2005 is based on ISCO 88.

The main features of the occupational trend in Turkey can be stated as follows:

• G4 is the highest group, then G2, G1, G3 and G5 follow it. The number of people in G4 (people in agricultural activities) was 9.4 million in 1990

and became 5.7 million in 2005. In other words, G4 decreased nearly by half in 16 years.

- G2 constitutes the biggest second group similar to Italy and Portugal. This group includes production related jobs, and also arts and craftsmen.
- G1 is the highest third group. It increased almost 2.5 times during the period of 1990-2005. This increase, alongwith the high number of people in this group (4.78 million; 2005), clearly indicates that Turkey has benefited from the knowledge society.
- There was a sharp decrease in the number of G3, from 5.49 million people in 2000, to 2.88 million in 2001, which was the crisis year of Turkey. Then G3 increased to 3.3 million in 2002. This increase can be regarded as a positive phenomenon for Turkey which has high unemployment rates; but it also constitutes a threat for decent job creation in the future.
- G5, the other risky group, was composed of 1.84 million people in 2001. It increased to 2.3 million in 2002, and finally reached 2.69 million in 2005.
- After 2000, the profile of all the occupations followed a different trend from the previous period.
- By 2005, G1, G2 and G4 almost converged to the same level. The shares of each group in total employment are G1 22%, G2 25%, G3 16%, G4 26%, and G5 12%.
- Agriculture, forestry, fishery related jobs; production related jobs and arts and craftsmen; and professionals and technicians with high skills (G1, G2 and G4) all started to converge toward the same point after 2001. In this respect, Turkey constitutes a different occupational model in the EU.

3.2.2. The EU15 countries

Spain is different from the general trend in the EU15 because there has been a continuous increase in G2 starting from 1995. The number of people in G2 is very close to the number of people in G1. The increase in G1 has been very rapidly in 1995. G3 shows the similar trend in the EU but it is very close to G1 and G2 in size.

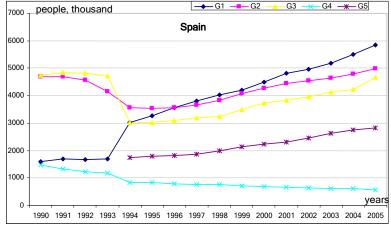


Figure 3: Occupational Trend in Spain

Source: Author's calculation. Spain's data is based on ISCO 68 during the period of 1990-1993 and is based on ISCO 88 during the period of 1994-2005.

In UK, in the period of 1990-1995, G3 and G1 were equal, which was very different from the EU15 trend. In addition to this, UK was the only country that G1 was and has been the biggest group in the whole period. The increase in G4 after 2000 might be due to the addition of classes 6 and 9 under one class of occupational category.

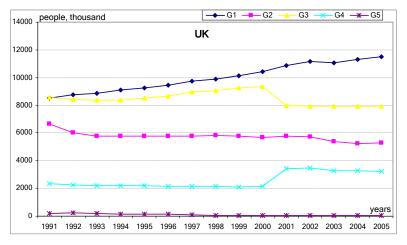


Figure 4: Occupational Trend in the UK

Source: Author's calculation. UK's data is present from 1991 until 2005, and all data is based on ISCO 88. On the database, class "6" and class "9" were given as one total figure. In other words, UK combined agricultural occupations with elementary occupations. For this reason, elementary occupations are not included in G5. Only class "X" has been added to G5. Therefore the analysis of G5 is not precise for UK.

In Sweden, G3 and G1 were the biggest groups until 1996. After that, a sharp decrease occurred in G3. G1 was the second biggest group in this period which was different from other EU countries.

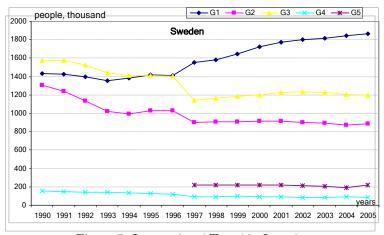


Figure 5: Occupational Trend in Sweeden

Source: Author's calculation. Sweden's data for the 1990-1996 period is based on ISCO 68 and for the 1997-2005 period it is based on ISCO 88. G5 was composed by using the class "X" of ISCO 68 until 1996; and after 1996 G5 was composed by adding the classes of "X" and "9" of ISCO 88. Unitl 1997, the class of "0/1" was present but the class of "2" was not present on the database.

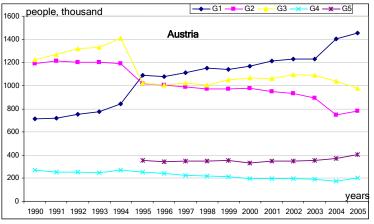


Figure 6: Occupational Trend in Austria

Source: Author's calculation. Austria's data for the 1990-1994 period is based on ISCO 68 and for the 1995-2005 period it is based on ISCO 88.

In Austria, during the 1990-1995 period, G3 and G2 were the biggest groups. G1 was quite low. After 1995, G1, G2, and G3 were very close to each other in size. There was a recovery in G2 after 2004.

Though Belgium follows the same trend in the EU15, the number of people in G1 is far more than the people in the other groups. In this aspect, Belgium is similar to Sweden.

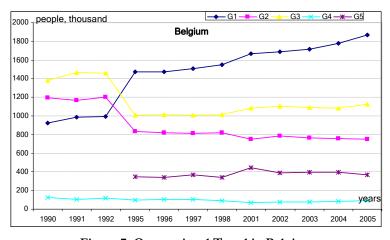


Figure 7: Occupational Trend in Belgium

Source: Author's calculation. Belgium's data is not consistent over 17 years. The data is present for the periods of 1990-1992, 1995-1998, and 2001-2005. The data for the 1990-1992 period is based on ISCO 68 and the rest is based on ISCO 88.

Denmark's occupational trend looks similar to Belgium after 1993. During the 1990-1995 period, G1 and G2 were very close in size which was similar to Sweden.

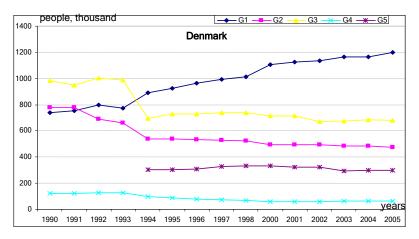


Figure 8: Occupational Trend in Denmark

Source: Author's calculation. Denmark's data is present for all the years except 1999. Denmark's data for the 1990-1993 period is based on ISCO 68, and for the 1994-2005 period it is based on ISCO 88.

Finland does not follow the trend in the EU15. Firstly, the number of people in the group G1 was quite high in the years between 1990-1994. This trend was similar to Sweden. In G2, there was a decrease in the period of 1990-1995 but there was a moderate increase in the period of 1995-2000, and then a moderate decrease after 2000.

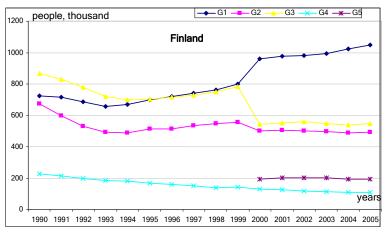


Figure 9: Occupational Trend in Finland

Source: Author's calculation. Finland's data for the 1990-1999 period is based on ISCO 68, and for the 2000-2005 period it is based on ISCO 88.

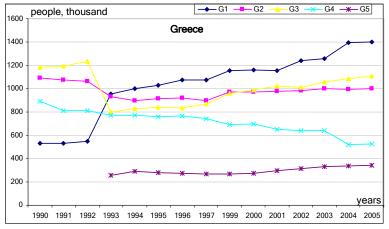


Figure 10: Occupational Trend in Greece

Source: Author's calculation. The data for Greece is present for 16 years except 1998. Greece's data for the 1990-1992 period is based on ISCO 68, and for the 1993-2005 period it is based on ISCO 88.

In Greece, G1 increased rapidly in 1993. After 1999, contrary to the EU15 trend, there was a slight increase in G2. From 1990 until 2003, G4 showed a mild decrease. The number of people in G4 is more than in G5.

The main difference in Germany is in G3. In the period of 1990-1995, the trend in the EU was that G3 was the largest, but for Germany this was not the case. The highest number of occupations for all the years has been G1. There has been a moderate increase in G1 for the whole period. Another difference is the absence of any change in G3. In general, the number of people in G2 and G3 is very close to each other, but after 2000 G3 is just slightly above G2. In G5 there was a fall from 1993 to 1995, but then no significant change occurred.

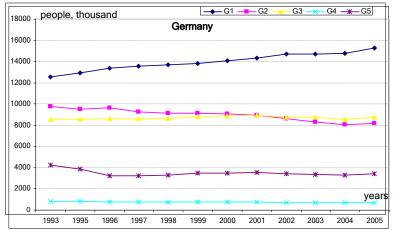


Figure 11: Occupational Trend in Germany

Source: Author's calculation. The data of Germany for the years of 1990, 1991, 1992 and 1994 is not available on the database. All of Germany's data is based on ISCO 88.

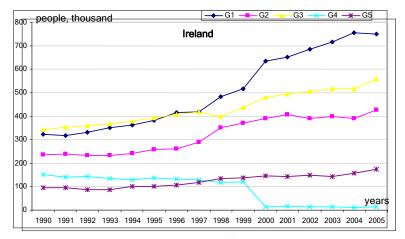


Figure 12: Occupational Trend in Ireland

Source: Author's calculation. The data of Ireland is present for the whole period and it is based on ISCO 88.

Ireland had the same trend of the EU15 in G1, G2 and G3 for the period of 1990-1996, G4 was higher than G5. But this trend reversed after 1999 and G4

started to decrease. G1 extraordinarily increased in Ireland after 1997. Another aspect of Ireland is the rapid increase in G2 after 1996. G5 moderately increased after 1998.

In Italy, G2 constitutes a very different model. During the period of 1993-2005 there was no change in this group and the number of people in G2 was very close to G1 and G3. In this aspect, Turkey is very similar to Italy. G4 is quite low with almost no change. This is different characteristic of Italy from other Mediterranean countries.

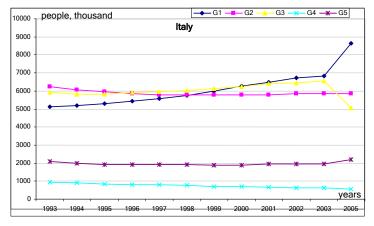


Figure 13: Occupational Trend in Italy

Source: Author's calculation. Italy's data is present for the years between 1993-2005. All of Italy's data is based on ISCO 88.

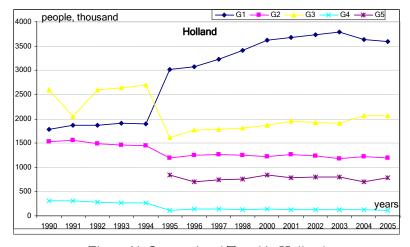


Figure 14: Occupational Trend in Holland

Source: Author's calculation. Holland's data for the 1990-1994 period is based on ISCO 68, and for the 1995-2005 period it is based on ISCO 88.

Holland had a rapid change in G1 after 1994. The rest of the groups have the same trend in the EU15. G2 is very outstanding in Portugal. Portugal is the only country where G2 was and has been the highest group. The characteristic of G3 in Protugal is that there was no significant change in G3 after 1994 until 2000. After 2000, there was a moderate increase in G3. Another aspect is that G1 was the lowest until 1992/93. Then a rapid increase occurred in G1 but stayed at the same level until 2003. After 2003, G1 increased slightly. G4 was higher than G1 until 1992 but in 1992/93, a sharp decrease occurred in G4. G5 increased after 1998 but remained almost the same for the rest of the years.

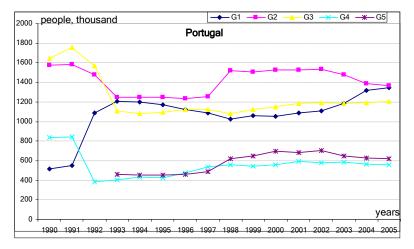
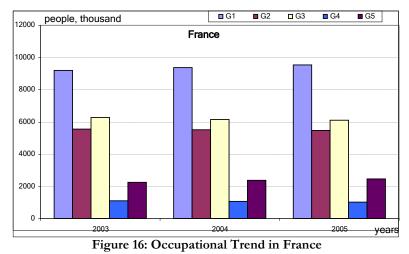


Figure 15: Occupational Trend in Portugal

Source: Author's calculation. Portugal's data for the 1990-1992 period is based on ISCO 68, and for the 1993-2005 period it is based on ISCO 88.



Source: Author's calculation. France's data is present only for the years of 2003, 2004 and 2005. The data is based on ISCO 88. Due to the lack of data, it is almost impossible to find a trend for France.

Due to the lack of data, it is almost impossible to set a trend for France. G1 is higher than all the other groups. G2 and G3 are very close to each other.

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

After 2000, there has been an increase in both high skilled occupations (G1) and low skilled service occupations(G3). This trend proves the hypothesis put forward in the introductory part of this paper. A substantial increase in G1 (legislators, senior officials, managers, professionals, assistant professionals, technicians) in the EU is a predominant indicator for knowledge society. This group has the highest share in the total employment (39%), with the highest number of people (65.3 million). It can be concluded that the EU countries have transformed to the knowledge society level.

The second highest group in the EU is G3 (clerks; service clerks, and shop and market sales workers), having a share of 25% in total employment, with 41.9 million people. It is a group having medium skills and working in non-manual jobs. A rapid increase in G3 entails a polarized labor market. This group encompasses some of the non-decent jobs, which are characterized by having low/medium education levels, low wages, nonstandard forms of work, no sick pay, no pension scheme beyond the basic state scheme, and not part of a recognized career or promotion ladder. This group is often referred as the 'knowledge society's proleteriat'.

A decrease in the occupations related with agriculture, fishery, and forestry (G4), is regarded as a normal trend. This decrease is counted as a result of modernization and capital centralization.

In most of the countries, there has been a decrease in G2, except the Mediterranean countries. This group includes both industrial workers, and craft and related trades workers. A decrease in G2 is a disadvantegous trend because it might show that some of the manufacturing activities have been delocated. The subgroup of craft and related trades allows a solid basis for employment generation in Mediterranean countries. This subgroup can be a very important source for employment generation in the EU.

G5 is a group of people having elementary occupations, such as street vendors, shoe cleaners, porters, doorkeepers, and garbage collectors. Their skills are low and they are in manual or non-manual jobs. Its share in total employment in the EU is 8.4%, with 14.3 million people. The people in G5 are at the edge of social exclusion with inadequate access to better education, health facilities and other public services. In this context, institutional arrangements should be regarded as potential contributors to productive societies. There is no a priori reason to expect growth and productivity to be hindered by enployment systems that involve both relatively strong employee protection and welfare provision. (Bosch, Rubery and Lehndorff, 2007; 253-255).

Turkey, as a candidate country, is a very different model. Though it has some similarities with the other Mediterranean member countries before 1995, Turkey does not fit any trends in the EU15, except a big share of skilled agriculture and fishery workers (G2) like in Italy and Portugal.

The group of skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers (G4) in Turkey needs modernization, the use of new techniques and technologies, and financial assistance. The group of crafts and related trades workers (a subgroup of G2) might form the basis for employment generation if adequate technical and financial support be given to this group. It can be concluded that G4 and G2 can be in an advantageous position in Turkey if the above stated conditions are met.

The last and the most important issue is that low skilled service workers (G3) and elementary occupation holders (G5) face the highest labour market risks. These two groups include 6 million people with shares of 16% and 12% in the total employment of Turkey. The increase in elementary jobs from 1.8 million (2001) to 2.68 million (2005) indicates a need for a new social policy design when taken together with quite high unemployment rates. Public policy should assist in job creation that provides career opportunities to all deserving workers regardless of their employment status and gender (Zeytinoglu and Cooke, 2008).

Turkey needs to grow, for more jobs; Turkey needs equity, to reduce poverty; and Turkey needs new perspectives and tools, for the enhancement of societal well-being and peace.

Acknowledgement: I'm grateful to my friends Türkay Baran and Cevat Francis Noonan for their technical assistance.

ENDNOTE(S)

(1) The classes in ISCO 68 are: 0,1 Professional, technical and related workers; 2 Administrative and managerial workers; 3 Clerical and related workers; 4 Sales workers; 5 Service workers; 6 Agriculture, animal husbandry and forestry workers, fishermen and hunters; 7,8,9 Production and related workers, transport equipment operators and labourers; X Workers not classifiable by occupation.

The classes in ISCO 88 are: 1 Legislators, senior officials and managers; 2 Professionals; 3 Technicians and associate professionals; 4 Clerks; 5 Service workers and Shop and Market sales workers; 6 Skilled Agricultural and Fishery workers; 7 Craft and related trades workers; 8 Plant and machine operators and assemblers; 9 Elementary occupations; X Occupations not classifiable.

(2) During this grouping procedure, no issues arose for the groups G1 and G4 because both international categorization systems, ISCO68 and ISCO88, included the same occupations. For the group of G2, there was a separate class for the craftsmen in ISCO88 but there was not such a class in ISCO68. In fact,

ISCO68 included all the occupations related with production under one class, namely "Class 7,8,9".

As a result of harmonizing the international systems, G1 includes the classes of 0,1 and 2 of ISCO68, and the classes of 1, 2, and 3 of ISCO88; G2 includes the class of 7,8,9 of ISCO68, and the classes of 7 and 8 of ISCO88; G3 includes the classes of 3, 4, and 5 of ISCO68, and the classes of 4 and 5 of ISCO88; G4 includes the class of 6 of ISCO68, and the class of 6 of ISCO88; and finally G5 includes the class of X of ISCO68, and the classes of 9 and X of ISCO88.

REFERENCES

BOSCH, G., RUBERY, J., and LEHNDORFF, S. (2007): "European employment models under pressure to change", International Labour Review, 146(3-4): 253-255.

CASEY, C. and ALACH, P. (2004): "Just a Temp?': Women, Temporary Employment and Lifestyle", Work Employment and Society, 18: 459-464.

CASTELLS, M. (1996): The information age: Economy, society and culture. The rise of the net-work society, Vol. 1. Malden, MA, Blackwell.

CORLEY, M., PERARDEL, Y., and POPOVA, K. (2005): "Wage inequality by gender and occupation: A cross-country analysis", ILO Employment Strategy Papers, 20: 1-26.

ELİAS, P. and PURCELL, K. (2006): " Achieving Equality in the Knowledge Economy", GeNet Working Paper, 15: 2-3.

ELÍAS, P. (1997): "Occupational Classification: Concepts, Methods, Reliability, Validity and Cross-National Comparability", OECD Labour Market and Social Policy Occasional Papers, 20.

GALLİE, D. (1996): "New Technology and the Class Structure: The Blue-Collar/White-Collar Divide Revisited", The British Journal of Sociology, 47(3): 449-454.

GREEN, A. E. and OWEN, D. (2006): TheGeography of Poor Skills and Access to Work, York: York Publishing Services Ltd., 2-3.

HECKER, D. E. (2005): "High Technology Employment: A NAICS-based Update", Monthly Labor Review, 128 (7): 57.

ILG, R. E. (2006): "Change in Employment by Occupation, Industry, and Earnings", Monthly Labour Review, 129 (12): 21 .

ILO (1999): Decent Work. Report of the Director-General of the ILO to the 87th Session of the International Labour Conference, Geneva.

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION, Statistics Database, http://laborsta.ilo.org

INTERNATIONAL STANDARD CLASSIFICATION OF OCCUPATIONS, Retrieved December 2007 from http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/isco88/major.htm

LINDSAY, C. and MCQUAID, R.W. (2004): "Avoiding the 'McJobs': Unemployed Job Seekers and Attitudes to Service Work", Work Employment Society, 18: 298-313.

MCGOVERN, P., SMEATON, D., and HILL, S. (2004): "Bad Jobs in Britain: Nonstandard Employment and Job Quality", Work and Occupations, 31: 243.

MEİSENHEİMER, J. R. (1998): "The Services Industry in the 'Good' versus 'Bad' Jobs", Monthly Labor Review, 121 (2): 22-36.

NTERMANAKIS, N. E. (2000): Report on Trends of Female Employment in Technical Occupations in Germany, Greece, Finland, France and United Kingdom. Research Centre For Gender Equality. Research Center for Gender Equality, 2-10. Retrieved September, 2007 from http://www.kethi.gr/english/meletes/MEleti Leonardo/Leonardo.pdf.

OESCH, D. (2006): "Coming to Grisps with a Changing Class Structure: An Analysis of Employment Stratification in Britian, Germany, Sweden and Switzerland", International Sociology, 21: 264.

SEGAL, L.M. and SULLİVAN, D.G. (1995): "The Temporary Labor Force", Economic Perspectives, 19(2): 2-10.

VOS, KEES J. (2005): "Americanisation of the EU Social Policy?", The International

Journal of Comparative Labour Law and Industrial Relations, 21(3): 361.

ZEYTİNOGLU, I. and COOKE, G. B.(2008): "Non-standard Employment and Promotions: a Within Genders Analysis", Journal of Industrial Relations, 50: 333.

670