行政院及所屬各機關出國報告

(出國類別:開會)

參加歐洲消費者產品安全 協會第四屆年會報告

服務機關:行政院消費者保護委員會

出國人 職 稱:企劃組組長

姓 名:方國輝

出國地區:法國(巴黎)

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摘 要

本次赴巴黎參加 ECOSA 第四屆年會,會議主題為「安全之提昇 與災害之控制」。會議期間自 2003 年四月十日起,為期二天,會議 之進行分專題報告與分組討論二部分。除對「在全球經濟中之安全 挑戰」「從不同當事人之觀點看安全管理」「企業與公部門之風險管 理」及「從歐洲與國際之觀點談今後對消費者安全之方向與做法」 等專題,邀請十餘位學者專家分別提出寶貴看法外;在分組討論方 面,前三個單元都分別規劃三個議題,供與會人員選擇參加。我在 選擇參加「一般產品安全指令對企業之影響」、「在歐洲何種標準可 以維護孩童安全」與「執行產品安全何去何從」等討論分組後,對 一般產品安全指令之最新發展、孩童安全與產品安全之重要性,有 更深之認識。特別是 2004 年開始實施之新一般產品安全指令有關企 業對危險產品之通知主管機關與回收義務之規定,對企業之影響以 及會中對各種與兒童產品有關之高安全標準,開發中國家是否能配 合執行,如何在保護消費者與審酌各國先天條件之不同,覓一均衡 點,誠為亟待克服之問題。

參與此次會議最大之感想,第一是充實有關消費者產品安全法

規與標準之重要性,其次,加強執行消費性產品安全之相關行政機關、企業經營者與制定標準之單位間之分工、合作與共識,也是提昇安全與控制災害很重要之工作,先進國家之做法可作為借鏡。最後,希望繼續派員參加以歐洲國家為主之 ECOSA 年會或類似會議,以增進與歐洲國家間之交流。

目 錄

壹	`	前	吉	.4
貳	•	歐洲	消費者安全協會簡介	.6
參	•	會議	重點介紹	.7
肆	•	感想	.與建議1	.7
伍	•	附	件1	8

壹、前 言

如何減少消費行為對消費者可能發生之傷害與提升消費安全,不僅為各國施政之優先重點工作,亦為各區域性消費者安全組織關切之課題。本會有感於國際貿易之發達,消費者安全或消費者保護已無國界之分,有必要了解國際社會在消費者安全所建立之規範與機制並掌握其發展現況,特別重視此一方面資訊之收集與同仁之出國訓練,以增廣同仁見聞。以往與產品安全有關之國際會議,本會雖已數度派員參加由美國產品安全委員會(CPSC)主導之「國際消費者產品健康與安全組織(International consumer Product Health and Safety Organization,簡稱 ICPHSO)」年會,並與美國地區之相關政府單位與民間組織間已建立良好之互動關係。至於歐洲地區,則尚無機會參與,以致對相關消費安全之法規,如 EU 一般產品安全指令(EU-General Product Safety Directive)或其他之資訊均較為陌生。

由於歐洲市場與我國之進出口貿易關係密切,諸多消費安全議題亦將影響我出口廠商之經營或我國消費者之權益,為了解歐洲地區之消費者安全問題與所採措施與接觸認識相關人員,特別於九十二年度編列參與第四屆 ECOSA 年會出國計畫,本次歐洲消費者產品安全協會 (European Consumer Safety Association,簡稱 ECOSA)

於 2003 年四月十日起,假法國巴黎舉行之第四屆研討會,為期二天。主題為「安全之促進與傷害之防治」,副題為「企業對消費安全之新挑戰」,除邀請十餘位學者專家與官員提出專題報告外,並就「在全球經濟中之安全挑戰」、「從不同當事人之觀點看安全管理」、「企業與公部門之風險管理」與「從歐洲與國際之觀點談今後對消費者安全之方向與做法」等三大專題分別規劃三個議題,供與會人員選擇參加。有顯見提升消費安全與傷害之預防工作之重要。

本報告除就參加第四屆年會之概況提出報告外,此行亦蒙「亞 洲貿易促進會駐巴黎辦事處」之協助,安排拜會 OECD 消費政策委員 會,並承該委員會之松尾處長和該處四位同仁在 OECD 總部接待與交 換意見。此次拜會目的係為增進雙方之認識與了解,以利日後本會 申請加入該委員會。限於經濟部整體入會政策之考量與告知,此次 拜會並未觸及申請入會案或與申請有關之程序等事宜,但雙方仍就 當前電子商務相關消保議題充分交換意見,會談時間近一個半小 時,是一次難得之拜會經驗。又此次赴會承蒙「亞洲貿易促進會駐 巴黎辦事處」之梁秘書家珍陪同前往,給予諸多諸多協助,併此深 致謝忱。

貳、歐洲消費者安全協會簡介

歐洲消費者安全協會成立於 1985 年八月,是一個以促進消費者安全為主要工作目標之非營利組織,目前協會之地址為 P.O.BOX 75169, 1070 AD Amsterdam, The Netherlands;協會之 E-mail: ecosa@consafe.nl。發起成立本組織之成員有政府部門與從事產品安全之非政府部門之專業人員,目前協會之會員有 75 個,有屬於機構會員 (Institutional members)、個人會員 (Individual members)、助會員 (Associated members)與公司會員 (Corporate members)。

協會任務之一為提供相關人員一個平台,讓相關人員可以透過此一平台討論各種有關案權之議題,以落實消費安全之理想。此外,協助歐洲各國與歐盟建立消費者安全政策與兒童安全亦為協會努力之重要目標,而其目的即是透過政策與規範及標準之落實執行,使得居家與休閒意外所生之傷害再未來二十年能減少25%。協會發行之刊物名稱為 ECOSA Journal,除提供相關政策或活動之最新訊息外,也針對特定議體舉辦會議,發行特刊。此外,收集資訊,進行研究,以發現問題與提出解決問題之行動對策,以及透過地方、國內與國際間在安全教育與訓練方面之合作,以提高大眾之自覺、提昇安全之科技與產業之誠信經營,也是協會之重要工作。

協會當前之主要工作如下:

- 1. 產品安全標準之研究
- 2. 兒童安全
- 3. 火災預防
- 4. 運動傷害預防
- 5. 事故研究與預防
- 6. 發展與執行相關規範與標準

參、會議重點介紹

一、概 況

参加本次會議之人員共八十餘人(如附件一),有政府人員、業界與律師等不同身分之代表。若以地區論,主要來自歐洲地區之諸多國家,另外美國、日本、韓國等國亦派員與會,我國則是第一次與會。會場在 LA MAISON DE LA CHIMIE, 地址為 28 rue Saint-Dominique 75007 Paris, 搭地鐵至會場在 Invalides 下車。此區為文教使館區,英國大使館、羅丹美術館與拿破崙塚等亦都在會場附近。

本次二天會議之議程,第一天除邀請商務及消費部(Ministry

for Commerce and Consumption) 部長Mr. Renaud Dutrell 致開幕 詞外,本日安排之專題為在全球經濟中之安全挑戰(Safety challenges in a global economy)與從不同當事人之觀點看安全 管理(Safety management: stakeholders views)二項;另有六個 分組討論子題,主要為討論產品安全法規對企業之衝擊與產品回收 以及兒童產品安全標準等;當天討論活動結束後,主辦單位並安排 雞尾酒會,讓大家有機會認識。第二天早上除專題演講企業與公部 門之風險管理(Risk management in business and public governance),分組討論題目亦仍以歐美產品安全規範與兒童安全為 內容。下午之專題演講主題為「從歐洲與國際之觀點談今後對消費 者安全之方向與做法」。

二、EU 一般產品安全指令簡介

此次會議除有多篇論文討論產品與服務安全,如「Product safety: the French public authorities control procedures and the prospects of the new general product safety directive」「Safety principles in the business process」「Which safety standards are needed in a global market」「Towards efficient structures for controlling product safety」「Safety of consumer services in the tourism sector-balance between

regulation and consumer responsibility」等等,顯見產品與服務安全課題廣受重視。此外,專題演講中,亦有諸多講座對一般產品安全指令(General Product Safety Directive)進行討論,由於此一規範屬於對歐洲各國之產品安全之共同規範,無論當地或進出口之產品均有適用,因此是本次會議之主軸,以下謹分別介紹任職歐洲委員會(European Commission)之Bernardo Delogu 先生在演講「Risk assessment, market surveillance and enforcement under the new General Product Safety Directive」之重點以及任職於聯邦內閣負責消費者利益(Federal Cabinet for Consumer Interests)之 Ir. Pieter DE MUNCK 先生所報告有關比利時之「Safety of products Directive 2001/95」。

EC之一般產品安全指令,其規範目的係為建立適用於EC國家間之一致性安全標準與明定相關主體間之責任分擔;工作之重點主要為對風險之評估與風險之控管。Delogu先生於演講中並特別強調一般產品安全指令能否發揮其風險評估與風險控管之效果,最終仍取決於相關主體間之專業與主動之態度。撰寫本文時正逢SARS怪病在亞洲諸多國家蔓延,但由於亞太地區各相關主體間未能迅速切實合作與採取有效運作對策,致疫情迄今繼續惡化,無法快速解決,故對Delogu之見解深有所感。鑒於國內產品與服務之風險評估與控

管機制仍欠周延,為利參考,以下謹就 Delogu 先生與 MUNCK 先生之 演講重點整理如下:

甲:Delogu 先生部分:

- (一)一般產品安全指令(以下簡稱 GPSD) 不適用於食品。
- (二)制定 GPSD 之目的再於建立一個歐洲共同市場消費性產品 安全管理之法令架構。

(三) GPSD 之內容

- 對消費性產品之一般安全要求規定,亦即只有「安全」 之產品能在市面販售。
- 2. 「安全產品 (safety product)」之定義適用一般安全性之標準。
- 3. 一般安全要求與評估標準 (assessment criteria) 相一致。
- 4. 有關設定與歐洲評估標準相融合之程序規定。
- 有關生產者之義務規定(例如對消費者風險之通知、風險源頭之追蹤、發布警訊、必要時對危險產絣之回收等)。
- 有關經銷商之義務規定(例如不銷售具危險性產品及需 適用風險管理措施)。
- 7. 有關主管機關(authorities)、製造商、經銷商之合作 (collaboration) 規定。
- 8. 有關製造商與經銷商對危險場品之通知義務。
- 9. 建立有效之市場箋督與執行體系之要件。

- 10. 建立「歐洲產品安全網絡」之規定。
- 11. 建立緊急通報系統(A Rapid Alert System)及歐洲標準(EU-level)之緊急風險管理措施之規定。
- 12. 使用產品風險資訊之規定。

四依據 GPSD 之產品安全管理規定

- 1. 有關製造商、主管機關、EC 與制定標準機關 (standardization bodies)對風險評估(Assessment of risks)之責。
- 2. 有關製造商對風險管理 (Management of risks) 之責。
- 3. 有關市場監督機關(Market surveillance authorities) 確保產品符合規定之責。
- 4. 有關市面上發生危險產品時,主管機關之風險管理措施。 (五)依據 GPSD 之安全評估標準
 - 1. 與下列有關情況,安全必須被評估
 - 產品在正常或合理之可預見條件之使用時 (The normal or reasonably foreseeable conditions of use)
 - 潛在之使用者 (The intended users) 及在合理之可預 見條件下可能使用產品者
 - 易受傷害之消費者 (The vulnerable consumers) 可能的暴露
 - 產品可預見之生命週期
 - 2. 應併入安全評估之事項
 - 產品之固有特徵、性質(物質與化學之方面)
 - 與其他產品可能之相互影響

- 產品展示給消費者
- 標示與警語
- 對消費者提供之資訊與說明
- 在合理之可預見條件下有關組裝與服務、維修之提供
- 3. 一般安全要件含有下列之意義
 - 沒有健康與安全之風險
 - 與產品之有效使用可相容之最低風險
 - 任何之殘餘風險必須屬於可以接受,且須符合高標準之保護 (any residual risk must be acceptable and consistent with a high level of protection)

(六)執行之原則與標準

- 1. 主管機關之風險管理措施須將事先預防原則
 (Precautionary Principle)納入
- 2. 有關嚴重風險之特定標準 (Specific criteria for serious risk) 正在發展中

(七)有關製造商之風險管理

- 1. 與顧客之關係
 - 提供防範風險所必要之資訊與指引
 - 有關顧客申訴之登記與追蹤
- 2. 監視目前市場之發展
 - 確保源頭之追蹤
 - 調查風險與產品之檢查、測試
 - 與經銷商交換、交流風險之資訊
- 3. 準備及運用風險防範措施

- 發布警訊
- 收回危險產品
- 回收危險產品
- 4. 與主管機關之合作
 - 通知主管機關關於危險產品之事實
- 依據主管機關之要求,配合才取避免風險之行為或措施(八)依據 GPSD 有關主管機關之風險管理
 - 1. 攸關行政與技術之架構需建置於全國及/區域/地方
 - 2. 建立相關機關之任務與權限,運作機關與內部合作之安排
 - 3. 建立市場監督系統,以及適當之方法與程序,包括
 - 監督方案
 - 掌控科學/技術之發展
 - 定期評估與適時修正監督/執行系統

(九)依據 GPSD 有關歐盟標準 (EU-level) 之合作

- 1. 一個強化的歐洲警報系統,以因應一旦發生之嚴重風險 (serious risk)
- 2. 在歐洲產品安全網絡(European Product Safety Network)內之行政合作
- 3. 如有必要,賦予在歐盟地區應變措施之權限•

歐盟之一般產品安全指令自西元二千年實施後,已再加以修正,定於2004年實施。主要之點為1.向主管機關通報危險產品之義務;2.回收危險產品之義務。有關通報與回收之詳細規定,當另文介紹。

乙:MUNCK 先生部分:

- (一)比利時之「Safety of products Directive 2001/95」之制定,其目標在於建立誠信交易(Honest trade)之法規、確保市售產品之良好與安全、確保所受之產品符合歐盟標準(EU-level)。
- 二凡是消費者或使用者無法評估之風險或消費者知道需承擔之風險,依上開指令即屬危險情況(Dangerous situation)。
- (三)依比利時國之之規定,與消費性產品有關之服務(如產品之 安裝或維修、由專業人員使用之產品)對消費者造成之風險 等,應由提供之服務公司(The service company)負責, 製造商僅就原來產品(Original product)與產品之使用或 安裝之說明負責。其次,提供服務之公司須保證產品處於完 好狀態(perfect state)

給消費者所需之所有資訊。

四有關製造商與經銷商之義務部分:

- 1. 只能販售安全產品之義務。
- 提供消費者相關資訊,俾使消費者能自行評估伴隨產品所生之風險。
- 市面上如果發現危險產品,有會同主管機關採取必要動作 之義務。
- 4. 向主管機關報告
- (五)市面流通之商品不僅須具有安全性,並須符合本指令之其他要求。歐
- (六)有關安全標準之四個觀念與原則
 - 1. 導入「推定與歐洲標準一致」觀念。

- 2. 優良營業規範 (Codes of good practice)
- 3. 事先預防原則 (Precautionary Principle)
- 4. 注意原則,又稱為 ALARA-principle
- (七)比利時主管機關對個別產品或服務之市場控制責任,如為一般程序,跟製造商協商後即可發布,如為緊急程序,主管機關可依測試程序與結果逕行發布。

(八)比利時主管機關之權限

- 1. 制定規則或命令禁止製造、輸入與輸出、行銷等
- 2. 有權進入任何有可疑產品之地方
- 3. 免費取樣與測試、庫存之封存、銷毀產品、公開測試結果 與決定、下架與危險產品之回收
- 4. 命業者提供任有必要之各類文件
- 5. 實地訪問業者及其員工
- 6. 使用其他主管機關之規定
- 7. 對製造商、輸入商與經銷商行使行政罰,每一違法行為最高可處二萬元
- 8. 提起訴訟
- (九)建立有關市場箋事之資訊與溝通系統(Information and Communication System for Market Surveillance, 簡稱 ICSMS),本系統網站為www. Icsms.org
- (十) MUNCK 先生在報告中也數度提及本國與跨國之消費者、業界、製造商、輸入商、經銷商與主管機關間合作之重要性。

三、歐洲兒童安全措施與法規、標準簡介

本次會議另一重點為兒童安全,會中也有多篇與兒童安全有關 之論文,包括「Can playgrounds be safe and fun at the same time , What standards keep children safe in Europe, What standards keep children safe in USA , Keeping children safe and adolescence in Japan I The prevention of childhood injuries in the home in Japan J Non-fatal childhood injury in Japan」等。兒童安全,特別是1至14歲之兒童所以受到重視,係 因兒童之意外事故具有全球性之特質,此等非故意之意外包括交通 事故、溺水、燒燙傷、窒息、中毒、嗆傷、機器造成意外傷害及從 高處掉落等。為有效避免對兒童之傷害,會中並邀請歐洲兒童安全 聯盟 (European Child Safety Alliance) 提出該聯盟 2001-2003 年之行動方案(Action Plan)之說明以及歐洲地區之兒童安全相關 規定與標準(A Guide to Child Safety Regulations and Standards in Europe)。歐洲兒童安全聯盟並提供二份參考資料(如附件二、 三)供象。

根據歐洲兒童安全聯盟之 2001 年調查結果 (如附件四),整體而言,父母對子女之安全,特別是家境較差或父母忙於外務之家庭對子女之安全,較不易給予重視,而造成兒童死亡或殘廢之主因為被車撞到。因此建立駕車者、父母與保母之正確保護兒童安全觀念,非常重要。歐洲兒童安全聯盟為強化兒童安全,避免兒童受害,設定四個目標如下:

 促成決策關鍵人士及歐洲社會之領導人將兒童傷害預防列 為公共健康政策之一環並提撥經費辦理兒童安全活動。

- 呼籲歐洲各階層建立防範兒童傷害之自覺,以行動落實兒童 傷害之防範
- 建立歐洲兒童傷害之防範網絡,以分享資訊、讓企業可以從事最佳之經營及建立夥伴關係。
- 4. 協助歐洲兒童安全聯盟具有足夠財源推動上述目標。

肆、感想與建議

- 一、本會第一次派員參加 ECOSA,對增進本會了解歐洲產品安全與促進我國與其他國家,特別是與歐洲國家之經驗交流,具有積極正面意義。會議期間亦取得 ECOSA 與捷克查理斯大學於今(92)年 9 月 15、16 二日將於布拉格舉辦「Collection of Accident Data for Prevention」研討會,另明(93)年六月6 至 9 日奧地利亦將於維也納舉辦第七屆傷害預方與安全增進全球會議(7th World Conference on Injury Prevention and Safety Promotion)。建議本會將來仍應積極參加此等會議,俾擴大與歐洲地區之交流機會,並獲取有關歐洲產品安全相關之資訊。
- 二、主辦單位在會議期間,並安排贊助廠商在會場提供相關資料, 例如 PricewaterhouseCoopers 提供產品回收服務、RAM Consulting提供產品安全設計服務,此種為因應產品安全所推 出之新型行業,讓人覺得產品安全要做得好,除法令規章與標 準外,如果有類似之廠商提供產品安全或回收之諮詢或服務,

當可減少產品之危險,因此為提高對消費者保護,建議政府應 鼓勵此種企業之設立。另外 Johnson & Johnson 則分送與會人 員該公司年報,從年報中展現出企業對社區之關懷、對消費者 健康安全、產品安全之全心付出,很容易用數據增進一般人對 該產品之信賴,可供國內企業之參考。

- 三、建議參考修正後之 EC 一般產品安全指令,於我國消費者保護法中增列企業對危險產品負有通知主管機關及回收義務之規定,或參考比利時之消費者安全法 (Consumer safety law), 另立專法,以落實對產品安全之規範。
- 四、我國與消費者產品安全相關主管機關宜催生類似 ECOSA 之組織,協調亞太地區國家成立亞太地區消費者安全協會,定期開會與研討,以便透過該協會加強亞太地區國家在消費者安全之理論與實務方面之共識,並透過亞太、歐洲與美洲之區域協會之整合,使全球消費者在消費者產品或服務之安全,具有同一之水準,並在法令規範上力求最大之一致性。

伍、附 件

- 一、與會人員名單
- 二、歐洲兒童安全聯盟行動計畫封面與四大目標
- 三、歐洲兒童安全聯盟有關歐洲地區兒童安全規定與標準指引(全文)
- 四、歐洲兒童安全聯盟有關歐洲地區父母對兒童安全之調查報

告(全文)

五、ECOSA 第四屆年會手冊

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Conference sponsors

Johnson Johnson

Children's health is a natural area of focus for Johnson & Johnson, with interests in babycare products and first aid as well as pharmaceuticals and surgical equipment. Providing assistance reducing the severity and frequency of accidents among children is an important priority.

At the European level, Johnson & Johnson Corporate Social Responsibility Europe partnered with the European Consumer and Safety Association's Child Safety Alliance and at national level, Johnson & Johnson supports many of the associated child safety organisations.



RAM Consulting is world's leading safety consultancy company. RAM works with companies to make product safety integral to every level of their business process from design and engineering through manufacture and distribution.

RAM develops processes that ensure that products for clients are designed for safety.

Whilst technology and research are the foundation of these processes, it is only through ongoing partnership with clients that we succeed in preventing injuries and saving lives.



The IKEA Group has a total of 155 stores in 22 countries. Last year, 286 million people visited IKEA stores and 118 million copies of the IKEA catalogue were printed.

IKEA of Sweden AB is responsible for developing the unique IKEA range. The idea is to offer well-designed, functional home furnishing products at prices so low that as many people as possible will be able to afford them.

Conference exhibitors

Johnson Johnson

Johnson & Johnson Europe's vision of corporate social responsibility and its focus on children's health inducing child accident prevention.



A unique network for advocating child safety throughout Europe and in making Europe a safer place for children.

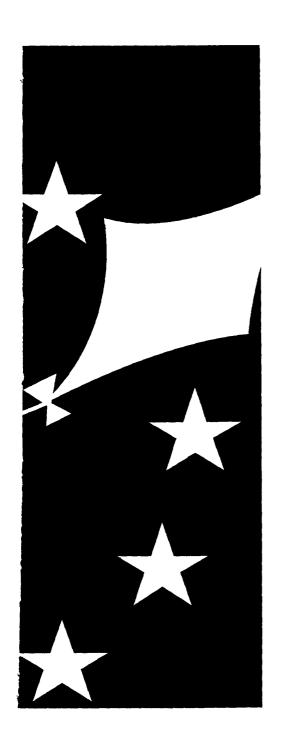


Global leader in pro-active product recall management services and in solving complex business problems arising from a product recall.



Ensuring safety of consumer products through integrating safety into the full chain of business processes.

附件二



Action Plan 2001 to 2003





To influence key decision makers and leaders at the European level to enhance healthy public policies and funding for child injury prevention initiatives.

ACTIONS

- Develop a database of key decision makers at the European Level who will be targeted to receive prepared materials on child injury prevention issues.
- Prepare a White Book on child injury to the European Commission, Parliament, and other key individuals to describe the magnitude and issues of child injury in Europe, with recommendations for action and a strategy to move these recommendations forward.
- Coordinate a communications launch of the White Book in Europe in partnership with the national partners and their community networks.
- Prepare a baseline survey of parents, practitioners and decision makers in the Member States on their attitudes and beliefs of child injury and prevention in Europe.
- Coordinate a communication package with the national partners and their community networks to release the results of the survey throughout Europe.
- Prepare each year one Alliance position statement that is fully researched on a priority issue that is controversial and requires a firm stance.
- Coordinate communications to promote the position of the European Child Safety Alliance on the prepared position statement in partnership with the national partners and their community networks.
- Pilot the concept of a Report Card or Score Card stating how safe Member States and Europe are for children.

OUTCOMES

- Recognition of name and purpose of the European Child Safety Alliance and its national partners by European political leaders and media.
- National plans for child safety promotions, based on measurable targets.
- Enhanced programs at the European level for child safety product standards and regulations.
- Increased funding at the European Union and national level for actions on child safety.



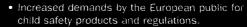
To stimulate European level injury prevention awareness promotions to increase the profile of child injury prevention.

ACTIONS

- Determine common themes and issues for European level promotions for child injury prevention.
- Investigate various structures and frameworks, which European
 promotions could operate within to provide national partners and their
 community networks with flexibility, yet maximising public impact of an
 injury prevention message.
- Partner and play a supportive role with participating national partners and community networks in the preparations of the promotions material.
- Enact the promotions plan in participating Member States with partner and sponsor involvement.
- Conduct an evaluation of the promotions to determine their level of impact, what aspect worked best, and general information to plan the next activities.

OUTCOMES

- Recognition by the European public that injury is the leading cause of death and disability for children.
- Increased requests by the European public for child injury prevention information.



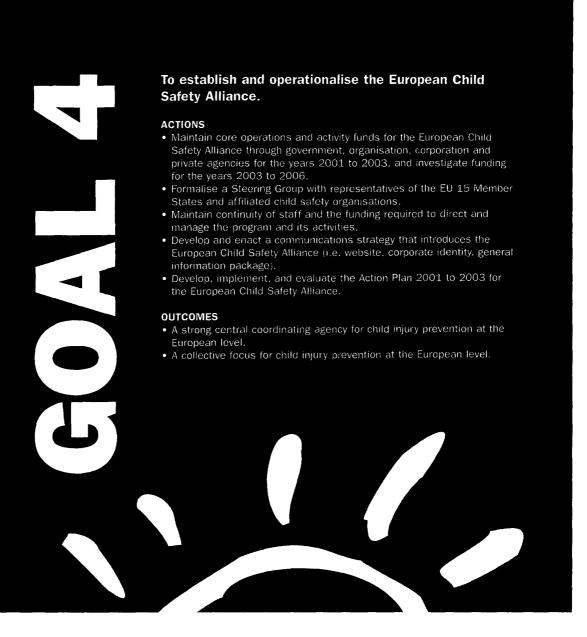


GOAL

To organise a European Child Injury Prevention Network to share resources, best practice and develop partnerships.

ACTIONS

- Develop a European database of child injury prevention practitioners, researchers and organisations in the Member States, and make it available as an electronic directory of the European Child Safety
- Host a Child Injury Prevention Safety Fair as part of the 3rd European Convention on Injury Prevention and Safety Promotion, to learn how child injury prevention is coordinated in each Member State and the resources available.
- Prepare a resource inventory of the materials shared by each Member State and their national structure at the Safety Fair and make an electronic listing.
- Investigate the development and support to create a link between academic researchers and practitioners, to determine bench marking criteria, comparison information, and best practice resources to share with injury practitioners.
- Prepare and distribute four statistic sheets each year to national partners with European and Member State information to provide consistent statements that can be used when preparing various communication pieces.



附 件 三



A Guide to Child Safety Regulations and Standards in Europe



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Table of contents

Introduction	3
Roles of European and national regulation	4
The relevance of European Union regulations	5
The European regulatory process	6
The role of standards	7
Quality of standards	8
The European standardisation process	10
Enforcement of regulations	12
Review of regulations, standards and best practice	13
Summary and recommendations	37
References	39
Sources of further information	40
List of abbreviations	42
Glossary	43
Contact information	45

LATIONS AND STANDARDS IN EUROPE

Introduction

Regulation is an important element in child safety accident prevention. Many successful injury prevention interventions directly involve or are dependent on regulations and standards. Regulations can influence behaviour, products or the environment within which children find themselves. Reduced speed limits, the adoption of child resistant designs for cigarette lighters, the compulsory use of child resistant packaging for all children's aspirin and paracetamol preparations, to give but a few examples, are all regulatory initiatives that have resulted in significant reductions in accidents involving children.

However what does this mean for us in the changing Europe we live in. With the expansion of the European Union we are seeing that national jurisdiction over regulation is being replaced in many fields with a shared responsibility between national and European authorities, and the spread of the EU eastwards.

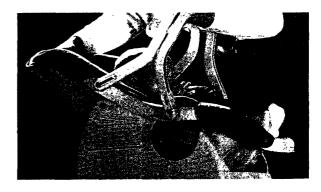
This guide tries to present and clarify the role of regulation in child accident prevention in today's Europe. The different aspects of the regulatory process are examined and a state of the art review of the standards and regulations currently in existence is presented.

This review identifies not only the existing European regulations and standards but also identifies best practice where this doesn't exist at the European level but rather at the national level. On the basis of this overview a number of priorities for action are identified.

This is a general introduction to the very complicated regulatory process. There is however a list of sources for further information that deal in much greater detail with specific aspects of the regulatory process.

The regulatory process described in this guide is not perfect, neither is the standardisation process that is extensively relied upon by the regulator. There are also legitimate concerns over the enforcement of the regulations and standards that do exist. Some of the limitations of the current set-up are acknowledged in this guide. However it is not the intent of the guide to provide an extensive critique of the existing arrangements or to present recommendations for their improvement. For a more extensive critique of the regulatory process and for recommendations for its improvement the reader is directed to the report published last year by ECOSA, "Priorities for Consumer Safety in the European Union: Agenda for Action".

Lastly, we should also note that many aspects of the regulatory process are in a state of change. The implementation of the revised General Product Safety Directive over the coming years will have a considerable impact on many aspects of the regulatory process. Most notably there will be important changes to the use of standards and in the arrangements for the co-ordination of enforcement and regulatory action at the European level.



Roles of European and national regulation

The Member States of the European Union have agreed to allow the Union to act in many different policy areas. The most important is the regulation of the so-called single market. Within the single market, also called the internal market, products and services can be traded freely between the Member States. Regulations and standards that vary from one country to the other can hinder this free flow of goods and services. In an effort to avoid this happening, the Member States of the EU have given the European Commission the responsibility to lay down regulations affecting the cross-border trade in products. These laws generally have to be implemented by the Member States. In effect these laws determine the level of pro-duct safety throughout the European Union.

The European Union has also been given the power by the Member States to take initiatives to promote consumer protection and public health. Recent amendments to the Treaty establishing the EU have specifically identified a role for the EU to play in promoting consumer protection and public health. This development acknowledges the coordinating role that the EU can play to assist the Member States in trying to protect their consumers and care for the health of their public.

Member States are free to regulate when the European Union does not. Member States alone have the responsibility to regulate their day-care, schools, sports installations, playgrounds, swimming pools and building regulations. Member States can also exceed the provisions laid down in European laws and establish a higher level of product safety (for example removal of drawstrings in children's clothing UK, children are rearward facing for longer in child restraints in cars in Sweden). However in the case of product regulations that could affect trade with other Member States they must be able to justify why they have had to go further.

The ultimate responsibility for child accident prevention always rests at the national level. Europe however does play a number of important roles and we have to look to both levels when pursuing our objective of reducing child accidents.

European Regulations

Take precedence in trade matters
(article 95 Treaty of Rome).
The European Commission also has the right to
propose measures to promote consumer and health
protection in particular with relation to the
coordination of national initiatives
(articles 129 and 152 of the Treaty)

National Regulations

Can be made where there are no European regulations and can exceed European regulations where the national authorities can justify why this is necessary

(Article 36 of the Treaty)

The relevance of European Union regulations

Many significant political developments have taken place in Europe especially over the past ten years. There has been the creation of the single market. This has been extended beyond the European Union Member States to the European Free Trade Agreement (EFTA) Member States, Iceland, Norway and Liechtenstein, in the European Economic Area. We have also seen the fall of the Berlin Wall and the Iron Curtain. This has brought Central and Eastern Europe much closer to the West. In fact a number of these countries are now well on the road towards membership of the European Union and some are in by 2004. These developments dictate that we must now have a broader view in mind when we talk about Europe. In order to create the single market the

fifteen Member States of the European Union have harmonised many of their laws in particular with respect to products.

These same rules apply to all the Member States of the European Free Trade Association (excluding Switzerland) under the European Economic Area (EEA). The EEA relies on EU laws for the regulation of trade including products between the EU and EFTA members. Switzerland also has bi-lateral agreements with the EU that emphasise the use of EU laws and standards. For new countries a pre-requisite to their joining the Union is aligning their laws with those of the EU. The importance of European Union legislation is thus felt throughout most of Europe and greatly influences child safety efforts.

EUROPEAN ECONOMIC AREA

Member States of the European Union

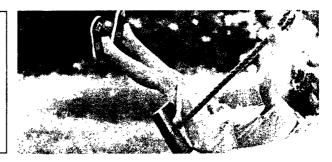
Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxemburg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom

Member States of the European Free Trade Agreement

Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway

Candidate Countries for EU membership

Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Rumania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Turkey



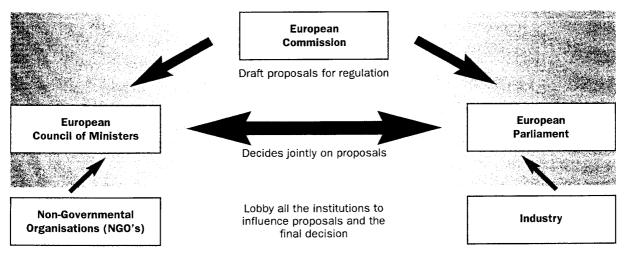
The European regulatory process

The European Regulatory process involves a number of different participants. The right to make proposals for new regulations rests with the European Commission. The European Commission is however restricted to proposals in areas of policy where the Member States have given the EU authority to regulate. The appropriate General Directorate of the European Commission drafts a proposal. The most important for child safety are the General-Directorate dealing with Consumer and Public Health (DG-SANCO), the General-Directorate dealing with Enterprise (DG-ENT) and the General Directorate dealing with Transport and Energy (DG-TREN). Any proposals are transmitted to the College of Commissioners who agree on the final proposal, which is in turn transmitted to the European Council and the European Parliament. The European Council, which is made up of representatives of the Member States, and the European Parliament work together in the majority of cases to reach agreement in the so-called co-decision procedure. The whole

of the legislative process, the Commission, the Council and the Parliament are subjected to lobbying from NGOs and the industry. It should be stressed that the ultimate decision-making authority rests with the representatives of the national governments in the Council and with the national members of the European Parliament and not with the European Commission.

There are a number of inherent difficulties with the process. It can take a long time for regulations to be agreed upon and then implemented at the national level. It has also proven difficult to get agreement at a political level on technical issues. This was in fact one of the reasons for the adoption of the New Approach that delegates the elaboration of most of the technical details of product specifications to the European standards bodies.

European regulatory process



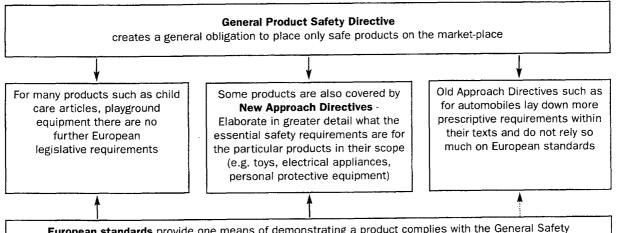
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A GUIDE TO CHILD SAFETY REGULATIONS AND STANDARDS IN EUROPE

The role of standards

Standards play an important role in the regulation of consumer safety in Europe. The General Product Safety Directive (GPSD) requires that only safe products are placed on the European market. Some key product groups such as toys, electrical and gas appliances and personal protective equipment are also the subjects of specific New Approach Directives. These directives provide further guidance as to what can be considered safe and take precedence to the GPSD in respect of the hazards they describe explicitly. The main hazards associated with the specific product group are identified in essential safety requirements listed in the directives. For example in the case of toys the essential safety requirements specify the physical and mechanical hazards that should be addressed. If there are any hazards that the New Approach directives do not address these are covered by the general safety requirement in the GPSD. With the recent revision of the General Product

Safety Directive both the GPSD and the New Approach Directives rely on European standards to provide the technical specifications necessary to manufacture products that are safe and do not expose their users to known risks and hazards. If a harmonised European standard is used in the manufacturing of a product, there is a legal presumption of conformity with the safety requirement contained in European law. It will then be up to the authorities to demonstrate that the product is unsafe despite the use of a European standard. This can happen and the European standard may have to be revised. Other European laws address themselves to specific safety issues and do not rely on European standards. For example vehicle safety directives that mandate the provision of seat belts and govern the performance of cars in crash tests. For a number of consumer products on the market European standards play a crucial role in defining the level of safety to be found in the market place.



European standards provide one means of demonstrating a product complies with the General Safety Requirement. Often where a European standard is used the conformity assessment procedure that is required is less onerous than where another standard is used. For example a manufacturer who uses a European standard may be able to declare his product's safety himself without the need for any third party certification.

Quality of standards

Standards play a very important role in the regulatory process in Europe. How they are written is important if they are to adequately address our safety concerns.

A proposal for a new standard or the revision of an existing standard can come from the national members of the European standards bodies. It can also come from the European authorities, usually in the form of a mandate. A mandate is a request from the European public authorities with the agreement of the Member States to address a specific issue, either by writing a new standard or amending an existing standard. Consumer groups and safety organisations can also raise issues with the Commission that may be suitable grounds to issue a mandate.

Mandates were originally used to identify the standards that needed to be drafted in support of the New Approach Directives when they were implemented. More recently mandates have been used to identify consumer safety issues with specific products such as cigarette lighters, baby walkers and oil lamps and to identify shared safety issues such as child safety, the needs of the elderly and the disabled, and product information. These mandates should make reference to injury surveillance data and other relevant research findings. The use of mandates in this manner can be expected to rise with the formal reference to standards in the revised General Product Safety Directive.

The European standards bodies are free to accept the mandate or not. Similarly there is not a legal obligation on the standards bodies to actually complete the work. However the implied threat is always that if the standards bodies do not take on the work, or if they fail to complete it satisfactorily, then the Commission will take matters into their own hands and regulate themselves. Industry normally considers that they have less influence in the regulatory process than in the standardisation process and are therefore encouraged to ensure that the standards bodies do rise to the task.

A draft standard is prepared in a technical committee or a working group. All interested parties including the industry, consumers and safety advocates can in theory participate in this process. Resources however are often lacking especially for participation by consumer representatives and safety professionals.

The draft standard is then sent out for a period of public comment that lasts six months. Anyone can comment on the draft standard at this stage. Once any comments have been dealt with the draft standard is submitted to formal vote. The formal vote is by the national members of the European Standardisation Committee (CEN) or European Committee for Electro-technical Standardisation (CENELEC) as appropriate. Each country has a weighted number of votes that reflects broadly the population of the country. Throughout the drafting proce dure many national standards bodies monitor the work of the European technical committees in national mirror committees. These committees are supposed to bring together the stakeholders at the national level and provide a platform for discussing the national position to t put forward in the European discussions. This is an important forum for national consumer representatives and safety professionals to put forward their views.

The references of some standards are then published the Official Journal. The reference of the standard in tl Official Journal of the European Communities gives a legal presumption of conformity with the regulatory requirement to place only safe goods on the market place (harmonised standard). Up until now this has or been relevant for the products covered by New Approx directives but with the revision of the General Product Safety Directive the references of standards for a mu wider range of products will be liable to be published.

A safeguard clause procedure exists for any standard whose reference is published in the Official Journal. If the national authorities or the European Commissi consider a standard is deficient and does not

adequately address realistic safety concerns they can invoke the so-called safeguard clause. This gives the right to the authorities to challenge whether a standard should give a legal presumption of conformity with the general safety requirement. As a result of invoking this process the reference to the standard in the Official Journal can be withdrawn and the standard no longer gives any legal presumption of conformity. This is very often followed up by a mandate asking the European standards bodies to revise the standard and address the issue at stake.

One example of such a request was in the case of centrifugal juicers. A number of these products exploded after being in use for some time. It turned out that there was no test in the standard for exposing these products to orange juice that is quite acidic. The existing standard had to be revised to include a test to ensure that the acidic orange juice did not break down the parts of the juicer. This example also highlights the difficulties that can arise as a result of the separation of the standardisation of electrical and non-electrical products in CEN and CENELEC. It is important to ensure that physical hazards are also addressed in standards for electrical products. This has not always been the case in the past. Other examples of deficient standards relate to toys with long hair that have been found to be a choking hazard and noisy toys such as toy cap guns. Cases like these can and do result in a mandate from the European Commission to the European standards bodies as outlined above.

These examples also demonstrate that whilst there are safeguards in the standardisation process the results are not always as desired. We have already noted that resources for participation by relevant consumer safety experts can be lacking. There is a general perception that industry can dominate standardisation work and whilst the delays within the regulatory process can be frustrating there is also criticism of the standardisation process for the speed of its work.



The European Standardisation Process

Issue is identified

A safety issue is identified. This can be by the European Commission, national administrations, NGO's or the public.

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Proposal for a new or revised standard

If the Commission or national authorities do not deal with an issue directly then it may be raised with the European standards bodies and a proposal for a new or revised standard may result. A national standards body can make such a proposal or the European Commission can issue a mandate defining the aims and objectives of public authorities in having a standard written or revised.

Preparation of draft standard

If the proposal for a new or revised standard is accepted a draft standard is prepared in a technical committee or working group. The technical committee or working group is composed of national delegations and representatives of European organisations such as ANEC and industry.

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Six-month period of Public comment on draft standard

During the period of public comment anyone has the right to make comments on the draft standard.

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Formal vote on draft standard

Received comments are resolved and then the draft standard goes out to formal vote by the national standards bodies. If the formal vote is successful a new European standard has been created.

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Publication of reference to some standards in Official Journal (Harmonised standard)

In the case that the reference of the standard is subsequently published in the Official Journal of the EU, then the use of that standard gives a formal presumption of conformity with the appropriate European legislation.

Safeguard Clause

The public authorities may invoke the safeguard clause in respect of any standard they believe is deficient and whose reference has been published in the Official Journal of the European Communities. This can result in the removal of the reference to the standard in the Official Journal meaning the standard no longer gives a legal presumption of conformity with the European legislation.

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Whilst the safeguard clause provides a mechanism to correct deficient standards it is preferable that the standards committees get their work right first time. In addition to the direct participation of consumer representatives and safety professionals, where there are resources made available the work of standards committees is influenced by a number of horizontal guidelines and reference documents.

These guides deal with such issues as the application of risk assesment to standards writing, specific child safety issues, the development of warning labels and pictogrammes.

These guides promote best practice in dealing with consumer safety and especially child safety issues. If they are properly applied, they also help ensure consistency and compatibility amongst the European standards.

We can see then that there are a number of procedural and structural provisions in the standardisation process aimed at ensuring the quality of European standards. These provisions however rely on expert input from the safety community in terms of direct participation in standards work and in drafting guidance that should be followed by standards committees. It is imperative that the safety community rises to this challenge.



Enforcement of regulations

Of course the best regulations in the world are worthless if they are not applied and enforced in practice. European regulations for the most part rely on market surveillance by the national authorities. There is no pre-market inspection or certification required for the majority of consumer products. This contrasts with the situation in many European countries before the establishment of the internal market. With the open borders that we now have between countries within the European Union and the European Economic Area it is important that national authorities co-ordinate their activities at the European level. They have to realise that their actions have consequences far beyond their own national boundaries. Co-operation thus far has been co-ordinated through the European Commission and by the enforcement officials themselves in Prosafe, the Product Safety Enforcement Forum of Europe. The Commission operates Rapex a system for the rapid exchange of information on dangerous products. Prosafe's members have co-operated in joint enforcement exercises across Europe.

In practice there are a number of issues with enforcement that need to be dealt with. There is a lack of coordination between national authorities. Notifications to Rapex are sporadic and there is no European system of recall of dangerous products. Many of these issues are addressed in the revised European General Product Safety Directive, but still not acted upon.

The provisions concerning market surveillance have been strengthened in the directive. The aim is to increase the amount of co-operation between national administrations co-ordinated by the European Commission. It is also the intention that information relating to dangerous products should be made available as quickly as possible to the public thereby aiding safety professionals in their work. However it remains to be seen how these new provisions are implemented in practice in the coming years.

Consumer organisations also play an important role through their comparative testing of products. These tests not only identify products that fail to comply with existing standards and regulations but also allow consumer groups to identify hazards and risks that are not adequately addressed in the existing standards or regulations. Information provided by market surveillance and consumer organisations, helps provide us with the means to set priorities for safety campaigns and regulatory and standardisation activities.



A review of regulations, standards and best practice

We have briefly highlighted in the previous pages some of the most important legal acts of the European Union that make up the framework for consumer product safety. The tables on the following pages identify in greater detail the main pieces of regulation and standards that deal with the principle hazards that have been identified from injury data. This short inventory also identifies exemples of best practice actions that have been proven to reduce injuries to children and in doing, can help in the future identification of priorities for legislative and standardisation activities in other countries and at a European level. In addition we need to acknowledge that we have to continually update and improve European standards and regulations in light of advances in technology, the development of new products and the identification of new and emerging hazards.



ISSUES RELEVANT FOR CHILD SAFETY REGULATIONS

Motor Vehicle:

- Appropriate restraint systems by children of all ages
- Placement of children in the rear seats to avoid air bag injuries and head on impacts
- · Child restraints
- Development of universal child restraint systems using rigid or semi-rigid vehicle anchorages
- Redesign child restraint systems to allow toddlers to travel rearward facing for a longer period (or up to the age of 4)
- Alcohol limits
- · Seat belts
- Vehicle crashworthiness
- Children banned from riding/driving farm tractors

Pedestrian:

- Design of motor vehicles considering pedestrian protection
- · Speed limits in urban areas
- Traffic calming of road ways

Bicycles:

- Brakes on bicycles for children
- · Mandatory use of helmets
- · Separate lanes for bicycles

Drowning:

- · Child care products
- Diving accessories
- Pool and pond fencing, natural barriers, locked gates
- · Personal flotation devices
- Swimming pool equipment

Falls

- Furniture
- Mandatory use of helmets during sports
- Playgrounds with regulated shock absorbing surfaces to comply with the playground standards
- Fairground equipment and leisure attractions
- Stair gates
- Window Bars and Balconies
- · Sports equipment
- Supermarket trolleys

Burns and scalds:

- · Child resistant lighters and matches
- Flammability of furniture and other products
- Flame resistant clothing
- Smoke alarms
- Temperature regulators on water heaters to prevent tap water scalds
- Surface temperatures
- Fireworks

Poisoning:

- · Child resistant packaging
- · Labelling of dangerous products
- · Phthalates in toys and child care products
- · Chemicals in Toys
- · Safe storage
- · Nickel allergy

Choking,

- · Inedibles in food
- Small parts size enforcement for child products and toys/warning labels
- Pen Caps

Suffocation and Strangulation:

- · Blind cords on windows
- Requirements on measurements in standards for products
- Removal of drawstrings on children's clothing
- Pen caps

Issue	Current situation in Europe	Examples of best practice not at the European level
Use of child restraint systems of all ages	Council Directive 91/671/EEC of 16 December 1991 on the approximation of the laws of the Member States relating to compulsory use of safety belts in vehicles of less than 3,5 tonnes This Directive is currently under revision. A Common Position (EC) No 63/2002 was adopted by the Council on 14 November 2002. Article 2	National regulations in some member states require children as old as three years to travel rearward facing in the back seat
	In the Common Position, it is mentioned that Articlel2 of the Directive shall be replaced by the following: "Children less than 150cm in height shall be restrained by an integral or non-integral child-restrain system suitable for the child's mass In vehicles that are not fitted with safety systems, children under 3 years of age may not be transported. Children may not be transported using a rearward-facing child-restraint system in a passenger seat protected by a front air bag, unless the air bag has been deactivated, even in cases where the airbag is automatically deactivated in a sufficient manner." Article 3 The provisions of this Directive shall also apply to drivers and passengers of vehicles being used on the road in the Community which are registered in a third country. Article 4 1. By way of derogation from the second paragraph of Article 2, Member States may, on their national territory, permit children aged three years and over occupying the seats of vehicles referred to in Article 1 to be restrained by a safety belt or other restraint system approved for adult use.	
	national law, allow that children under three years of age occupying rear seats need not be restrained by a restraint system suitable for their height and weight if such children are transported in a vehicle where such a system is unavailable."	
Placement of children in the rear seats to avoid air bag injuries and head on impacts	A common position (EC) No 63/2002 was adopted by the Council on 14 November 2002	Some member states have enacted national regulations

Child restraint systems	There is no minimum standard for the safety of child restraint systems in European legislation other than integrated CRS. The following two directives deal with aspects of the fitment of CRS. Council Directive 74/408/EEC of 22 July 1974 on the approximation of the laws of the Member States relating to the interior fittings of motor vehicles (strength of seats and of their anchorage) (OJ L 221 12.08.1974 p.1) as amended Council Directive 76/115/EEC of 18 December 1975 on the approximation of the laws of the Member States relating to anchorage for motor-vehicle safety belts (OJ L 024 30.01.1976 p.6) as amended	EuroNCAP test results have been used in industry to advance car safety. Draft CRS protocols by EuroNCAP are expected to have similar success.
Development of universal child restraint systems using rigid or semi-rigid vehicle anchorage		Work pending in ISO. US and Canadian draft rules on universal child restraints using vehicle anchorage. Manufacturers are already producing vehicle-specific systems.
Redesign child restraint systems to allow toddlers to travel rearward facing for a longer period (or up to the age of 4)		R44.02 has been revised, and published in 1995 as R44.03, and one of the changes was in order to allow children to travel rearward facing for a longer period of time (at least up to 13 kg)
Alcohol limits	EU proposed a directive for a limit of 0.5 but this has been withdrawn now and the Commission respecting subsidiary and noting that there are only four member states (Ireland, Italy Luxembourg, and the UK) with higher limits now intends to submit a recommendation to Member States emphasising in this context the need for more effective enforcement and international co-operation in prosecuting drink driver offenders as well as the adoption of 0,5 or even lower limits for certain categories. Commission recommendation of 17 January 2001 on the maximum permitted blood alcohol content (BAC) for drivers of motorised vehicles (Text with EEA relevance)	Most member states have a limit of 0.5 and some have automatic bans and driver re-training for offenders

Seat belts	Council Directive 77/541/EEC of 28 June 1977 on the approximation of the laws of the Member States relating to safety belts and restraint systems of motor vehicles (OJ L 220 29.08.1977 p.95) as amended Includes three point anchorage in the centre rear position and in minibuses and two point belts in larger coaches	
Vehicle Crashworthiness	Directive 96/27/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 20 May 1996 on the protection of occupants of motor vehicles in the event of a side impact and amending Directive 70/156/EEC (OJ L 169 08.07.1996 p.1) Directive 96/79/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 16 December 1996 on the protection of occupants of motor vehicles in the event of a frontal impact and amending Directive 70/156/EEC (OJ L 018 21.01.1997 p.7)	US regulations provide a more onerous test of seat belt anchorage in head-on collision. Combination of existing European offset test and the US test with some air-bag criteria would be best regulation
Children banned from rid- ing/driving farm tractors		UK The Prevention of Accidents to Children in Agriculture Regulations 1998 prohibits children under 13 from driving and riding on agricultural equipment

Issue	Current situation in Europe	Examples of best practice not at the European level
Pedestrian protection for motor vehicles	Council Directive 74/483/EEC of 17 September 1974 on the approximation of the laws of the Member States relating to the external projections of motor vehicles (OJ L 266 02.10.1974 p.4) as amended deals with minor projections on vehicle fronts Voluntary agreement with industry to implement some testing pending approval by Parliament. Proposal for a Commission directive based largely on tests contained in previous draft voluntary agreement (criticised by safety advocates) The Commission adopted a draft Directive on pedestrian protection in February 2003, based on an industry agreement. Consumer and safety organisations have criticised this weak draft directive.	• EEVC (the European Experimental Safe Vehicle Committee) has developed a suite of tests that are already in use for some time in EURONCAP (European New Car Assessment Programme). It is estimated that 2,100 deaths and 18,000 serious pedestrian and cyclist casualties of all ages could be prevented annually upon implementation of these tests
Reduced speed limits		In the UK 20mph zones have resulted in reductions in child road accidents involving cyclists of 48% and in fatal road accidents involving pedestrians by 70%. In Sweden there are often 30km limits in place near schools during school hours
Traffic calming		Has shown accident savings of 60% in 30mph zones in the UK

Visibility clothing	EN 1150 Protective Clothing - visibility for non-professional use	Regional legislation exists in the US for use of reflective clothing to reduce car pedestrian collisions
Bicycles:		
Brakes on bicycles for children	European standards addressing bicycles avoid issue of brakes due to conflicting national theories regarding hand brakes versus back-pedal brakes	Some non-European countries have regula- tions requiring brakes for children's bicycles
Mandatory use of helmets	No European regulation mandating the wearing the helmets. Voluntary standards exist governing the performance of helmets. EN 1078:1997 Helmets for pedal cyclists and for users of skateboards and roller skates	Some jurisdictions have mandated helmet use e.g. Iceland, Spain, Macedonia, Czech repub- lic and some regions in Australia and British Columbia in Canada
Separate lanes for bicycles	EN 1080:1997 Impact protection helmet for young children	Many countries have an extensive bicycle lane network, e.g. the Netherlands, Belgium, Switzerland, Sweden, Denmark etc.

Issue	Current situation in Europe	Examples of best practice not at the European level
Child care products	Standard in preparation bath seats prEN13822	
Diving accessories	EN 1972:1997 - Diving accessories - Snorkels - Safety requirements and test methods EN 13319:2000 - Diving accessories - Depth gauges and combined depth and time measuring devices - Functional and safety requirements, test methods	
Pool and pond fencing, natural barriers, locked gates	No European regulatory requirements for the provision of pool fencing or other safety equipment. Voluntary standards govern the construction of related products. EN 393:1993/A1:1998 Lifejackets and personal buoyancy aids - Several standards EN 60335-2-60:1997 Safety of household and similar electrical appliances - Part 2: Particular requirements for whirlpool baths and similar equipment EN 1069-1:2000 Water slides over 2m height - Part 1: Safety requirements and test methods EN 1069-2:1999 Water slides over 2m height - Part 2: Instructions	Sweden and Australia have requirements for pool fencing
Personal flotation devices	EN 393:1993/A1:1998 Lifejackets and personal buoyancy aids - Buoyancy aids - 50N EN 395:1993/A1:1998 Lifejackets and personal buoyancy aids - Lifejackets - 100N EN 396:1993/A1:1998 Lifejackets and personal buoyancy aids - Lifejackets - 150N EN 399:1993/A1:1998 Life jackets and personal buoyancy aids - 275 N EN 394:1993 Lifejackets and personal buoyancy aids - Additional items EN 13138-2:2002 Buoyant aids for swimming instruction - Part 2: Safety requirements and test methods for buoyant aids to be held prEN 13138-1 Buoyant aids for swimming instruction - Part 1: Safety requirement and test methods for buoyant aids to be worn.	

	Draft European standard for swim seats prEN 13138-3 Work item Inflatable leisure articles for use on the water – safety requirements and test methods	
Swimming pool equipment	EN 13451- 1: 2001 - Swimming pool equipment - Part 1: General safety requirements and test methods	
	EN 13451- 2: 2001 - Swimming pool equipment - Part 2: Additional specific safety requirements and test methods for ladders, stepladders and handle bends	
	EN 13451- 3: 2001 - Swimming pool equipment - Part 3: Additional specific safety requirements and test methods for pool fittings for water treatment purposes	
	EN 13451- 4: 2001 - Swimming pool equipment - Part 4: Additional specific safety requirements and test methods for starting platforms	
	EN 13451- 5: 2001 - Swimming pool equipment - Part 5: Additional specific safety requirements and test methods for lane lines	
	EN 13451- 6: 2001 - Swimming pool equipment - Part 6: Additional specific safety requirements and test methods for turning boards	
	EN 13451- 7: 2001 - Swimming pool equipment - Part 7: Additional specific safety requirements and test methods for water polo goals	
	EN 13451- 8: 2001 - Swimming pool equipment - Part 8: Additional specific safety requirements and test methods for leisure water features	
	prEN 13451-10 "Additional specific safety requirements and test methods for diving platforms, diving springboards and associated equipment" and prEN 13451-11 "Additional specific safety requirements and test methods for moveable pool floors and moveable bulkheads".	

Issue	Current situation in Europe	Examples of best practice not at the European level
Furniture and child care articles	There are a number of voluntary European standards dealing with the construction of furniture and child care products	Step-ladder regulation in the Netherlands (requirements exceed
	EN 12227:1999 Playpens for domestic use - Consists of 2 parts - Consists of 2 parts 1) safety requirements 2) Test methods	European standard)
	CR 13387:1999 Child use and care articles - General and common safety guidance (revision pending)	The Netherlands and Sweden building code also contains provisions relating to balcony
	EN 12221:1999 Changing units for domestic use - Consists of 2 parts 1) safety requirements 2) Test methods	barriers and stair gate barriers
	EN 1272:1998 Childcare articles - Table mounted chairs - Safety requirements and test methods	
	EN 1178-1:1994 Furniture - Children's high chairs for domestic use - Part 1: Safety requirements	
	EN 1178-2:1994 Furniture - Children's high chairs for domestic use - Part 2: Test methods	
	EN 131-1:1993 Ladders - Terms, types, functional sizes	
	EN 131-2:1993 Ladders - Requirements testing marking	
	EN 1466:1998 Child care articles - Carry cots and stands - Safety requirements and test methods	
	EN 1272:1998 Child care articles - Table mounted chairs - Safety requirements and test methods	
	EN 1130-1:1996 Furniture - Cribs and cradles for domestic use - Part 1: Safety requirements	
	EN 1130-2:1996 Furniture - Cribs and cradles for domestic use - Part 2: Test methods	

	EN 716-1:1995 Furniture - Children's cots and folding cots for domestic use - Part 1: Safety requirements EN 716-2:1995 Furniture - Children's cots and folding cots for domestic use - Part 2: Test methods prEN 71b-3 Furniture - Children's cots and folding cots for domestic use - Part 3: Additional safety requirements and test methods for folding cots EN 1273:2001 Baby walking frames EN 747:1993 Bunkbeds EN1888:2003 Wheeled Child conveyances – safety requirements and test methods EN 12790:2002 Child care articles - Reclined cradles Draft standards are in preparation for prEN 13209 Baby carriers prEN 14344 Child cycle seats prEN1466 Carry cots and stands prEN 13210 Baby harnesses and reins prEN 1887 Child use and care articles - Convertible high chairs safety requirements and test methods (voted down, will not be published) prEN 14036 Baby bouncers prEN 13209 Soft carriers	
Playgrounds with regulated shock absorbing surfaces to comply with the playground standards	There are no European regulations on playgrounds, but there are voluntary European standards dealing with the construction, installation and maintenance of playground equipment and impact absorbing surfaces EN 1176-1:1998 Playground equipment - Part 1: General safety requirements and test methods EN 1176-2:1998 Playground equipment- Part 2: Additional specific safety requirements and test methods for swings EN 1176-3:1998 Playground equipment-Part 3: Additional specific safety requirements	National and local regu- lations (for example in Portugal and the Netherlands) require impact resistant sur- faces and regular main- tenance of playgrounds

	EN 1176-4:1998 Playground equipment- Part 4: Additional specific safety requirements and test methods for runways EN 1176-5:1998 Playground equipment - Part 5 - Additional specific safety requirements and test methods for carousels	
	EN 1176-6:1998 Playground equipment- Part 6: Additional specific safety requirements and test methods for rocking equipment	
	EN 1176-7:1997 Playground equipment - Part 7: Guidance on installation, inspection, maintenance and operation.	
	EN 1177: 1997 - Impact absorbing playground surfacing - Safety requirements and test methods	
	EN 1069-1: 2000 - Water slides of 2 m height and more - Part 1: Safety requirements and test methods	
	EN 1069- 2: 1999 - Water slides over 2 m height and more - Part 2: Instructions	
	EN 13613: 2001 - Roller sports equipment - Skateboards - Safety requirements and test methods	
	Draft standard for activity toys was approved and is ready for publication (this includes self-assembly playground equipment) prEN 71-8 Swings, slides and similar activity toys for indoor and outdoor family domestic use	
	Work items on inflatable play equipment and contained play equipment	
Fairground equipment and leisure attractions	Draft standard prEN 13814 Fairground and amusement park machinery and structures-safety	The Netherlands has national legislation for fairground equipment
Stair gates	EN 1930: 2000 - Child care articles - Safety barriers - Safety requirements and test methods	
Window bars and balconies	Standard under preparation Window Barriers prEN1930-2	Child resistant devices and ventilation fittings are used in Sweden for windows and balcony doors. The Swedish Consumer Agency has guidelines that require that the devices fulfil the test described in the guidelines

Supermarket trolleys	EN 1929-1:1998 Basket trolleys - Part 1: Requirements and tests for basket trolleys with or without a child carrying facility	
	prEN 1929-3 - Basket trolleys - Part 3: Requirements and tests for basket trolleys with additional goods carrying facility(ies), with or without a child carrying facility	
	prEN 1929-4 - Basket trolleys - Part 4: Requirements and tests for basket trolleys with additional goods carrying facility(ies), with or without a child carrying facility, intended to be used on passenger conveyors	
	prEN 1929-7 - Basket trolleys - Part 7: Requirements and tests for basket trolleys with baby and child carrying facilities	
Sports and sports equipment	There are no European regulations requiring mandatory helmet wearing. A number of European standards govern the construction of sports equipment	UK Horses (Protective Headgear for Young
	EN 1384:1996 Helmets for equestrian activities	Riders) Act 1990 (c. 25) mandates wearing of helmets
	EN 1077:1996 Helmets for alpine skiers	nemecs
	EN 12492:2000 Helmets for mountaineers	
	N 967:1996 Helmets for ice hockey players	
	Moveable soccer goals Existing European standards for handball goals and soccer goals EN748 and EN749 only deal with organised training and competition and not school and leisure use. There are no technical requirements as present contained in the standard to properly address the fixation and stability for goals. EN 748: 1995 + A1: 1998 - Playing field equipment - Football goals - Functional and safety requirements, test methods (including amendment 1: 1998)	Portugal and France have national legislation that has broaden the scope of the European standards for goal and is applicable also to school and leisure settings
	EN 749: 1995 + A1: 1998 - Playing field equipment - Handball goals - Functional and safety requirements, test methods (including amendment 1: 1998)	
	EN 750: 1995 + A1: 1998 - Playing field equipment - Hockey goals - Functional and safety requirements, test methods (including amendment 1: 1998)	
	EN 913: 1996 - Gymnastic equipment - General safety requirements and test methods	

EN 914: 1996 - Gymnastic equipment - Parallel bars and combination asymmetric/parallel bars - Functional and safety requirements, test methods

EN 915: 1996 - Gymnastic equipment - Asymmetric bars - Functional and safety requirements, test methods

EN 916: 1996 - Gymnastic equipment - Vaulting boxes - Functional and safety requirements, test methods

EN 12196: 1997 - Gymnastic equipment - Horses and bucks - Functional and safety requirements, test methods

EN 12197: 1997 - Gymnastic equipment - Horizontal bars - Safety requirements and test methods

EN 12655: 1998 - Gymnastic equipment - Hanging rings - Functional and safety requirements, test methods

EN 13219: 2001 - Gymnastic equipment - Trampolines - Functional and safety requirements, test methods

EN 12346: 1998 - Gymnastic equipment - Wall bars, lattice ladders and climbing frames - Safety requirements and test methods

EN 12432: 1998 - Gymnastic equipment - Balancing beams - Functional and safety requirements, test methods

EN 12503: 2001 Sports mats

EN 13613: 2001 - Roller sports equipment - Skateboards - Safety requirements and test methods

EN 12572: 1998 Climbing structures

EN 1270: 1998 - Playing field equipment - Basketball equipment - Functional and safety requirements, test methods

EN 1270: 1998/ A1: 2000 - Playing field equipment - Basketball equipment - Functional and safety requirements, test methods

EN 1271: 1998 - Playing field equipment - Volleyball equipment - Functional and safety requirements, test methods

EN 1271: 1998/ A1: 2000 - Playing field equipment - Volleyball equipment - Functional and safety requirements, test methods

EN 1509: 1996 - Playing field equipment - Badminton equipment - Functional and safety requirements, test methods

EN 1510: 1996 - Playing field equipment - Tennis equipment - Functional and safety requirements, test methods

prEN 13843 Inline Skates prEN 13899 Roller Skates prEN 14619 kick scooters, draft amendment to EN 71-1 for toy scooters

Issue	Current situation in Europe	Examples of best practice not at the European level
Child resistant lighters and matches	EN 13869 Lighters - Child- resistance for lighters - Safety requirements and test methods	Fire deaths associated with children playing with cigarette lighters dropped
	EN ISO 9994:1996 Lighters - Safety specification	43% since the US
	prEN ISO 9994 rev Lighters - Safety specification (ISO/DIS 9994: 2000)	Consumer Product Safety Commission required ciga- rette lighters to be child resistant in 1994.
Flammability of furniture and other products	Attempt to introduce European regulations for the flammability of furniture thus far have failed.	Long standing UK regulation has existed on
	The issue continues to be studied by the European Commission and the European standards bodies.	furniture flammability
	EN 1021-1:1993 Furniture - assessment of the ignitability of upholstered furniture - Part 1:Ignition source: Smouldering cigarette	
	EN 1021-2:1993 Furniture - assessment of the ignitability of upholstered furniture - Part 2:Ignition source: match flame equivalent	
	EN 597-1:1994 Furniture - Assessment of the ignitability of mattresses and upholstered bed bases - Part 1: Ignition source: Smouldering cigarette	
	EN 597-2:1994 Assessment of the ignitability of mattresses and upholstered bed bases - Part 2: Ignition source: Match flame equivalent	
	EN 71-2:1993 Safety of toys - Part 2: Flammability	
Flame resistant clothing	Commission Mandate M/304 asks CEN to examine flammability of nightwear	The Netherlands has legislation on flame resistant clothing UK regulations the Nightwear (Safety) Regulations 1985 mandate the use of BS

		5722:1984 Specification for flammability performance of fabrics and fabric assemblies used in sleepwear and dressing gowns BS 5722:1991 Specification for flammability performance of fabrics and fabric combinations used in nightwear garments The Swedish Consumer Agency has guidelines for very thin fabrics with requirements for flammability performance. The
		guidelines are not relat- ed to specific clothing but to the material itself
Smoke alarms	No European regulation requirements for the use of smoke alarms currently exists. Voluntary standards govern the construction of products. European Product standard EN 54-2:1997 Fire detection and fire alarm systems - Part 2: Control and indicating equipment	Some local and national building codes require detectors to be fitted in new properties and in rental and tourist properties Sweden Smoke alarms: There is a regulation on smoke alarm in new dwellings. It is recommended to place the alarm near the bedroom and there should be at least one on each storey
Temperature regulators on water heaters to pre- vent tap water scalds		Building code requirements in Canada In the same regulations there are also requirements on hot water temperature. The water must

		not be warmer than 65 degrees Centigrade where the water runs out of the tap. That is stipulated for households. In a shower when you cannot regulate the temperature yourself it must not be more than 38 degrees Centigrade
Surface temperatures	EN 563:1994 Safety of machinery - Temperatures of touchable surfaces - Ergonomics data to establish temperature limit values for hot surfaces (to be replaced in due course by draft ISO13732) EN 778:1998 Domestic gas-fired forced convection air heaters for space heating not exceeding a net heat input of 70 kW, without a fan to assist transportation of combustion air and/or combustion products EN 1319:1998 Domestic gas-fired forced convection air heaters for space heating, with fan-assisted burners not exceeding a net heat input of 70 kW EN 30-1-1:1998 Domestic cooking appliances burning gas fuel - Part 1-1: Safety - General EN50088:1996 Safety of Electric Toys EN 60335-2-9:1990 Safety of household and similar electrical appliances - Part 2: Particular requirements for toasters, grills, roasters and similar appliances* EN13202 "Ergonomics of the thermal environment - Temperatures of touchable hot surfaces - Guidance for establishing surface temperature limit values in production standards with the use of EN 563"	Netherlands: A national campaign together with local activities to reduce the temperature of the hot water tap, resulted in a significant lower temperature in many households Sweden Surface temperatures: Surfaces with temperatures over 90 degrees Centigrade have to be protected so they will not be touched unwillingly. In bathroom, showers and similar rooms as well as day care centres and similar centres the temperature may not exceed 60 degrees Centigrade on easily accessible surfaces of heating installations

Fireworks	There are no European regulations governing the sale of fireworks.	The Netherlands has leg- islation on fireworks. It is
	CEN TC212 Fireworks - Standardisation of ready-for-use pyrotechnic articles for entertainment purposes, particularly from the point of view of their safe use. Work items covering classification and terminology, labelling, requirements and testing.	forbidden to sell fire- works to children less than 16 years of age
		Since last New Year bangers (fireworks without illumination, just a banging noise) is forbidden in Sweden. Only people above 18 years are allowed to buy fireworks. (UK has similar rules as well)

Issue	Current situation in Europe	Examples of best practice not at the European level
Child resistant packaging	There is no over-arching regulation but a number of voluntary standards dealing with specific forms of packaging EN 28317:1992 Child-restraint packaging - Requirements and testing procedure for	The Netherlands has legis- lation on child resistant packaging for household chemicals
	reclosable packages	Since the Dutch govern- ment made child-resistant
	EN 862:2001 Packaging - Child resistant packaging - Requirements and testing procedures for non-recloseable package for non-pharmaceutical products	packages obligatory for certain household chemi- cals (1986) and human
	EN 28317:1992:ac1993 Child resistant packaging - Requirements and testing procedure for recloseable packages	medicines (1990), the number of hospitalisations and treatments at a hospi-
	Draft European standard on child resistant non-recloseable packaging for medicinal products prEN 14375	tal Accident and Emergency department following an accidental intoxication of children has decreased about 33%. Similar results have been achieved in the UK
Labelling of dangerous products	Council Directive 76/769/EEC of 27 July 1976 on the approximation of the laws, regulations and administrative provisions of the Member States relating to restrictions on the marketing and use of certain dangerous substances and preparations (OJ L 262 27.09.1976 p.201) as amended EN ISO 11683:1997 Packaging - Tactile warnings of danger - Requirements (ISO 11683:1997) EN 272:1989 Packaging - Tactile danger warnings - Requirements	
Phalates, chemicals in toys and other child care products	The EU first banned the sale of toys that contain phthalates in 1999 under its emergency power to issue a temporary ban. The ban has subsequently been extended 12 times. The current extension runs out at the end of February 2003 when a new decision will have to be considered by the Commission.	
	EN 12868:1999 Child use and care articles - Methods for determining the release of Nitrosamines and N-Nitrosatable substances from elastomer or rubber teats or soothers	
	EN 71-3:1994 Safety of toys - Part 3: Migration of certain elements	

	EN 71-5:1994 Safety of toys - Part 5: Chemical toys (sets) other than experimental sets	
	EN 71-3:1994/A1:2000 Safety of toys – Part3: Migration of certain elements	
	EN 1400-1:2002 Child use and care articles - Soothers for babies and young children - Part 1: General safety requirements and product information EN 1400-2:2002 Child use and care articles - Soothers for babies and young children - Part 2: Mechanical requirements and tests EN 1400-3:2002 Child use and care articles - Soothers for babies and young children - Part 3: Chemical requirements and tests	
	Draft European standards for Drinking equipment prEN14350 prEN14372 Cutlery and feeding utensils	
	EN 71-4: 1990 Experimental Sets EN 71-5: 1993 Chemical Toys other than experimental sets EN 71-7:2002 Finger Paints – Requirements and test methods	
	prEN71-9, 10 and 11 Organic Chemical Compounds	
Safe storage	EN 14059: 2002 Oil lamps Toy chests (amendment to EN 71-1) EN 1727: 1998 - Domestic furniture - Storage furniture - Safety requirements and test metho	The National Board of Housing, Building and Planning issue the rules in Sweden – Building code requirements. There are requirements about the locking devices on ordinary cupboards in the kitchen. There is a test method used in Sweden to decide if the locking devise is good enough to keep children out
Nickel allergy	European Directive 94/27/EEC sets out limits for the total permissible content of nickel in products and for the permissible levels of release over time of nickel. A voluntary standard provides test methods to support these regulatory requirements. EN 12472:1998 Method for the simulation of wear and corrosion for the detection of nickel release from coated items	
		<u> </u>

Issue	Current situation in Europe	Examples of best practice not at the European level
Inedible in food	Dangerous Imitations Directive 87/357/EEC make it an offence to supply a product which has a form, odour, colour, appearance, packaging, labelling, volume or size which is likely to cause people and in particular children to confuse it with food and put it into their mouths and suck or swallow it, if it may cause death or personal injury. Commission and ANEC discussing possible mandate requesting European standard to deal with inedibles (toys) sold with food. European Parliament study ongoing to see if measures (legislation or standards) need to be	Some national authorities going further and proposing a more far-reaching ban of products with small parts aimed at children being provided with foodstuffs
	The main concerns surround toys that are supplied with separately wrapped food stuffs which circumvents the ban outlined above and whether the 36 month age for warning labels with respect to choking is still relevant of whether this age group should not be widened.	Draft legislation in Portugal and Greece
Small parts size enforcement for child products and toys/warning labels	Council Directive 88/378/EEC of 3 May 1988 on the approximation of the laws of the Member States concerning the safety of toys (OJ L 187 16.07.1988 p.1) as amended provides for a warning for toys not intended for children less than 36 months old and stipulates that toys and their components intended for children less than 36 months must be of such dimensions as to prevent their being swallowed and/or inhaled The voluntary standards lays down test methods for small parts EN 71-1:1998 Safety of toys - Part 1: mechanical and physical properties	
	EN 71-1A8: Additional requirements concerning small balls and certain toys with spherical ends. Voting on an ammendment was positive and final text is being prepared.	

Issue	Current situation in Europe	Examples of best practice not at the European level
Blind cords on windows		There is a regulation in the USA to avoid closed loops which could result in stran gulation
Requirements on measurements in standards for products	No specific legislation exists for standard measurements in products, but some co-ordination between standard bodies to try harmonising requirements to provide some level of consisting has occurred.	
	EN 747-1:1993 Furniture, bunk beds for domestic use - Part 1: Safety requirements	
	EN 747-2:1993 Furniture, bunk beds for domestic use - Part 2: Test methods	
	EN 1130- 1: 1996 - Furniture - Cribs and cradles for domestic use - Part 1: Safety requirements	
	EN 716-1: 1995 - Furniture - Children's cots and folding cots for domestic use - Part 1: Safety requirements	
	EN 716- 2: 1995 - Furniture - Children's cots and folding cots for domestic use - Part 2: Test methods	
	prEN 716- 3 - Furniture - Children's cots and folding cots for domestic use - Part 3: Additional safety requirements and test methods for folding cots	
	EN 1130-2: 1996 - Furniture - Cribs and cradles for domestic use - Part 2: Test methods	
	EN 12227- 1: 1999 - Playpens for domestic use - Part 1: Safety requirements	
	EN 12227- 2: 1999 - Playpens for domestic use - Part 2: Test methods	
	EN 12586: 1999 - Child care articles - Soother holder - Safety requirements and test methods	
	EN 12221- 1: 1999 - Changing units for domestic use - Part 1: Safety requirements	

	EN 12221- 2: 1999 - Changing units for domestic use - Part 2: Test methods	
	EN 1176-1:1998 Playground equipment - Part 1: General safety requirements and test methods	
	EN ISO 9237:1995 Textiles determination of the permeability of fabrics to air	-
Removal of drawstrings on children's clothing	Draft standard under development in CEN following Commission Mandate m/309 Safety of consumers: drawstrings or cords on children's clothing	UK The Children's Clothing (Hood Cords) Regulations 1976 Prohibit the sale or possession for sale of a child's outer garment with a hood, where a hood cord is fitted
Pen caps		There is a requirement to put holes in pen caps to avoid suffocation in UK and international standards BS 7272-2: 2000 "Writing and marking instruments end closures"
		ISO 11540:1993 Caps for writing and marking instruments intended for use by children up to 14 years of age – Safety requirements to put holes in the cap to allow a flow of air

Summary and Recommendations

Regulation is a powerful tool to reduce the toll of child accidents. We have seen that regulation can be used effectively to bring about product modifications and changes in behaviour. The evolution of the European Union has greatly influenced the regulatory environment. National governments retain the ultimate responsibility for the protection of their citizens. However more and more they are required to defer in the first instance to the European level for regulations that could influence trade such as those containing product specifications. National authorities have accordingly to work in co-operation at the European level.

We have also seen that in implementing this strategy European standards have taken on an important role. The quality of these standards has to be guaranteed however and safety professionals and consumer advocates have a role to play outside the more traditional regulatory process. If the reference to a new standard is published in the Official Journal of the European Communities, then the use of the standard gives a formal presumption of conformity with the appropriate European legislation.

The enforcement of regulations relies on market surveillance by the national authorities. Co-operation thus far has been co-ordinated through the European Commission and by the enforcement officials themselves in Prosafe, the Product Safety Enforcement Forum of Europe.

In closing we can remark that with the changes in Europe regulation has become no less relevant in our efforts to reduce child accidents. However the emphasis has shifted to the European level and to European harmonised standardisation, as well as the increasing role of international standardisation shoud be recognised. Safety professionals have to adapt to these new challenges to ensure that their aims and objectives are met through the regulatory process.

Priorities for action

The previous tables identified a number of gaps in the regulatory framework for child safety. In many cases best practice exists at the national level, but it has not been widely adopted or implemented at the European level. We can group these issues into three categories.

The first deals with issues that could and should be dealt with at the European level.

- Requirements for improved frontal impact tests and side impact tests to reduce child injuries in car crashes.
- Requirements that allow children to travel rearward facing in cars up till the age of 4 years.
- Requirements for the flammability of fabrics to reduce the chance of ignition and retard the spread of fire.
- Regulations requiring the use of child resistant devices and ventilation fittings for windows and balcony doors to prevent falls.
- Requirement for blind cords on windows to prevent strangulation.
- Standard for pen caps to prevent choking and suffocation.
- Inedibles in food where action has been demanded to prevent the sale of products that risk death by choking since 1997 and draft laws in Greece and Portugal have been blocked by the European Commission.
- Safe storage of dangerous substances.

The second deals with issues where there are initiatives at the European level, but progress needs to completed.

- Universal child restraints for children in cars work in ISO and elsewhere has dragged on for over ten years when the standard was supposed to have been finalised in 1996.
- Alcohol limits the need for a common European limit which could save 1000 lives a year (source ETSC European Transport Safety Council) was first acknowledged by the European Commission in 1988.

- Pedestrian protection a directive was first proposed over eight years ago following the elaboration of test methods by the EEVC (European Enhanced Vehicle Safety Committee). This measure could save 2000 lives a year (source ETSC). (Note: In February, 2003 the Commission adopted a draft directive, but it does not include the four EEVC tests.)
- Regulations or standards dealing with drawstrings in children's clothing to prevent strangulation, where this has been in effect in the UK for more than 25 years.
- Stair-fall hazard associated with baby walkers where the US standard was published in 1997 contributing to a drop in the injury rate injury per 1,000 live births of 65% from 1995 to 2000.
- Bath seats standard that has been under discussion for over eight years.
- Child resistant packaging of poisons and medicines where the Netherlands and UK have achieved more than 30% reduction of poisoning incidents have occurred over the past 10 years.
- Surface temperatures where consumer representatives have been fighting for almost twenty years for lower surface temperatures.
- Brakes on bikes where the issue has again been discussed for almost ten years.

Third there are a number of issues where the jurisdiction to act perhaps falls more at the national level, so these recommendations are aimed primarily at the national authorities. However, European initiatives could in many cases help promote the spread of best practice.

- Regulations requiring pool fencing to prevent child drowning.
- Prohibition of children riding on agricultural equipment to remove them from risk.
- Amendments to building regulations to require fitment of smoke alarms to help evacuation of burning buildings and window bars and stair gates to prevent falls.

 National regulations requiring the fitment of water temperature regulators and European standards for these products to prevent scalding.

Finally there is a need to establish and fund an Independent European Regulatory Agency:

This agency's mission is to protect the public "against unreasonable risks of injuries associated with consumer products."

In doing so they will save lives and keep families safe by reducing the risk of injuries and deaths associated with consumer products by:

- · developing voluntary standards with industry.
- issuing and enforcing mandatory standards or banning consumer products if no feasible standard would adequately protect the public.
- obtaining the recall of products or arranging for their repair.
- conducting research on potential product hazards.
- informing and educating European consumers through the media, national governments, private organizations, and by responding to consumer inquiries.
- developing a European electronic injury surveillance system.

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Towner E. and Ward H. Prevention of Injuries to Children and Young People: The Way Ahead for the UK *Injury Prevention* 1998 4(Suppl): p17-p25

Injury Prevention, British Medical Association, Board of Science and Education 2001

UNICEF. A league table of child deaths by injury in rich nations. *Innocenti Report Card* No. 2, UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, Florence, 2001

European Regulations

2001/95/EC Directive on General Product Safety (Revised GPSD)

List of most relevant New Approach Directives

90/396/EEC Appliances burning gaseous fuels 89/106/EEC Construction products 89/336/EEC Electromagnetic compatibility 95/16/EC Lifts Low voltage equipment 89/686/EEC Personal protective equipment

94/25/EC Recreational craft 98/37/EC Safety of machinery 88/378/EEC Safety of toys

General Guidance documents for the elaboration of standards

ISO/IEC Guide 51:1999 Safety aspects – Guidelines for their inclusion in standards (adopted as CEN/CENELEC Memorandum No.9)

ISO/IEC Guide 50:2002 Safety Aspects

CEN Report CR 13387: 1999 Child use and care articles - general and common safety guidelines.

CEN/BTWG/117 N11 - Draft for Comment Child Safety - Guidelines for its inclusion in Standards, June 2002

ISO/IEC Guide 14: 1977 Purchase information for consumers of goods and services.

ISO/IEC Guide 37: 1995 Instructions for products of consumer interest.

European standard EN 563:1994 Safety of machinery - Temperatures of touchable surfaces - Ergonomics data to establish temperature limit values for hot surfaces (to be replaced in due course by draft ISO13732)

Sources of further information

There is of course a limit on the information that can be presented in what is intended to be an introduction to a very complex subject.

More precise information over the regulatory and standardisation processes and the content of regulations and standards is available from a variety of sources.

The exact texts of European regulations are available free on the Internet at EUR-LEX the portal to European Law. More information over the regulatory process is also available at the Europa web site the home of the European Union. European standards are not available free on the Internet.

The catalogue of European standards and other information concerning the process is however available. The best starting point is the New Approach web site that provides a gateway for regulations and standards related information.

This includes the texts of new approach directives and lists of standards. There is also access on these pages to a "Guide to the Implementation of Directives Based on New Approach and Global Approach" produced by the European Commission.

ANEC has a child safety working group and details of its activities are available from ANEC or its web site. ANEC has also published training manuals on the European standardisation process for consumer representatives.

ANEC also elaborated an information leaflet on the organisation, providing explanations and concrete examples of how standards affect our daily life and why consumer participation in the standardisation process is important. This leaflet is available in several languages.

The reader is of course also invited to visit the web pages of the European Child Safety Alliance located at the Internet site of ECOSA.

List of internet resources

ANEC

http://www.anec.org

CEN

http://www.cenorm.be

CENELEC

http://www.cenelec.org

ECOSA and European Child Safety Alliance

http://www.ecosa.org

Europa - home of the European Union

http://europa.int

European Commission Product Safety Web-pages

http://europa.eu.int/comm/consumers/policy/developments/prod_safe/index_en.html

EUR-LEX – site of European regulation and online Official Journal

http://europa.eu.int/eurlex/en/index.html

IEC

http://www.iec.ch

ISO

http://www.iso.ch

New Approach Web-site

http://www.newapproach.org/

Prosafe

http://www.prosafe.org

Rospa

http://www.rospa.com

UNICEF

http://www.unicef-icdc.org

List of abbreviations used in this guide

ANEC: European Association for the Coordination

of Consumer Representation in

Standardisation

EN:

European Standard

EU:

European Union

CE:

European Conformity marking required under New Approach directives but not under General product Safety Directive. Comprises a small mark depicting "CE". Is usually applied on consumer products without any mandatory third party testing.

CEN:

European Committee for Standardisation

CENELEC:

European committee for Electro-technical

Standardisation

CR:

Cen Technical Report

DG-ENT:

General Directorate of

the European Commission dealing with

Enterprise

DG-SANCO: General Directorate of

the European Commission dealing with

Health and Consumer Protection

DG-TREN:

General Directorate of

the European Commission dealing with

Energy and Transport

ECOSA:

European Consumer Safety Association

EEA:

European Economic Area

EFTA:

European Free Trade Agreement

GPSD:

European Union General Product Safety

Directive

IEC:

International Electro-Technical Commission

ISO:

International Organisation for

Standardisation

NGO:

Non-Governmental Organisation

OJ:

Official Journal of the European

Communities

Prosafe:

Product Safety Enforcement Forum of

Europe

prEN:

Draft European Standard

Glossary

Accreditation: procedure by which an authoritative body gives formal recognition that a body or person is competent to carry out specific tasks.

Certification: procedure by which a third party gives written assurance that a product, process or service conforms to specified requirements.

Conformity assessment: Any activity concerned with determining directly or indirectly that relevant requirements are fulfilled.

Consensus: General agreement, characterised by the absence of sustained opposition to substantial issues by any important part of the concerned interests and by a process that involves seeking to take into account the views of all parties concerned and to reconcile any conflicting arguments.

Essential Requirements: Requirements that represent the core of European Union law around which an effective policy has been developed in matters of safety, health and other measures for those areas covered by the "new approach directives".

European Directive: A legislative instrument within the European Union that is binding for Member States with regards to the objectives to be achieved. It is however left to the national authorities to choose the form and methods to be used within their own legal systems to attain the objectives that were agreed on at the European Union level.

EEA: European Economic Area comprises the 15 EU Member Ştates and Norway, Liechtenstein and Iceland who are members of EFTA.

EFTA: European Free Trade Agreement members are Norway, Iceland, Switzerland and Liechtenstein.

Global Approach: Policy adopted by European Union with respect to conformity assessment and certification.

Harmonized standard: European standard whose reference has been published in the Official Journal of the European Communities. Such a standard gives presumption of conformity under so-called New Approach legislation and shortly will also under the General Product Safety Directive.

Hazard: The intrinsic property of the agent, that makes it capable of causing adverse effects to occur in humans or the environment, under specific conditions of exposure.

(Standardisation) Mandate: request from the European public authorities to the European standardisation bodies to draft or amend European standard(s) to tackle issues specified in the mandate. The European standards bodies are free to accept or reject the mandate. However the implication is that in rejecting the mandate the Commission would regulate the issue directly by itself.

New Approach: policy adopted by European Union to facilitate the harmonisation of existing national regulations whilst striving for a high level of consumer protection.

New Approach directive: Directives that have been put into force since May 1985 by the Council of the European Communities which define legislative harmonisation in those sectors where barriers to trade are created by justified divergent national regulations concerning the health and safety of citizens and consumer and environmental protection, will be confined to laying down the 'essential requirements', conformity with which will entitle a product to free movement within the Community.

Precautionary Approach: An approach to risk management decision-making that is applied in circumstances of scientific uncertainty, reflecting the need to take action in the face of a potentially serious risk without awaiting the results of scientific research. Cost-effective action must be taken when there are threats of serious or irreversible damage to human health, even if some cause and effect relationships are not fully established scientifically.

Presumption of conformity: assumption made failing proof to the contrary, based on known facts, of the fulfilment by a product, process or service of specified requirements.

Safeguard Clause: clause contained in European regulation whereby national authorities have the right to challenge whether a particular European standard should give a legal presumption of conformity with the appropriate European regulations.

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Copy edit was provided by Justin Cooper of the Consumer Safety Institute of the Netherlands.

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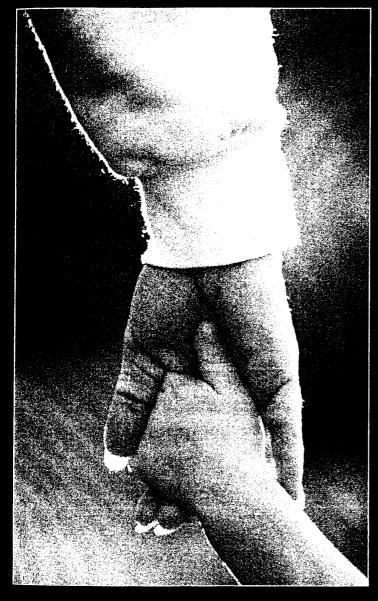
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(status as of March, 2003)



Creating a safer Europe for Children



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Johnson Johnson

and support of the European Commission





附件四





Parents' Perceptions of Child Safety



A 14 Country Study



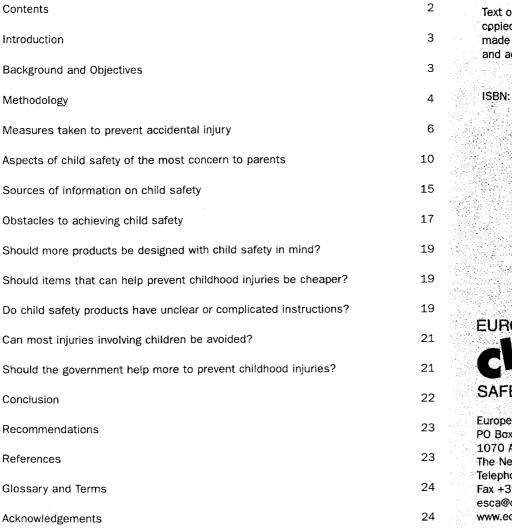
KEY FINDINGS

- 95 % of European parents report that they personally take measures to avoid accidental injury to their children.
- The top concern of parents with regard to safety of their children: their children being knocked down by a car. This is in agreement with accident statistics which show traffic accidents account for more deaths among children than any other single type of accident.
- The most common response when asked why some parents may find it difficult to protect their children from accidental injury: not being able to watch their children all the time. Lack of awareness or knowledge about the causes of accidents was the second most frequently given response to preventing accidental injury.

- Parents declared a strong demand that products be designed with child safety in mind, and that items that can help prevent childhood injuries should be cheaper so that all can afford them.
- Family and television were found to be the primary sources of information about preventing accidents.
 The Internet as a source was reported by only 3% of parents.
- Three-quarters of parents agreed that most child injuries can be avoided.
- Two-thirds of parents would like to see more help from the government to prevent childhood injuries.



CONTENTS





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Introduction

Injury is the leading cause of death for children in Europe. For children 1 to 14 years of age an injury death occurs at twice the rate of a death from cancer, or 8 times that of a respiratoryrelated death.1 Every week in the European Union (EU) another 100 children will die due to an injury. But death due to injury reflects only part of the injury burden. It is estimated that everyday in the EU 14 children die of an injury, 2,240 are admitted to a hospital and another 28,000 receive treatment in an emergency and accident department.1 Calculations to determine total injury costs in the EU have not been completed, but it has been estimated that the overall socio-economic burden of all injuries in Europe is approximately 400 billion Euro annually - more than 4 times the entire EU budget.2

With a health issue of this magnitude, action for child safety must be taken. As parents are the primary caregivers of children, and those responsible for the health and well-being of children in society, we need to learn more about parents' perception of child safety. This report presents the findings of a fourteen-country study conducted by MORI's Social Research Institute on behalf of the European Child Safety Alliance of the European Consumer Safety Association.

The research comprised of a quantitative survey of parents of children aged five or under across Europe in order to better target prevention efforts aimed at educating parents.

Background and Objectives

In 2001 The European Child Safety Alliance commissioned Market Opinion Research International (MORI) to undertake a study looking at child safety, specifically investigating parents' awareness, attitudes, knowledge and behaviour towards the prevention of unintentional injury of children.

This research is part of a wider strategy of the European Child Safety Alliance in order to reach the following key objectives:

- to raise awareness of the issue of child safety among European decision makers and European citizens;
- to transfer knowledge and experience of good practices in child safety promotion throughout Europe;
- to promote the wider application of proven safety technologies in coalition with European business and service providers.

Country-specific Interviews

Methodology

Interviewing took place in fourteen EU Member States: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, (Republic of) Ireland, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the UK (Great Britain only).

The research consisted of a quantitative survey of parents of children aged five or under in fourteen countries.

The total sample size of all countries was 2,088. In twelve of the fourteen countries, the research was carried out via Omnibus surveys, where persons were asked about a range of topics. In Austria an 'ad hoc' study was conducted, in which only the issue of child safety was addressed, and in Denmark the survey was conducted among an existing panel of parents (considered to be representative of parents in Denmark).

Country		No. O ervie		Methodology
Austria	IMAS	106	4 – 13 July 2001	Face-to-face ad hoc
Belgium	Gates Marketing Research	114	11 - 19 July 2001	Face-to-face Omnibus
Denmark	Socioresearch	103	26 – 28 June 2001	Telephone survey (using a panel of parents)
Finland	MDC Marketing Research Ltd	148	25 – 29 June 2001	Telephone Omnibus
France	L'Institut Français de Demoscopie	105	28 June – 3 July 2001	Face-to-face Omnibus
Germany	INRA Deutschland	217	5 – 13 July 2001	Face-to-face household shoppers' Omnibus
Great Britain	MORI	320	5 – 9 July 2001	Face-to-face Omnibus
Greece	Market Analysis	126	5 – 24 July 2001	Telephone Omnibus
Ireland	Behaviour and Attitudes	191	10 – 21 July 2001	Face-to-face Omnibus
Italy	DOXA	130	2 – 15 July 2001	Face-to-face Omnibus
Netherlands	ITC Netherlands	188	9 - 17 July 2001	Telephone Omnibus
Portugal	Euroteste	125	13 - 24 July 2001	Face-to-face Omnibus
Spain	DATA	107	2 – 15 July 2001	Face-to-face Omnibus
Sweden	IMRI	108	26 June - 11 July 2001	Telephone Omnibus

The research was carried out face-to-face in nine of the fourteen countries, but interviewing was carried out over the telephone in those countries where no face-to-face Omnibus was available during the fieldwork period. This difference in methodology is not significant, due to the fact that the interview did not use any long showcards or read out lists, many of the questions were unprompted, and telephone penetration is high across Europe.

The sample sizes in each country vary because of the different country populations from which they were drawn, and the difference in the proportion of people in each country who are parents of children aged five or under.

The data have been weighted within countries to the population profile, and across countries to reflect both the population size of each country, and the proportion of adults living in households with children aged five or under. Because of the relatively low sample sizes (around 100 per country), it was not possible to comment on sub-group differences within a country, but where appropriate, comments are made about sub-group differences across all fourteen countries, relative to education, income, and gender differences.

The questions were formed by reviewing similar surveys of parental attitudes and behaviours in Australia, Canada, The Netherlands, Greece, United Kingdom and the United States.

A limited number of questions were drafted and reviewed by experts in each of the 14 participating countries.



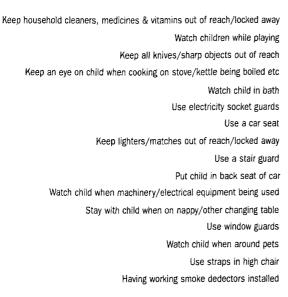
Measures taken to prevent accidental injury

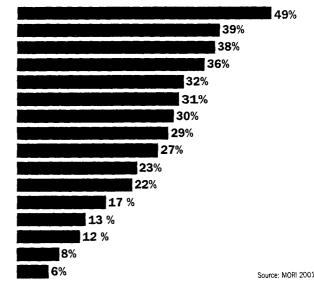
Overall, 95% of all parents of young children across the fourteen countries spontaneously mention at least one thing they do to ensure their children's safety. Half say they keep household cleaners, medicines and vitamins out of reach or locked away (49%). This is the most frequently cited measure when parents are asked what they personally do to prevent accidental injury to their child or children aged 5 or under, even though poisons are relatively low on the list of actual causes of child injury. However, the high mention of this safety

measure could be because medicines and household cleaners are items which parents deal with day-to-day, or it could reflect an awareness that some of the most common household medicines are among the most toxic (for example, Aspirin and Paracetamol). Also, a reason may be the effect of a successful poison prevention campaign.

The wide range of actions taken by parents across Europe in order to avoid accidental injury to their children demonstrates a broad awareness of safety issues. However, much of the emphasis by parents is on supervising or watching their children, even though many injuries to children happen in the parents' presence. This calls for a need for parents to be made

Question: What, if anything, do you personally do to prevent accidental injury to your child/children aged 5 or under?





6

EUROPEAN CHILD SAFETY ALLIANCE

even more aware of the ever present dangers to their children, and to communicate to their children what these dangers are. It is interesting to consider how parents' attitudes to child safety vary according to demographic factors. UNICEF has found that the risk of child injury death rises steeply with poverty, and the likelihood of a child being injured or killed is associated with single parenthood, low maternal education, low maternal age at birth and poor housing.³

However, looking at sub-groups across the fourteen EU Member States parents with a higher educational level were not significantly more likely overall than those with a lower educational level to mention any of the safety measures. In fact, the less highly educated were more likely than those with higher educational qualifications to say they keep household cleaners, medicines and vitamins out of reach (47% vs. 40%), keep knives and sharp objects out of reach (39% vs. 29%).

The findings also showed that all of the measures more likely to be taken by the high income parents involve purchasing some specific product (e.g. stair and window guards, or a car seat or car), while parents on a lower income who are less able to afford these products were more likely to say they keep an eye on their children when asked how they help prevent accidental injury.

There are also differences in response by gender of parent. For instance, men were more likely than women to say they use a stair guard (32% vs. 24%) and window guards (16% vs. 10%), while women were more likely than men to mention keeping household cleaners and medicines out of reach (51% vs. 46%), or keeping an eye on the child when cooking or boiling water. Perhaps

this reflects the division of labour within households. Of course, it could be simply a reflection of the differenthings that come to mind for women and men when presented with this spontaneous question, or it could reflect the fact that some education about child safety it argeted specifically at mothers rather than all parents (particularly for younger children).

We can also look more specifically at the responses of parents in different member states of the EU. The table below shows the top three mentions in each country. While there is some degree of similarity between countries (for instance keeping household cleaners and medicines out of reach ranks among the top three child safety measures in 11 out of the 14), there are also some key differences.

Question: What, if anything, do you personally do to prevent accidental injury to your child/children aged 5 or under?

TOP THREE MENTIONS IN EACH COUNTRY

14 country average	Keep household cleaners/medicines out of reach (49%)	Watch children while playing (39%)	Keep sharp objects out of reach (38%)
Austria	Use a car seat (73%)	Keep household cleaners/medicines out of reach(67%)	Use electricity socket guards (64%)
Belgium	Watch children while playing (56%)	Watch child in the bath (51%)	Keep an eye on them while cooking (50%)
Denmark	Keep an eye on them while cooking (45%)	Use a car seat (38%)	Watch them when electrical equipment being used (37%)
Finland	Watch children while playing (52%)	Keep sharp objects out of reach (39%)	Keep an eye on them while cooking (26%)
France	Watch them/keep an eye on them (52%)	Keep household cleaners/medicines out of reach(21%)	Use electricity socket guards (13%)
Germany	Keep household cleaners/medicines out of reach (81%)	Use electricity socket guards (71%)	Use a car seat (68%)
Great Britain	Keep household cleaners/medicines out of reach (43%)	Keep an eye on them while cooking (35%)	Watch children while playing (33%)
Greece	Watch children while playing (40%)	Keep sharp objects out of reach (26%)	Watch them in bath
Ireland	Keep household cleaners/medicines out of reach (57%)	Keep an eye on them while cooking (35%)	Use a car seat (51%)
Italy	Watch children while playing (62%)	Keep sharp objects out of reach (50%)	Keep household cleaners/medicines out of reach (46%)
Netherlands	Keep household cleaners/medicines out of reach (46%)	Use a stair guard (31%)	Use electricity socket guards (27%)
Portugal	Keep household cleaners/medicines out of reach (56%)	Keep an eye on them while cooking (43%)	Keep sharp objects out of reach (40%)
Spain	Watch children while playing (42%)	Keep household cleaners/medicines of reach (40%)	Use electricity socket out of reach out guards (38%)
Sweden	Keep household cleaners/medicines out of reach (40%)	Watch children while playing (38%)	Keep sharp objects out of reach (37%)

Source: MORI 2001

The UNICEF Child Injury Death League Table - Excerpt

Awareness of safety measures in different countries does not necessarily correspond with behavioural patterns. Sweden, the UK, Italy and the Netherlands occupy the top four places in UNICEF's 'league table' of child injury deaths published in 2001.³ Portugal is at the bottom of the league, with a rate of child injury deaths over twice the level of the leading countries. Yet Portuguese parents were as aware as those elsewhere in Europe of many of the dangers to their children – for example, more than half said they keep medicines and household cleaners out of reach. But not all attitudinal statements are necessarily translated into behaviour change.

Note that the Injury Death League Table represents merely a snapshot of the relative positions of different countries at one period in time, and it cannot be taken as the whole story. For example, it does not tell us about change or improvement in injury prevention over time (and neither does it give an indication of the environment in which each country is operating with regard to the safety of playgrounds, traffic congestion, and so on). However, we do have separate figures which reveal how countries' relative positions did change in the years from 1984 to 1993, and interestingly, the EU Member States showing the greatest improvement over this period (that is, the greatest decrease in child injury mortality) were the UK (-47%), Germany (-45%), and France (-41%).

Deaths per 100,000 children

Sweden	5.2
UK	6.1
Italy	6.1
Netherlands	6.6
Greece	7.6
Denmark	8.1
Spain	8.1
Finland	8.2
Germany	8.3
Ireland	8.3
France	9.1
Belgium	9.2
Austria	9.3
Portugal	17.8

Source: UNICEF 2001

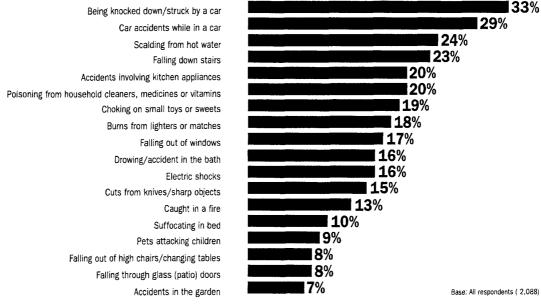
The table shows the annual number of deaths from injuries (unintentional and intentional) among 1 to 14 year old children during 1991-95, expressed per 100,000 children in the age group.

Aspects of child safety of the most concern to parents

The primary concern for parents of young children across Europe was the risk of their child being knocked down by a car, with one in three mentioning this spontaneously. This is closely followed by accidents while in a car, cited by 29% of parents. This concern reflects the reality of child injury – traffic transport accidents deaths account for 28% of all child deaths by unintentional injury in the EU, while drowning accounts

for 15%, fire 8%, falls 8% and poisoning 2%.⁵ Although this is the primary concern for parents, only 30% of European parents said they used a car seat, and 23% placed children in the rear seat of the car.

Question: Thinking about accidents that can happen to children, which if any, health-related risks to your children are you most concerned about?



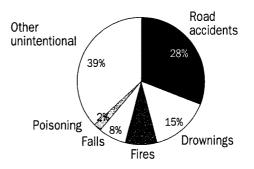
10

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Here is a comparison of parents' perceptions of the most important risks to their children with the reality of the WHO statistics for the leading causes of unintentional injury death among children.

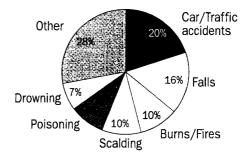
Most notably, although car and traffic accidents were the most commonly cited risk to children, accounting for almost three in ten (28%) of unintentional child injury deaths, they made up only 20% of parents' responses. The comparison also suggests that parents should be more aware of the risk of drowning among children, as this is the second most common cause of unintentional child injury death, yet is not among parents' top perceived risks.

Injury Perception versus Reality



REALITY Leading causes of unintentional injury death for children (0-4 years) in the EU

Source: WHO, 2000



PARENTS' PERCEPTIONS

Which health-related risks to your children are you most concerned about?

Base: All responses (4,85€

It appears that parents of children aged 5 or under across Europe were more likely to first think of the immediate risks within their own home, hence they mentioned scalding from hot water, falling down stairs, and accidents with knives and kitchen appliances. It is interesting that drowning (the second most common cause of accidental child injury deaths in the EU)⁵ is ninth on the list of most important concerns for parents, mentioned by 16%. Parents may tend to think of their home as their own particular sphere of responsibility and may assume that safety in public places is taken care of by another authority, but messages also need to be conveyed to parents about preventing accidents to children when outside the home.

The country in which the highest proportion of parents showed concern about road safety is Germany, where 69% say they worry about their children being knocked down by a car, and 60% worry about car accidents while in a car. This is despite Germany performing slightly better than average in terms of the number of child deaths by traffic injury in comparison with other EU countries. However, it may reflect the high profile of road safety campaigns in Germany. Taking a look at legislation in different European countries, we find that Germany is the EU Member State in which road accident prevention legislation is most strongly enforced.³

For parents in Belgium the foremost concern was their children falling down the stairs, which was mentioned by nearly half (47%). This is despite one third of Belgians having previously said that they use a stair guard to prevent accidents in the home.

Worry about children being caught in a fire was highest in Ireland, where more than one in four mention this, around twice as many as in Europe as a whole (27% vs. 13%). We saw earlier that people in Ireland are the most likely to say they have installed smoke detectors in order to prevent injury to their children, and Ireland is also the EU country with the strongest enforcement of legislation regarding smoke detectors.³ However, Ireland is among the top three countries with the highest mortality rate due to fire and flames, alongside the UK and Portugal.⁵

There were also differences according to gender and income of the parents. Those on a higher income were more likely than parents on a low income to mention car accidents while in a car (35% vs. 28%) and accidents in the garden (11% vs. 5%). Perhaps they are more likely than those on a low income to have their own garden and car. However, people on a lower income were more likely than those on a higher income to show concern about scalding from hot water (29% vs. 18%), cuts from knives or sharp objects (22% vs. 14%), and pets attacking their children (14% vs. 8%).

Women were slightly more likely than men to mention a number of concerns, which were are all largely kitchenrelated accidents and may reflect the fact that women are more likely than men to be in the kitchen with their young children. **Question:** Thinking about accidents that happen to children, which, if any, health related RISKS to your child/children are you most concerned about?

TOP THREE MENTIONS IN EACH COUNTRY

14 country average	Being knocked down /struck by cars (33%)	Car accidents while in a car (29%)	Scalding from hot water (24%)
Austria	Being knocked down /struck by cars (55%)	Poisoning from household cleaners, medicines etc. (43%)	Car accidents while in a car (42%)
Belgium	Falling down the stairs (47%)	Car accidents while in a car (37%)	Accidents involving kitchen appliances (37%)
Denmark	Being knocked down /struck by cars (49%)	Scalding from hot water (25%)	Car accidents while in a car; & Falling down the stairs (both 18%)
Finland	Being knocked down /struck by cars (47%)	Car accidents while in a car (32%)	Falling down stairs (20%)
France	Falls (24%)	Burns (21%)	Poisoning from household cleaners, medicines etc. (20%)
Germany	Being knocked down /struck by cars (69%)	Car accidents while in a car (60%)	Accidents involving kitchen appliances (39%)
Great Britain	Being knocked down /struck by cars (30%)	Burns from lighters or matches (20%)	Scalding from hot water (19%)
Greece	Being knocked down /struck by cars (27%)	Falling down stairs (24%)	Falling out of windows (24%)
Ireland	Being knocked down /struck by cars (41%)	Car accidents while in a car (40%)	Choking on small toys or sweets; & Scalding from hot water (36%)
Italy	Scalding from hot water (40%)	Electric shocks (23%)	Falling down stairs (23%)
Netherlands	Being knocked down /struck by cars (25%)	Burns from lighters or matches (18%)	Falling down stairs (16%)
Portugal	Being knocked down /struck by cars (45%)	Scalding from hot water (37%)	Poisoning from household cleaners, medicines, etc. (32%)
Spain	Car accidents while in a car (34%)	Falling out of windows (31%)	Poisoning from household cleaners, medicines, etc. (26%)
Sweden	Being knocked down /struck by cars (46%)	Car accidents while in a car (31%)	Falling down stairs (24%)

Older parents were more likely to be worried about car accidents while in a car (33% of those aged 35 or over, compared with 20% aged up to 24) perhaps because they are also more likely to own a car.

Comparing individual responses in the fourteen countries, we can see that car accidents in a car, or being knocked down by a car, are foremost in the minds of parents in most countries when asked to consider accidents that can happen to children.

In addition to the 'snapshot' provided by the UNICEF Traffic League Table, it is also valuable to look at change over time. Of all the EU Member States, Sweden has the lowest mortality rates due to motor vehicle traffic accidents, and it also experienced the largest proportional decline in rates in the period between 1984 and 1993, with rates falling by over half (-54%).⁴ Other EU countries that witnessed large declines in the child mortality rate due to traffic accidents were the UK (-47%), Ireland (-44%), Finland (-43%), Germany (-41%), France (-41%) and Denmark (-39%).

The UNICEF Child *Traffic* Death League Table - Excerpt

Deaths per 100,000 children

Sweden	2.5
UK	2.9
Italy	3.3
Netherlands	3.4
Germany	3.6
France	3.8
Denmark	4.0
Spain	4.0
Austria	4.0
Ireland	4.1
Finland	4.2
Belgium	4.3
Greece	4.7
Portugal	8.7

Source: UNICEF 2001

The table shows the annual number of deaths among children aged 1 to 14 caused by transport accidents during 1991-95, expressed per 100,000 children in the age group.

Sources of information on child safety

The most frequently cited sources of information on child safety were television and family (both 31%), followed by friends or other parents (29%), magazines (26%) and books (25%). Health services such as family doctors and health visitors did not feature among the most commonly mentioned sources in many countries, which may suggest that they are under-utilised as sources of information on child safety.

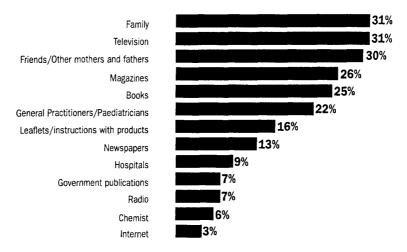
There were, however, considerable differences by country in terms of the most important sources of information for parents about preventing accidents to their children. For example, television was considered the primary source of information by parents of young children in Portugal (51%), Spain (29%) and the Netherlands (24%), and it was among the top five sources of information for all of the fourteen countries.

However, in Germany and France, parents of young children were most likely to mention their own family as a source of information (52% and 48% respectively), with the family also being considered a particularly important source of information in Austria (57%), Belgium (36%) and Ireland (33%).

Friends or other mothers and fathers were the primary source of information about preventing accidents for parents in Austria (65%), Ireland (44%), Belgium (41%) and Sweden (23%), whilst in Great Britain parents of young children were most likely to mention their general practitioner or paediatrician as the source from which they have learned about child safety (33%). The degree to which parents reported relying on medical practitioners for information about child safety varied considerably across Europe. For instance, almost half of parents in Portugal cited this as a source of information, and one in three parents in Finland do so. However, only around one in ten parents in Denmark and France said the general practitioner or paediatrician is a source of information about accident prevention.

There were considerable differences according to income in terms of which sources of information parents of young children use. For instance, parents of a higher income were more likely than those on a lower income to say they use television (34% vs. 26%), and books (32% vs. 20%). Those on a low income were more likely to say they rely on their family (35%, against 23% on a higher income). Similarly, people in the higher social classes were more likely to use books, magazines, newspapers and television, while those in the lower social classes were more likely to say they receive information from their family.

Question: From which, if any, sources have you heard or learned about ways of preventing accidental injuries to your child/children?



Source: MORI 2001

Men were more likely than women to cite the family as a source of information (34% vs. 29%), as well as government publications (10% vs. 4%) and the Internet (6% vs. 2%). However, women were more likely than men to mention books (26% vs. 22%), and their physician or general practitioner (24% vs. 19%).

Younger parents were particularly likely to say they have learnt about ways of preventing accidental injury from members of their family (42% of parents aged up to 24 say this, compared with 30% aged 35 or over). Younger people were particularly unlikely to have read government publications (only 1%), and no parents aged under 25 in this study say they use the Internet. It was surprising to find that the Internet was mentioned by only 3% of parents across Europe. This must be taken into account when determining information channels for injury prevention campaigns.

Obstacles to achieving child safety

The most common response when asked to consider why some parents find it difficult to always protect their children is that it is not possible to watch them all the time (46%). Other reasons frequently given were a lack of awareness or knowledge about the causes of accidents (24%), and that children themselves are contrary and do not listen (20%).

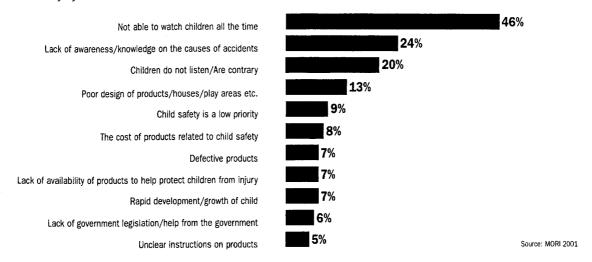
The notion that it is not possible to watch your children all the time was the top mention in 13 of the 14 countries in the study. However, in Greece, parents were most likely to explain that child safety is a low priority (36% say this) when asked why it may be difficult for parents to always protect their children from accidental injury. This is perhaps surprising given the relatively high position of Greece in UNICEF's league table of child injury deaths. The low priority given to child safety ranks among the top three explanations in Belgium and Sweden, and also in France where 21% mentioned 'negligence' as an obstacle to preventing accidental injury.

A lack of awareness or knowledge about the causes of accidents was the second most frequently given response in eight of the fourteen countries, particularly high in Austria, Germany, Denmark, Greece and Ireland, where at least three in ten parents mention it.

The explanation that children are contrary or do not listen was most likely to be given in Austria, Germany, Portugal and Belgium, where it is the response of at least one in four parents of young children. However, fewer than one in ten parents said this in Denmark, France, Greece, the Netherlands and Sweden.

The cost of products related to child safety was particularly likely to be raised by parents in Germany (24%) and Austria (15%), compared with 8% overall.

Question: What would you say are the main reasons that some parents find it difficult to always protect their children from accidental injury?



Similarly, poor design of products, houses or play areas, and defective products were mentioned more by parents in Germany and Austria than in other European countries.

Looking at the profile of parents across the fourteen countries, people on a higher income or in higher social class were more likely to mention the cost of products related to child safety, the poor design of products, unclear instructions on products, lack of help from governments and a lack of awareness or knowledge about the causes of accidents. Those on a lower income were more likely to say that children are contrary or do not listen. There are few significant differences in response by age or gender, but men are slightly more

likely than women to mention the poor design of products or play areas (15% vs. 12%), and the lack of government legislation (8% vs. 4%).

Should more products be designed with child safety in mind?

Respondents were asked to what extent they agree or disagree that more products and surroundings such as play areas should be designed with child safety in mind. In all countries parents agree with this statement overwhelmingly. Overall, two-thirds of people strongly agree and one quarter say they 'tend to agree', giving a total of nine in ten parents in Europe who think that more products and surroundings should be designed with child safety in mind. Only 3% disagree and 5% were neutral.

Groups within the total population who were more likely to agree that more products and surroundings should be designed with child safety in mind include women, parents on a low income, and those with a lower educational level (all 92% agree).

Should items that can help prevent childhood injuries be cheaper?

The majority of parents in all of the fourteen countries agreed that items that can prevent childhood injuries – such as car seats, stair guards or bicycle helmets – should be cheaper so that all can afford them. Almost two-thirds of people strongly agreed (64%), and a further 19% tended to agree. Fewer than one in ten people disagreed that these items should be cheaper. Parents aged up to 24 (91% agree), those on a low income or with lower educational level (89%) and women (86%) were more likely to agree that items such as car seats, stair guards or bicycle helmets should be cheaper.

Do child safety products have unclear or complicated instructions?

More than half of parents of young children across Europe (59%) agreed that many child safety products have unclear or complicated instructions, including three in ten parents who strongly agreed. Around one quarter disagreed (24%), while 14% were neutral.

The countries in which people were most likely to agree that child safety products have unclear instructions are Portugal, Greece, Ireland, Italy and Spain – in each of these, more than three in five people agreed with the

Question: Could you please tell me how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

Most injuries involving children can be avoided

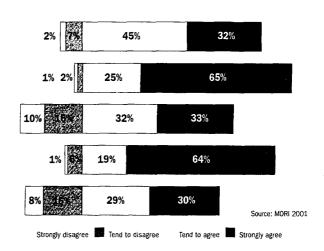
More products and surroundings should be designed with child safety in mind

There should be more help from the government to help prevent childhood injuries

Items that can help prevent childhood injuries should be cheaper so all can afford them

Many child safety products have unclear or complicated instructions

statement. Parents of young children in these countries (excluding Ireland) were also the least likely to cite the leaflets or instructions that come with products as a source of information about preventing accidental injury to their children. This strongly suggests that there is scope for improving the safety instructions of products in these four countries in particular.



Once again, parents across all fourteen countries who had a low income, a lower educational level, or were in a lower social class were particularly likely to express agreement with the statement.

Can most injuries involving children be avoided?

Overall, three-quarters of parents of children aged 0 to 5 agree that most injuries involving children can be avoided (77%, including 32% who strongly agree). Only one in ten disagreed, and a further one in ten parents were neutral.

The European country in which parents were most positive about the scope for avoiding child injury is Portugal, where nine out of ten people agreed that most injuries involving children can be avoided, and only 3% disagreed. Other countries in which parents were particularly positive about the potential for improving child safety were Spain, France, Finland and Italy, where at least four out of five agreed that most child injuries can be avoided.

There were no significant differences in opinion by age or gender of parent. However, parents of young children on a low income were slightly more likely than those on a higher income to agree that most injuries involving children can be avoided (82% vs. 75% agree).

Should the government help more to prevent childhood injuries?

Overall, two-thirds of parents across Europe agreed that there should be more help from their government to prevent childhood injuries, including one-third who agreed strongly. One in six people disagreed (17%), while a further one in six were neutral (16%). Parents in Portugal and Spain were the most likely to agree that there should be more help from the government to help prevent childhood injuries (83% and 81% respectively), while those in Finland, Ireland and Greece were also particularly strongly in agreement. In contrast, fewer than half of parents in the Netherlands and Denmark thought the government should spend more money on preventing childhood injuries (42% and 35% respectively). In both of these countries, more people disagreed with the statement than agreed with it. It is possible that people in certain countries are more likely than elsewhere to consider the tax implications of extra government help for child injury prevention, which makes them less likely to support the idea, or it may be that people simply believe child safety should be the sole responsibility of parties other than the government (for example, parents themselves). Once again, people on a lower income were more likely to agree with the statement, as were those in the lower social classes (both 72%).

Conclusion

Taken altogether, the responses of European parents of young children indicate a broad level of awareness of child safety issues across Europe, but one which varies considerably in different countries. The vast majority (95%) of parents report that they do personally take measures to avoid accidental injury to their children. The findings suggest that awareness of safety measures among European parents of young children is high. However, while there are some things over which parents have control and can take protective measures (for example, keeping medicines out of reach), there are also several reasons why parents may feel helpless to protect their children – a combination of environmental factors, a lack of awareness, or the prohibitive price of safety products.

This helplessness is reflected in parents' top concern with regard to the safety of their young children, that of their children being knocked down by a car. This is in agreement with the reality of statistics for child deaths by injury, where traffic accidents account for more fatalities among children than any other single type of accident. It is noticeable that, other than traffic accidents, parents were most likely to cite concerns about child safety which are related to dangers in the home. However, parents point out the reality of not being able to watch children all the time. This was the most common response when asked why some parents may find it difficult to protect their children at all times from accidental injury. Lack of awareness or knowledge about the causes of accidents was the second most frequently given response to preventing accidental injury. It is clear that child safety is not the responsibility of

parents alone. These findings point to the need for a variety of organisations and governments to be involved in child safety initiatives.

In particular, parents declared a strong demand that more products and surroundings be designed with child safety in mind and that items that can help prevent childhood injuries should be cheaper so that all can afford them. This is an issue for national governments, in terms of ensuring that safety regulations apply to all their consumer products, and considering pricing schemes for safety products that will benefit the less well-off. There is also a role for manufacturers in ensuring that instructions on child safety products are clear. At present, more than half of parents of young children across the EU believe this is often not the case, with those on a low income particularly likely to say that instructions are unclear.

Most importantly, parents demonstrated a positive attitude towards accident prevention, with three-quarters agreeing that most injuries involving children can be avoided. Family and television were found to be the primary sources of information about preventing accidents (31% respectively), followed by friends/other parents (29%), magazines (26%), compared to leaflets/instructions with products (16%), radio (7%), or the Internet (3%). This should be taken into account when determining information channels for injury prevention campaigns. When it comes to government funding for child safety, about two-thirds of parents of young children across Europe would like to see more help from the government to help prevent childhood injuries. This presents a clear message to governments for widespread support of additional investment in child accident prevention.

Recommendations

What is needed?

Now that we have a clearer understanding of the perceptions and attitudes of child safety by parents, we must act on this information in order to improve the safety of children in Europe. Enacting the following recommendations would initiate the process of providing rights to safety for families.

Recommendation # 1

That European and national governments facilitate establishing national and European networks to communicate with parents about the causes of child accidents and what actions they can take to reduce injury risks to children. This should be done by bringing together business, consumers and experts, and by funding initiatives that aim at sustainable structures for ongoing consumer education.

Recommendation # 2

That the European Commission ensures standards and regulations are effectively providing safety for children and families, that they are enforced with strict penalties for non-compliance, and adopted as national laws in Member States. Consideration should be given to pricing schemes, availability and easy access of safety products to benefit families with low-income.

Recommendation #3

That industry and manufactures commit to ensuring safe product design and instructions for use are clear and easily understood. Business should also actively be involved in consumer safety awareness and education programmes.

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Glossary and Terms

- Ad-hoc survey: A survey created with a specific purpose or task and once it has been completed it is no longer utilised.
- Omnibus survey: A survey including or covering many items
- Upper Middle Class: Higher managerial, administrative or professional workers
- Middle Class: Intermediate managerial, administrative or professional
- Lower Middle Class: Supervisor or clerical and junior managerial, administrative or professional
- Skilled Working Class: Skilled manual workers
- Working Class: Semi and unskilled manual workers
- Those at the lowest levels of subsistence: State pensioners, etc, with no other earnings
- Sample tolerance: Possible variation that might be anticipated because a sample, rather than the entire population, is interviewed/Sampling tolerances may vary with the size of the sample and the size of the percentage results

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