

COMMISSION  
OF THE  
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Directorate-General  
for  
Social Affairs  
V/E/1

EUROPEAN SEMINAR  
ON  
VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND TRAINING  
FOR WOMEN WORKERS  
Paris, 24 - 28 November 1975

P R O G R A M M E

## I. AIMS AND GENERAL GUIDELINES

The Directorate-General for Social Affairs of the Commission of the European Communities is holding a European seminar on problems in Vocational Guidance and Training for Women Workers.

This initiative, which is one of the tasks assigned to the Commission in the field of employment and vocational training, proceeds more directly from the efforts made in 1975 by the Communities to encourage equality of treatment between men and women workers and to facilitate the adjustments made necessary by the present employment situation.

. The memorandum and draft directive submitted by the Commission to the Council of the European Communities on 12 February 1975<sup>(1)</sup> contain both a concise analysis of the problems to be solved and an initial group of guidelines applying to access to employment, vocational training, promotion and working conditions. In this respect they form both the joint reference framework and the political vector for action taken by the Member States and the Community to ensure this equality of treatment.

. Moreover, the joint actions proposed by the Commission to help solve the present employment situation are aimed at ensuring that the European Social Fund assists workers in the sectors and regions most gravely affected by the recession.<sup>(2)</sup>

The objectives, guidelines and seminar programme were drawn up with the cooperation of the representatives of the various circles concerned (government administrations and bodies, employers' and workers' organizations, training bodies) at the two preparatory meetings organized by the Directorate-General for Social Affairs on 18 June and 1 October 1975 in Brussels.

The present programme is the result of this preparatory work.

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(1) see doc. COM(75) 36 "Equality of treatment between men and women workers"

(2) see : \* Council Decision of 22.7.75, CJ No. L199/36 of 30.7.75 (young persons under 25 years)

\* Document No. COM (75) 501 "Proposal for a Council Decision on intervention by the ESF to encourage structural adjustment measures connected with the recession"

\* Document No. COM (75) 502 "Proposal for a Council Decision on intervention by the ESF on behalf of persons working in the textile and clothing sectors."

1. Objectives

The seminar is intended to accompany efforts undertaken in the political field, but to cover rather technical and operational matters - discussion of projects and financing - and to concentrate on the problems of vocational guidance and training of woman workers. Its special aims will be:

1. To give the participants and, through them, all interested circles, information on the present situation, how various problems are being tackled, the solutions found in the Member States, and the efforts made in these fields by the Community;
2. To study, on the basis of a critical analysis of the situation and the results achieved so far, the main problems of common interest and any improvements which can be made, and to propose action to be taken for this purpose at various levels (regional, national, Community) and by various bodies (trade unions, employers' associations, local government, government).

The seminar could thus provide a useful contribution to the drawing-up and operation of an action programme for the vocational guidance and training of women workers in accordance with the principle of equal treatment and with present requirements.

2. Subject and aspects to be considered

The main subject of the seminar will be the problems in vocational guidance and training for adults.

For the purpose of this seminar,

- educational and vocational guidance will be taken to mean all the information, advisory and guidance procedures enabling those benefiting therefrom (young and adult) to choose (a training course leading to) a specific vocational activity;
- vocational training will be taken to mean all the apprenticeship procedures enabling those (young and adult) benefiting therefrom to acquire, maintain and develop the knowledge, capacities and qualifications needed to perform a specific vocational activity;

- vocational guidance and training for women workers will be taken to mean the implementing of all these procedures to the benefit of women workers, with a view, either to a first vocational activity, or to a change in this activity, or a resumption of employment following a period of absence.

Thus defined, vocational guidance and training for women can become viable only if considered as a sub-system of the global social, economic and cultural system. In order to achieve this, it should be defined within its context, both at the level of the analysis of situations and problems and at that of the search for solutions: i.e., not only as regards its connection, upstream, with educational guidance, initial training and basic vocational training and, downstream, with employment and the labour market, but also as regards its connection with all the elements and factors (economic, social, cultural, political, etc.) which define a type of society and affect its development.

With this in mind, the field of investigation of the seminar will cover the following aspects:

- \* educational and vocational guidance;
- \* initial training and basic vocational training;
- \* continuous vocational training (refresher courses and advanced training, recycling, conversion, promotion, and training with a view to a return on the labour market);
- \* conditions of access of women workers to vocational guidance and training and to employment.

The analysis of current facts of vocational guidance and training for women workers - carried out on the basis of preparatory documents and in the meetings - should make it possible to accurately define the central theme and main aspects to be considered by the seminar, particularly as regards the :

- sectors of activity
- levels of qualification
- types of training
- characteristics of the "women workers" population group.



## II. PARTICIPANTS

The seminar is intended for executive officials in the field of vocational guidance and training of adult workers, including women. These officials must occupy high level posts, in either the competent government departments or public bodies (labour, trend of labour market and professions, adult vocational guidance and training), or public or private bodies responsible for the vocational guidance and training of adult workers, undertakings, or organizations of employers and workers represented within the European Communities.

Among the criteria used in the selection of participants (who will number about 50 and are nationals of the nine Member-States), particular importance will be placed on:

- the relevance of the participant's institute or organization as regards the subject to be dealt with at the seminar;
- the level of responsibility, qualification and experience, and the capacity to make a useful contribution to the work and results in a multilingual and multinational group;
- whether the participant is able to attend the seminar full time  
(a week, from Monday to Friday inclusive)

## III. ORGANIZATION OF THE SEMINAR

### 1. Date and venue

The seminar will be held in Paris, on a residential basis, at the Hotel PLM-St-Jacques\* from the morning of Monday 24 to the afternoon of Friday 28 November 1975.

The practical information sheet attached to the Letters of invitation gives details relating to travel, reception and lodging for participants.

### 2. Programme, content and method of work

The seminar should be visualized as a communications and data-processing system which attempts to meet the aims and expectations of the organizers, participants and various circles represented.

Therefore, at the operational level, the task of the seminar will be to:

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\* Address: Hotel PLM St-Jacques, 17 Boulevard St-Jacques, 75014, PARIS  
Tel: 589.89.80

- (a) analyse and integrate data (general and specific) on vocational guidance and training for women workers in Community countries, and thus to constitute a basis of common information (Phases A and B);
- (b) determine and study the main problems of common interest arising out of the analysis of national situations and specific aspects of vocational guidance and training for women workers (Phases B and C);
- (c) search for and pinpoint improvements to be made to the present situation (objectives - strategy) and to propose the action to be taken to this end (Phase C).

The seminar programme comprises three work phases, the aims, content and methods of which are defined below and in the work programme and timetable shown in Annexes 1 and 2.

#### A. Initial phase of general information and discussion

##### Aims

- . present and discuss general data on the seminar subject.
- . constitute a first basis of common information.
- . establish a preliminary inventory of problems to be dealt with in Phases B and C.

##### Content and Methods

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- A1 - Opening of seminar
  - Presentation and discussion of programme
- A2 - COMMUNITY DATA AND GUIDELINES (Employment - Training - European Social Fund - Equal treatment)
  - . Statement by Mr. ~~RIFELIN~~
  - . Discussion in plenary session
- A3 - SITUATION, ACHIEVEMENTS AND PROBLEMS in vocational guidance and training for women workers
  - . Introductory panel led by Mr FOTRE with Mrs ARIBAUD, DAHLERUP, JOPPE, KOOPMAN, MOREL, RUDD and Messrs. CONTI, EISENHARDT, ESTGEN, HAYES.
- A4 . General debate
- A5/6 . Group discussion/Questions/Guidelines - Inventory of problems  
Pooling of information/Answers/Guidelines-Inventories.

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\* The letters and figures (A1, A2 etc.) refer to the periods corresponding to the working programme and timetable.

B. Central phase of information and study of specific problems

Aims

- . Present and discuss data relating to specific aspects.
- . Extend and deepen the basis of common information.
- . Compare the approach to problems and solutions needed.
- . Begin the study of the problems and define the projects to be drawn up in Phase C.

Content and methods

PROBLEMS in vocational guidance and training for women workers.

B1 - Group work

- . Documentary study of the reports
- . Questions and guidelines for the discussion

Presentation and discussion of reports in plenary session

- Educational and vocational guidance Mr McCARTHY

B2 - Initial training and basic vocational training Mrs DAHLERUP  
Mr EISENHARDT  
Mr ARNU

B3 - Continuous vocational training Mrs. BRUNFAUT  
Mr ARNU  
- Training for return on labour market Mrs GOFFETTE

- Conditions of access for women workers to vocational guidance and training Miss PESCAROLLO  
Mr SINKWITZ

B4

B5 - Group work

- . Study of problems
- . Definition of projects for Phase C

C. Final phase. Consolidation and preparation of projects

Aims

- . Study of problems selected in first two phases and search for solutions.
- . Define a reference framework for a vocational guidance and training policy for women workers and draw up proposals with a view to its implementation.
- . Establish a preliminary work progress report.

Content and methods

Work in project groups

- C1 . Elements of a policy on vocational guidance and training for women workers
- C2 . Proposals for action
- C3
- C4
- C5 Summary and progress of work
  - . Presentation and discussion of group reports
  - . Summary
- C7 . Impressions - conclusions

NB: The content and methods for the third phase will be defined by the participants with reference to the aims of the seminar and on the basis of preparatory documents\* and the results of the first two phases.

Group work will be aimed at the drawing up of a "project" likely to meet present and future demands and needs of vocational guidance and training for women workers. The project by project approach, which could be achieved by dividing the work between the groups, should make it possible:

- (1) to pinpoint the guidelines for a vocational guidance and training policy for women workers (needs and aims, general concept and principles, ways and means etc.).
- (2) to formulate a series of proposals for action to be taken to implement such a policy (aims, field of intervention, ~~ways and means, etc.~~) at various levels (regional, national, Community) and by various authorities (public/private, trade unions, employers).

Proposals concerning the "projects" will be submitted to the participants in the course of the seminar.

The final summary-of-work day will involve the pooling of the results obtained by the project groups in order to produce a consolidated report and a preliminary assessment of work done.

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\* See (3) - Practical information

(3) Practical information

- \* The preparation and organization of the seminar will be carried out by the Directorate-General for Social Affairs of the Commission, with the aid of the Institut pour la Promotion par la Formation Permanente (IPROFOP), Paris, and in cooperation with the participants.
- \* The working languages of the seminar will be the six official Community languages, with simultaneous interpretation in plenary session.
- \* A secretariat and team of translators will be provided to deal with documents during the seminar.
- \* Taking account of technical limitations and participants' linguistic qualifications, the working parties will be set up on a multinational, unilingual basis, with the exception of one 'European' group with simultaneous interpretation.

The "European" working party could constitute the liaison group ensuring exchanges between and with the other working parties. Each WP will be responsible for its own work and will appoint a Chairman and a rapporteur.

- \* Working documents will be sent as soon as possible to participants, by mid-November at the latest.

In addition to the present programme, they include:

- national reports
- summary of national reports (Doc. V/1074/75)
- reports on specific problems in vocational guidance and training for women workers
- guidelines on specific problems (Doc. V/1032/75).

Accompanying the official invitation, participants will receive a practical information sheet and an inscription form which they are requested to complete and return to the organizers as soon as possible.

Participants requiring further information may contact:

- by telephone : Mrs. G. Loewen-Hall  
Brussels 735.00.40 ext. 6439
- by post : Mr. G. Porcasi  
Directorate-General for Social Affairs  
Commission of the European Communities  
200 rue de la Loi  
1049 Brussels  
(Belgium)

SEMINAR ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND TRAINING FOR WOMEN WORKERS

WORKING PROGRAMME

Phases	Sessions	Content and rapporteurs	Object <sup>s</sup>
<u>General information and discussion</u>			
A	A1/2	. Community guidelines Mr. Rifflet	*Analyse and integrate general data
	A3/4	. Situations, achievements, problems in vocational guidance and training for women workers. Mrs. and Messrs. Fotr�/Aribaud, Conte, Dahlerup, Eisenhardt, Estgen, Hayes, Joppe, Koopman, Morel, Rudd	*Constitute preliminary basis of common information
	A5/6	. Group discussion Pooling of information in plenary session	*Establish preliminary inventory of problems
<u>Information and study of specific Problems</u>			
B	B1	. Group work - Documentary study	*Analyse and integrate specific data
	B2	( . Education and vocational guidance Mr. T. McCarthy	*Widen and deepen basis of common information
		( . Initial and basic training Mrs. Dahlerup/Mr. Eisenhardt - Mr. Armu	*Start study of problems
	B3	( . Continuous vocational training Mrs. Brunfaut	*Define Phase C projects
		( . Training for return on labour market Mrs. Goffette	
	B4	. Access to vocational guidance and training Miss Pescarollo, Mr. Sinkwitz	
	B5	. Group work	
<u>Study of problems - guidelines for action</u>			
C	C1 to 4	. Project group work	*Study the problems and search for improvements
	C5	. Group reports	*Determine guidelines
	C6/7	. Summary and statement of work	*Propose actions to be taken

ACTION



SEMINAR ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND TRAINING FOR WOMEN WORKERS

PROVISIONAL TIMETABLE

Date	morning		afternoon	
	9.00-10.30	11.00-12.30	14.30-16.00	16.30-18.00**
Monday 24 Nov	- Opening M.*  - Present. disc. programme  A1 EEC guidelines Mr. <u>Rifflet</u>	A2 EEC guidelines Mr. <u>Rifflet</u>  • General discussion	A3/4 Situations, achievements, problems  • Introductory panel  • General discussion	
Tuesday 25 Nov	A5/6 Situations, achievements, problems  • Group discussion - Questions - Guidelines		• Pooling - Answers - Guidelines	B1/2 Problems in vocational guidance and training for women workers  • Group work - Doc. study  1. Educational and vocational guidance 2. Initial training and basic vocational training
Weds. 26 Nov	B3/4 Problems  3. Continuous vocational training 4. Training for return on lab- our market		5. Conditions of access to vocational guidance and training  • Discussion • Guidelines	B5 Problems  Group work • Problems • Projects
Thurs. 27 Nov	C1/2 Projects  Group work		C3/4 Projects  Group work  Final editing of reports	
Friday 28 Nov	C5/6 Summary and assessment of work  - Presentation & discussion of project-group reports		C7 Assessment of work  - Synthesis - Impressions - Conclusion  Mr <u>Shanks</u>	

\* The names of the speakers will be communicated shortly.

\*\* Friday at 17.00h.



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European Seminar

on

Vocational Guidance and Training for Women Workers

24 - 28 November 1975

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Phase A : Situation, achievements and problems in vocational guidance and training for women workers in the Community countries / Summary of national reports.

Rapporteur : Mr. G. Fotré (Iprofop - Paris)

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Introduction

This consolidated report is based on the national reports prepared for the seminar by:

M/s and Messrs. MOREL / Belgium  
JOPPE / Germany  
DAHLEUP - EISENHARDT / Denmark  
ARIBAUD / France  
CONTI / Italy  
RUDD / Ireland  
ESTGEN / Luxembourg  
KOOPMAN / Netherlands  
HAYES / United Kingdom

It does not attempt to reproduce, in a few pages and in a condensed form, the volume and richness of information given in the national reports - particularly as the latter show or confirm considerable differences in the frameworks, structures and practices in vocational guidance and training for women workers.

On the other hand, it aims at affording a preliminary overall view of the present situation and achievements and a general introduction to the study of problems raised in these fields in Community countries. It attempts at the same time to provide a "key" to the national reports and a reference plan for use in the first phase of the seminar.

Some general data 1)

- \* Population : 131.6 million women, or 51.3% of the total population of the Europe of Nine
- \* Working population : 36 million working women, i.e., 27.4% of the total female population; the proportion of married women in 5 countries (U.K., DK, B, F and D) is about two thirds, and lower in the other four countries (I = 51.4%, L = 43.5%, NL = 28.9%, IRL = 13.5%).
- \* Employment : 35.4 million jobs for women, which represents over a third of the entire Community work force - with several differences between the countries:
  - in one group (B, F, D, UK and DK), women workers represent from 34.3% to 41.1% of the total work force,
  - in a second group (NL, IRL, L and I) the female work-force ranges from 26.2% to 27.4%.

Female employment is relatively concentrated

- in certain sectors: first, in the tertiary sector (commerce, banks and insurance, "other services" and administrations) - over 60% of the work force, except in D, IRL and I, - secondly, in the manufacturing industry (textiles, clothing, food, metal processing and mechanics); the proportion in agriculture is relatively high in D, I and UK;
- in certain vocational categories - generally posts requiring little or no skills and opportunities for promotion.

Over the last fifteen years, the structure of women's employment has developed to some extent, depending on the country, the general trend showing a drop in agricultural employment and an increase in the tertiary sector and vocational structures.

In certain countries (D, DK, UK), a relatively high proportion of jobs for women takes the form of part-time work (15% in D).

Unemployment affects women workers more than men, the proportion of women in the total unemployed exceeding by 10% their proportion in the working population.

- \* Wages : Women doing the same work as men still receive lower wages - in industry, for example, the difference varies from 14% to 42%, depending on the country.

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†) Sources : Statistical Office of the European Communities; Exposé sur l'évolution de la situation sociale dans la Communauté en 1974; Note on equality of treatment between men and women workers (doc. COM (75) 36); "Les handicaps des Européennes qui travaillent" in 30 Jours d'Europe, January 1975 - data valid for 1973 unless otherwise stated.

- \* Vocational training : From 60 to 85% of working women, depending on the country, have had no vocational training, the majority of the 15 to 40% of women with training having acquired it in a "woman's trade".

According to a study published in 1972, 12% of female employees in Italy, 20% in Belgium, 25% in the Netherlands, 38% in Germany and 39% in France received supplementary training in the course of their vocational activity. In 1974, in one of the countries where the situation seems to be relatively favourable, (F), adult trainees receiving continuous training were composed of 78% men and 25% women, whilst their respective share in the working population was 62% and 38%.

## 1 - General context of vocational guidance and training for women workers

### A - Vocational guidance

In general, educational and vocational guidance and its financing in the Nine is the responsibility of the public authorities; its scope, methods of intervention and structures are defined by laws, regulations and administrative provisions equally applicable to men and women.

From the institutional point of view, educational and vocational guidance operates, depending on the country, under the authority either of the Ministry for National Education and the educational system (e.g., in B, F, IRL, UK) or the Ministry of Labour and its employment departments (e.g., in D, DK, F, I, IRL, L, NL, UK). This second solution is the rule when guidance concerns adult workers, a relatively new but increasingly prevalent situation.

Educational and vocational guidance is based, initially, on observation and analysis of the labour market and job trends, these duties being carried out more or less adequately in each country, according to different formulae:

- in some countries, by specialist institutions or bodies (e.g., in Germany, the "Bundesinstitut für Arbeitsmarkt- und Berufsforschung", attached to the "Bundesanstalt für Arbeit"; in F, the "Centre d'Etudes de l'Emploi", the "Centre d'études et de recherches sur les qualifications"; in I, the "Istituto per lo sviluppo della formazione professionale dei lavoratori");
- in other countries, by the employment administration itself (e.g., B, DK, L, NL) or by cooperation between various bodies, (e.g., between the "Careers Service", the "Employment Service Agency" and the "Industrial Training Boards").

Similarly, the information and documentation used as a basis in educational and vocational guidance are prepared by specialist bodies (e.g. in D, the "Bundesanstalt für Arbeit"; in F, "l'Office National d'Information sur les enseignements et les professions", in the UK, the "Careers and Occupational Information Centre"), or by the employment departments themselves (e.g., in DK, by means of an "Employment Index" or, in IRL, by the "Careers Section/ Manpower Service).

Educational and vocational information and guidance are generally provided by public services or bodies (except in B, I, NL).

- guidance for the young is provided either by teacher/guidance counsellors integrated in the educational system, or by counsellors operating in "information and guidance" centres" or employment services".
- guidance for adults is provided by counsellors of the employment services (e.g., ONEM in B, ANPE in F, Labour Offices in D, I, IRL, UK).

A double trend may be noted consisting, on the one hand, of efforts to extend educational and vocational guidance to include information and guidance in training and education and, on the other hand, to enable adults as well as the young to gain access to the various information and guidance structures.

Data available for certain countries show that the proportion of women workers receiving vocational guidance is equal to or less than the proportion of men. The tendency to choose "women's jobs" is illustrated by the following data, valid for the financial year 1972-73 in Germany for young women leaving primary school. The figures relate to expressed "vocational intentions".

- . 60.5% for the services sector
- . 5.2% for the manufacturing sector
- . 2.4% for a technical vocation
- . 15.9% without any definite vocational projects
- . 14.9% without any vocational projects.

Lastly, in addition to the public guidance and employment services, there are other organizations or bodies which contribute to information and guidance on training and vocations. They consist, more especially, in the larger information methods, employers' and workers' organizations in general and bodies specifically dealing with women's problems, such as the "Women's Employment Committees" in B, F, I and the UK which are composed of representatives of employers, trade unions and family and women's associations, or the "Centre d'information féminin" in France.

## B - Vocational training

As in the case of educational and vocational guidance, the laws and regulations in the Nine defining the objectives and operation of vocational training do not discriminate between the sexes. Generally speaking, apart from the present training systems, reforms carried out in the Member States over the last 10-15 years are aimed at defining training policy in conjunction with employment and economic policy aimed both at the young (initial training) and at adult workers (supplementary or continuous training). Although this policy is often, or at least partly, depending on the country, implemented by the private sector (- undertakings, vocational organizations, training bodies), it is mainly the public authorities who are responsible for the legal and technical framework, supervision, and, in part, financing.

There are various types of training institutions and structures in the Community countries;

1. Initial training for the young, involving preparation for employment and training for a first vocational certificate, is provided, either in the educational system (public/private) by technical and vocational training or by apprenticeship in an undertaking with attendance at vocational classes, or by mixed systems (inter-undertaking training, foundation year followed by on-job training etc).
2. Training for adults, This varies according to the country and generally involves the acquisition, maintenance and/or development of the knowledge, capacities and qualifications needed to work. Most training is provided by undertakings (or groups of undertakings or, as in the UK, by training bodies (ITB's) covering a vocational sector) for their employees. It is also provided to an increasing extent by the public training apparatus (technical and vocational schools at various levels, vocational training structures for adults) and lastly, by various types of public or private training bodies.

The fact of equal rights and opportunity, guaranteed in principle, proves rather different in reality and varies from country to country when it is a case of assessing the position of women workers in vocational training, as shown by the following data taken from the national reports and valid for 1973, unless otherwise stipulated:

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Belgium

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- \* Training for the young : Although the number of girls in full-time technical and vocational training is roughly equal to the number of boys (67,611 girls, 68,196 boys), girls represent only 41.7% in technical education, and 65.3% in vocational education.

Girls in training are concentrated :

- in the lower technical section, in the clothing, domestic science, commercial and beauty courses;
- in the secondary and higher technical section, in the chemistry, business, domestic economics, paramedical and teaching courses.

- \* Training for adults : It is only in recent years that the National Labour Office has been open to women.

Their participation was 20% in basic training and 4.6% in further training. In basic training, they represented 22% in industrial occupations, of which 87% were in "women's jobs" (clothing), whilst 81% were in jobs in the tertiary sector.

In 1974, women represented nearly 32% receiving ONEM training.

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Germany

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- \* Training for the young : Of a total of nearly 2.3 million apprentices in vocational training, girls represented 44% compared with 56% boys, or 48.8% in classes of corresponding ages compared with 55.7% boys.

30% of the girls were apprenticed to a business (7.7% boys), 26.9% to an administrative occupation or secretariat (6.2% boys). Girls in teacher training courses numbered 32.1% compared with 9% boys.

- \* Training for adults : Of approximately 277,000 applications for aid to continuous training received by the "Bundesanstalt für Arbeit", over 58,000 (about 21%) came from women workers.

The "Law on promotion of employment" (Arbeitsförderungs-gesetz - 25.6.1969) comprises two specific provisions in favour of women workers: the "Bundesanstalt" can also grant aid to women, either when they meet difficulties in finding employment "because they are married or for other reasons are restricted by domestic commitments", or when it is a case of facilitating, by means of training, their vocational integration or reintegration.

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Denmark

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- \* Training for the young : There are more girls than boys in the 17 year old's receiving vocational training: on the other hand, among the 19 year old's, half the number of boys remain whilst there is only a quarter of the girls.

The foundation year which has just been introduced for a certain number of sectors (building, graphic industries, business management, iron and steel, agriculture, foodstuffs, public services) should provide young apprentices (about a quarter of the young) with a wider choice of occupations; this is particularly true for girls, in so far as the foundation year is likely to neutralize the traditional concept of vocational roles based on sex, and, furthermore, encourage girls to continue their apprenticeships.

- \* Training for adults : The three types of training for adults break down as follows (in %):

	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>
- training of semi-skilled workers	83.3	16.7
- further training for skilled workers	87.1	12.9
- retraining	67.4	32.6

The employment departments have been organizing 2 - week guidance courses, initially intended for women workers but which now accept men wishing to return to work.

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France

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- \* Training for adults : Of a total of 2,470,000 adult workers having received continuous training (State and undertakings), 24.7% were women and 75.3% men.

Of some 1.4 million trainees, distributed among various occupations, women represented:

- . 32% of skilled labourers and workers
- . 28% of skilled workers and employers
- . 13% of foremen, technical staff and technicians
- . 9% of engineers and executive staff

The proportion of women trainees in continuous training rose from 22% in 1973 to 25% in 1974. One working man in seven and one working woman in 13 attends a course.

Mothers wishing to work in a job requiring qualifications are treated in the same way as workers doing a "conversion course"; they therefore receive remuneration equal to the "inter-vocational minimum growth salary" (SMIC - about FF 4,200 a month), with a 20% increase for three children or one child if the mother is head of household.

A circular from the Prime Minister dated 20 February 1975 stipulates that State aid will be given, under the heading of priority action, to action aimed at facilitating the integration in the labour market of women wishing to work late in life or wishing to return to work after a period of absence.

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### Italy

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Data relating to employment may serve to show the proportion of women in vocational training. Thus, in 1972, women's employment breaks down as follows:

- 21% in agriculture (31% of total employment in sector)
- 32.2% in industry (19.5% " " " " )
- 46.8% in the tertiary sector (32.7% " " " " )

In 1972, responsibility for organizing and financing vocational training was transferred from the State to the Regions (ordinary statute).

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### Ireland

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#### Ireland

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\* Training for the young : Of some 123,000 pupils receiving guidance, only 25% were in mixed schools in 1974/75. Up to 1974, only boys were permitted to be apprenticed in the designated trades, which mainly concern qualifications for industry and production. In the non-designated trades, covering the distribution and service sectors, girls represent two thirds of apprentices in the hotel trade and 85% of apprentices in the service and paramedical trades.



Young girls aged 15 - 18 (2nd level) in full-time training in an institution were distributed as follows in 1974:

- . 63% secretaries
- . 27% trade
- . 5.2% agriculture
- . 2.2% technical industries
- . 2.6% domestic economy

For the same year, 57% of girls aged 18 - 21 (3rd level) trained to be teachers and 35% attended vocational and technical training courses.

- \* Training for adults : Women mainly receive short-term, low level training; they represent 5% of trainees in classes organized by the Irish Management Institute.

On the other hand, women workers are better represented in training courses for adults organized by the universities or vocational night schools, in the traditional sections for women, or in the classes organized by the Industrial Training Authority for women wishing to return to work in this field.

At the end of 1974, women represented 6% of the 8,000 training applications received by the ITA.

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### Luxembourg

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- \* Training for the young : Of 1,444 new apprentices in 1974, girls represented 25%, broken down as follows:

- . 38.8% industry
- . 29.7% services
- . 27% secretariat
- . 3.3% dressmaking
- . 1.1% business and craft trades

- \* Training for adults : Held in the form of evening classes, "education for adults" offers women workers the following training possibilities: paramedical occupations, engineer-technician, foremen (craft trades), secretary-accountant, restaurateur, clothing, hairdressing, art trades.

Women represented

- . in 1971/72, 53.5% )
- . in 1972/73, 57.4% ) of total trainees

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Netherlands

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\* Training for the young : Of the total number of trainees in the school year 1973/74, girls represented

- .. 1.7% in technical schools (of which 89% in lower technical schools)
- .. 99.2% in "domestic and social sciences" (paramedical and health care occupations, dressmaking, domestic economy, etc.).
- . 41.6% in economic and administrative schools (of which 87.6% in lower schools)
- . 68% in teacher training colleges
- . 59.3% in social and teacher training schools (health care, social and cultural workers etc.).

They represented 13.2% of total apprenticeship contracts.

\* Training for adults : Training courses organized by the Ministry for Social Affairs in the context of employment policy are available to adult workers on the following conditions :

- the applicant must be unemployed or threatened with unemployment;
- the training must be necessary to his vocational re-integration;
- there must be an outlet on the labour market in the occupation chosen;
- the applicant must firmly intend to work in the occupation chosen;

The vocational training centres for adults attached to the Directorate General for Employment principally offer training in the building and metalwork sectors; very few women apply.

In 1974, women workers represented one third of all adults - (compared with about one quarter in 1970) - receiving State aid for vocational training. 40% of the courses covered administrative skills, 15% covered general training.

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United Kingdom

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Training and employment of women is concentrated in a limited series of occupations: most women workers receive short-term training leading to semi-skilled jobs.

Thus :

- only 8% of girls (compared with 39% boys) are apprenticed to a skilled trade on leaving school;
- girls represented only 13% of young persons apprenticed or training to be a skilled worker or technician (1974);
- about a third of women receive administrative training;
- 80% of women (more than a third of all adult workers in these programmes) having benefited from a TOPS programme (Training Opportunities Scheme, see below) received commercial or administrative training.

There are, however, a certain number of occupations where women are more numerous, even predominant: primary and secondary school teachers, social workers, nurses, secretaries, librarians. Women represent about 20% of training courses and jobs in a limited number of highly skilled occupations and professions such as doctors, staff managers and heads of staff, programmers, laboratory technicians etc.

The Training Services Agency, the implementing instrument of the Manpower Services Commission is aimed at "promoting the development of an efficient training system" at national level. The three current programmes are intended to

1. meet training-for-industry requirements
2. meet individual training requirements (TOPS)
3. improve quality of training

and also take account of the specific training problems of women workers.

The Sex Discrimination Bill to be adopted in Great Britain by the end of 1975 will not only make it unlawful to discriminate in terms of access to training but at the same time make it lawful to discriminate positively in favour of women in certain circumstances.

## 2 - Obstacles, difficulties, problems

A large majority of rapporteurs found that the principle difficulties encountered by women in vocational guidance and training were located in the psychological and sociological field. It thus seems clear that it is as a function of the actual concept of women's roles in the home and in society that obstacles and problems crop up restricting women's access to education, training and employment. It may even be said, as certain rapporteurs have already done, that the cultural and social standards which the legal provisions; institutions and structures express in fact, only serve to strengthen the traditional stereotypes and models and run counter to a reduction of present imbalances. And the fact that within the Community one

can pinpoint, through the characteristics of each national situation, various occasions when a more general development has taken place does not basically alter this fact. On the contrary it shows the extent and complexity of the changes to be made - changes which clearly show that vocational guidance and training constitutes only one field of intervention among others.

Thus the "problems" of vocational guidance and training for women workers should also be seen and evaluated in the context of the relationships and interactions between the training system and the overall social, economic and cultural system. A preliminary list of these problems, based on the national reports, is given below:

a) Legal and institutional

Strictly speaking, there is no discrimination in this field between men and women workers, this being guaranteed by equality of treatment laid down in the constitution or by laws and regulations on training which apply equally to both men and women.

The real obstacles, difficulties and problems, however, are caused by the following:

- . a vocational guidance system, based on present vocational structures and qualifications, which therefore can only reproduce previous models;
- . educational and training structures which are still based on ~~distinct~~ and separate structures and on different career structures for boys and girls;
- . male-orientated and male-managed training structures with difficult access for women;
- . a law on protecting and guarding women's and children's employment - (an amalgamation which the legislators abolished only fairly recently) - which often raises a barrier to access to employment and training;
- . employment and vocational structures that are still (or again, as the recent "feminization" of certain tertiary occupations showed) based to a great extent on a division of work by sex.

It would doubtless be advisable to wonder to what extent equal treatment, applied to a population group which has not benefited from equality in education and employment, does not itself constitute discrimination? (See Sex Discrimination Bill in UK).

b) Psychological and sociological

As mentioned above, this is the area in which the rapporteur placed the main obstacles and problems encountered by women workers:

- first, the importance - and persistence, despite several regional or national differences - of the cultural concept of the "woman in the home, wife and mother", the furthering of this concept as much by women themselves as by society, its backing by the educational, social and economic system and, through cause and effect, all the individual or collective attitudes and behaviour which result in the fields of education training and employment;
- the opposition (and conflict) between this concept and that of the working woman, often taking expression in aphorisms that are not always checkable:
  - the home and education of the children are the woman's responsibility; this is their "fulfillment", whilst men achieve this at work;
  - an occupation can therefore only be transient, secondary in relation to the predominating task - that of the home and family;
  - the working woman will be made to feel guilty of neglecting her fundamental duties, whilst the woman who stays at home feels useless; the problem is to know how to reconcile vocational demands and family "obligations";
  - the working woman's career is shorter; the proportion of women in turnover and absenteeism is high, which is the reason for the reluctance of employers to use female labour;
  - technical and scientific education and training are not intended for girls; vocational training for girls is less necessary than for boys;
- a tendency to concentrate (one rapporteur speaks of "relegating") women to the "feminine" or "feminized" sectors or occupations, most of them semi-skilled and lowly paid;
- insufficient geographical mobility and a reluctance to take on high-level responsibility;
- more generally, the effects of inertia and resistance to change, which explains to some degree, but without justifying them, the lack of adjustment and delays in the development of training and employment of women - or, more basically, the problems linked to the search for a new balance between the roles allocated to men and women in the family and in society.

c) Economic

To extend the discussion of the above points, and standing back a little, this would perhaps be the place to wonder, in respect of the economic systems that assess their yield in terms of GNP,

what the operating loss is on the non- or bad utilization of much of the potential that women represent in our countries' economies, compared with the investment in initial education and training (1).

Were it possible to carry out such an assessment, it would very probably furnish good reasons for reducing to more equitable proportions the economic and practical (see (d)) difficulties women meet in training and employment.

In this context, there is first the question of the effects of the division of labour and distribution of roles between men and women in economic life:

- depending on the degree of economic development and the situation of the labour market, women workers are still often regarded, if not wholly then at least for the most part, as additional labour;
- they are more exposed to economic fluctuations, both for "objective" reasons - less skilled, less seniority, part-time jobs - and for the reasons mentioned above under (b). In times of unemployment, the working woman will look like a "job thief" to the detriment of the "breadwinning man";
- the employment structure and vocational structures are not prepared to accept women more easily, both because of the very weak quantitative and qualitative correlation between supply and demand and because outlets are not guaranteed for female skills based on the traditional model;
- a number of predominantly female jobs, (e.g., services, non-manual jobs at start of career) are located in the growth industries and have recruiting problems, which stabilizes the labour force and thwarts the search for employment in other sectors.

Secondly, women share other difficulties with male workers, although being more exposed and less well-armed, they are more vulnerable:

- The changes made, or due to be made, in the structures of the economy lead to a gradual drop in jobs for skilled manual labour, specifically one of the sectors requiring a training effort on the part of the employers;
- Similarly, the reduction in activity in certain sectors (e.g., agriculture, textiles, clothing, foodstuffs) raises the major problems of creating employment and of vocational conversion;

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(1) The cost, not the quality.

- It is mainly workers with good basic training that benefit from aid-to-training schemes which, after all, are rather different and more or less "generous", depending on the country.
- Unless exceptional steps are taken, the participation of women workers is liable, in this case also, to be reduced to the bare minimum.

d) Practical

The national rapporteurs mention three types of difficulties and problems in this field:

- problems connected with the "situation of woman" - the double work load entailed in her family and domestic tasks and her vocational duties, the "hindrances" and obstacles, maternity and education of the children, access to training and employment;
- the deficiencies and lack of public facilities which limits the possibilities of taking over a certain number of family and domestic tasks usually carried out by women;
- the difficulties of access to training, equally applicable to the young, in the case of skills not recognized as "for women", and to adults, for similar reasons; including localization and operating conditions (geographical distances, duration, hours, access to "male" sections) of the training centres for adults.

To return to certain points discussed at the end of the preceding chapters, it could also be said that another major obstacle to access to training, equally valid for male workers, lies in the organization models and industrial working conditions - division of labour, jobs requiring little skill, apportioned and repetitive work, etc. According to the system's logic, training is only given if skills are required and it is certain that, because of their "natural" handicaps alone, most women workers find themselves in such an inferior position that they are unable to compete on the training and labour markets.

3 - Solutions and prospects

The number, and frequently the volume of planned or present measures, current or projected experiments (community and national level) are proof of the governments' and public authorities' interest in problems of training and employment for women and demonstrate their desire to remedy the present situation.

Most rapporteurs felt that it would be advisable to gradually modify the overall image of woman's image and her role in the family, at work and in society. Such action should start with intensive information, based on study and research, using all available channels and support and addressed to all circles, particularly women, and to parents, educators, economic and social operators.

Within such a process, whose political vision and intentions will doubtless have to be defined, more timely or specific measures could be taken, dealing with education, guidance and training, employment and the labour market, or more general provisions aimed at re-defining woman's situation and her working status.

For example :

a) as general measures:

\* at Community level

- The Council Directive (1975) on the approximation of the laws of the Member States on applying the principle of equal pay between male workers and women workers referred to in Article 119 of the EEC Treaty.
- Communication from the Commission to the Council and the draft directive on equality of treatment between men and women workers (access to employment, vocational training and promotion and working conditions - 1975)

\* in the Member States

- in Denmark, the activity of the "Commission on the position of women in society" (since 1965) and the setting up of a "Council for equal status", under the authority of the Prime Minister and responsible for promoting equality between men and women in the family, education, training, labour market and society (September 1975);
- in France, the setting up of a Secretariat of State for the situation of women (1974);
- in Ireland, the draft law on non-discrimination for women in employment (entry into force in 1976);
- in the United Kingdom, the draft Sex Discrimination Bill (1975);



b) specific action

- the requirement, in all Community countries, of a reciprocal adjustment of supply and demand on the labour market, a necessary condition (but perhaps an insufficient one, in view of the present employment situation) in the opening of new fields of vocational activity and new qualifications for women workers.

Adjustments of supply and demand should accompany the efforts made by various countries, in the context of reforms of the educational system and initial vocational training, (e.g., vocational integration or reintegration of adult women workers), to afford women even greater access to the sectors and skills hitherto restricted to men;

- in Germany, special legal provisions on promotion of employment (see above, page 6);
- in Denmark, the creation of the post of special adviser on women's employment, attached to the Directorate for Employment; the project on State financing of training for adults (1974);
- in France, under the law of 16 July 1971 on training for adults receiving State aid, there are the priorities granted to actions aimed at the integration or reintegration of women in the labour market (Prime Ministerial circulars 1974-1975);
- in Italy, the draft outline law on vocational training (1975);
- in Ireland, the admission of girls to first year apprenticeship courses organized by AnCO (1975);
- in the Netherlands, guidance and training schemes for the vocational integration of women workers (1975); the experimental "open schools" aimed at young adults, adult workers and married women (for 1976);
- in the United Kingdom, proposal that the TSA take new initiatives in four main areas:
  - 1) improvements in training for occupations and industries in which women at present predominate and an extension of career development;
  - 2) an expansion of women's opportunities to train for those occupations to which they lack at present significant access and which involve relatively high degrees of responsibility and/or skill;
  - 3) the provision of special training, particularly for women who have interrupted their employment, to enable them to compete for employment on equal terms with men;

4) influencing and cooperating with bodies outside the training system.

This brief and non-exhaustive inventory of the situations, problems, solutions and prospects in vocational guidance and training for women workers cannot attempt at this stage to draw any conclusions - which could only be partial and personal and thus of little value. It could, at the most, note that despite the very varied situations (economic, cultural, social, etc.) in Member States, the problems are very similar, taking account of course, of the national variables.

The document is intended for use by seminar participants as a working instrument with which to establish a common information and reference basis, in turn the basis for collective discussion and research. It is primarily an invitation to deepen and extend the data we already have - and therefore an encouragement to look beyond our everyday horizon and find out about those dealing with women's training and employment and their work.

European Seminar

on

Vocational Guidance and Training for Women Workers

Phase A            Situation, achievements and problems in vocational  
guidance and training for women workers in the  
Federal Republic of Germany

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1. Outline of the general context of vocational guidance and training for women workers

1. A. Vocational guidance for women workers

1. A 1 Laws and Regulations (see 1 a). Only the most important laws and administrative regulations are listed here.

A 1.1 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Germany (Grundgesetz) of 23 May 1949 (Bundesgesetzblatt I p. 1), in particular Articles 2,3,6,11,12 (Annex 1)

A 1.2 Employment Promotion Law (Arbeitsförderungsgesetz) of 25 June 1969 (Bundesgesetzblatt I p. 582), in particular Sections 1 and 2 (Annex 2)

A 1.3 Vocational Training Law (Berufsbildungsgesetz) of 14 August 1969 (Bundesgesetzblatt I p. 1112) as amended on 12 March 1971 (Bundesgesetzblatt I p. 185), in particular Parts 1-4 (Annex 3)

A 1.4 Law on the Protection of Young Workers (Gesetz zum Schutze der arbeitenden Jugend) of 9 August 1960 (Bundesgesetzblatt I p. 665) in particular Sections 1-6

A 1.5 Mothers' Protection Law (Mütherschutzgesetz) as amended on 18 April 1968 (Bundesgesetzblatt I p. 315), in particular Sections 1-4

A 1.6 Law Assuring the Rehabilitation of the Handicapped in Employment, Profession and Society (Schwerbehindertengesetz) as amended on 29 April 1974 (Bundesgesetzblatt I p. 1006), in particular Sections 1-4

A 1.7 Federal Law on the Promotion of Individual Training (Bundesgesetz über die individuelle Förderung der Ausbildung) of 31 August 1971 (Bundesgesetzblatt I p. 1409) (Annex 4)

A 1.8 Directive of the Administrative Council of the Federal Institution for Labour on the Promotion of Individual Vocational Training (Anordnung des Verwaltungsrats der Bundesanstalt für Arbeit über die individuelle Förderung der beruflichen Bildung) of 31 October 1969 (ANBA 1970 p. 213) (Annex 5)

A 1.9 Directive of the Administrative Council of the Federal Institution for Labour on the Promotion of Individual Vocational Training and Retraining (Anordnung des Verwaltungsrats der Bundesanstalt für Arbeit über die individuelle Förderung der beruflichen Fortbildung und Umschulung) of 9 September 1971, as amended on 27 February 1975 (ANBA 1975 p. 418) (Annex 6)

A 1.10 Directive of the Administrative Council of the Federal Institution for Labour on the Promotion of Institutes for Vocational Training (Anordnung des Verwaltungsrats der Bundesanstalt für Arbeit über die Förderung von Einrichtungen der beruflichen Bildung) of 31 October 1969 (ANBA 1970 p. 81) (Annex 7)

A 1.11 Directive of the Administrative Council of the Federal Institution for Labour on the Vocational Promotion of the Handicapped (Anordnung des Verwaltungsrats der Bundesanstalt für Arbeit über die Arbeits- und Berufsförderung Behinderter) of 2 July 1970 (ANBA 1972 p. 1010) (Annex 8)

A 1.12 General administrative rules on the granting of aid for the rehabilitation of young migrant workers (Allgemeine Verwaltungsvorschriften über die Gewährung von Beihilfen zur Eingliederung junger Zuwanderer) ("Garantie Fund") (Joint Cabinet Paper of 24 July 1974 p. 318) (Annex 9)

1. A 2 Institutions, vocational guidance structures and methods

The Federal Institution for Labour (Bundesanstalt für Arbeit - BA) is a public law body. Article 1 of the Employment Promotion Law (AFG) states that any measures it takes as part of social and economic policy of a Federal Government are to be aimed at obtaining and maintaining a high rate of employment, constantly improving the employment structure and thus promoting economic growth. According to subparagraphs 1 to 3 of Article 3(2) of the AFG the office has a monopoly in vocational guidance, job placement and the promotion of vocational training, as conferred on it by this Law.

Concept and tasks of vocational guidance (Articles 25-32 AFG)

Vocational guidance consists in giving advice and information on the choice of a profession, including a change of job. The office must advise young people and adults before they enter working life and during working life in all matters concerning the choice of a career and advancement. The physical and mental capacity of the applicant, his character, inclinations and personal situation must be taken into account. In giving guidance account must also be taken of the present state and trend of the labour market, and of prospects in the chosen career.

Vocational guidance is supplemented by information on various professions, instruction on the encouragement of vocational training for the particular case and assistance in obtaining a place in a training centre. The office is supposed to work in cooperation with institutes of general and vocational training, employers, trade unions, schools, universities and organizations responsible for social work, aid to young people and the health service.

Concept and tasks of placement (Articles 13-24)

The office must aim to find work for those seeking it and to ensure that employers get the employees they need. The special features of the vacant posts, the qualifications of the applicants and their personal circumstances are to be taken into account.

On request, and independently of placement, employees and employers must be informed of the situation on the labour market, developments in the profession, the necessity and possibility of vocational training and the promotion thereof and the creation of job opportunities, and must be advised on questions of choice of a job or the filling of a vacancy (job guidance). The BA must not cooperate in the drawing up of work agreements at conditions which have not been agreed between both sides of industry. The placement and advisory services are impartial and free of charge.

Institutional structure of vocational guidance and placement

In accordance with the organization of the Federal Institution for Labour there are in the Federal Republic nine provincial employment offices with 146 employment exchanges and some 540 branch exchanges.

Each employment exchange has a vocational guidance department and a placement department, thus guaranteeing that this branch of the administration remains close to the man in the street. They are under the technical and administrative supervision of the provincial employment offices.

Each provincial employment office contains a sub-division for vocational training and another for placement, which together form Department I.

The provincial employment offices are subordinate to the head office of the Federal Institution for Labour (BA) in Nürnberg. Department I of the head office is concerned with job advice and placement, promotional measures concerned with labour policy, labour relations with countries outside Germany and statistics, while Department II covers vocational guidance and training. Department I also contains the medical service while Department II covers the psychological service and the technical advisory service.

2.1 Observation and analysis of the labour market and the development of professions and trades

Under Article 6 of the Employment Promotion Law the Federal Institution for Labour (BA) must observe and examine (inter alia from the angle of social structure) the extent and nature of employment together with the state and tendency of the labour market, the careers and professions and the possibilities for vocational training in general and in the individual branches of the economy, and must evaluate its findings for the purposes of the Institution's work (research into the labour market and careers). The research is carried out after discussion with the Federal Minister for Labour and Social Order, to whom the results of the research are submitted.

Article 7 of the same Law obliges the owners of firms, authorities and employed persons to give any necessary information to the Institution (EA). Changes within a firm within the coming 12 months which will mean that a certain number of employees must be dismissed or transferred to jobs at a lower rate of pay must be reported immediately in writing to the President of the provincial employment office (Article 8). These regulations facilitate a differentiated observation and analysis of the labour market.

The office is also obliged to prepare statistics at regular intervals or on special occasions from the documents falling within its sphere of work, in particular on employment and unemployment among the working population. Statistics from other sources are also used.

The Institute for Vocational Research into the Labour Market (Institut für Arbeitsmarkt- und Berufsforschung), a department of the head office of the Federal Institution for Labour (BA) carries out research projects on its own or entrusts them to other scientific institutes. This department also has the task of preparing short- or medium-term forecasts on the developments on the labour market in trades and professions.

The labour market is thus analysed and changes and developments made visible.

2.2 Information and documentation

By the terms of Article 3(3) of the Employment Promotion Law, the Institute is obliged to keep the public informed of its work.

There are many ways of doing this:

- 2.21 The "Mitteilungen aus der Arbeitsmarkt- und Berufsforschung" are of a scientific nature.

These scientific results are converted into a form that will be more useful in practical life and published at irregular intervals as "Materialien aus der Arbeitsmarkt- und Berufsforschung" (Material from Labour-market and Vocational Research). The "Forschungsdokumentationen zur Arbeitsmarkt- und Berufsforschung" (Research Documents on Labour-market and Vocational Research) contain all the scientific work that has been carried out or is being prepared on a certain problem or group of problems concerning the labour market, and are published quarterly.

2.22 The "Amtliche Nachrichten der Bundesanstalt" (Official Information from the Federal Institution of Labour - BA) appear monthly. They contain the most important data about happenings on the labour market. Special editions are also published. In accordance with the provisions of Article 224(3) of the Employment Promotion Law, an annual report is published.

2.23 A press conference is held each month. In addition important events concerning aspects of the labour market are offered from time to time to the media or made available on request. At intervals the Institute participates in (and contributes financially to) the preparation of a documentary film on a certain aspect of the labour market by the radio and television companies, thus ensuring a large number of listeners and viewers.

2.24 The services of the Institute are made known to the public by many publications. Some examples are:

"Die Bundesanstalt stellt sich vor" ("The Federal Institution for Labour Introduces Itself") (Annex 10)

"Was? Wieviel? Wer?" ("What? How much? Who?")

A booklet on the promotional measures undertaken by the Institute.

A new, revised edition is published each year (Annex 11).

2.3 Vocational Guidance (See 1. A 2)

2.31 The BA has prepared and published numerous information leaflets and booklets to prepare young people choosing their training or study course and future career, and to help adults find a job. The most important are:

"Berufsberatung in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland" (Annex 12).

"Blätter zur Berufskunde" Vol. 1-3. They contain descriptions of individual careers.

("Informationen für die Beratungs- und Vermittlungsdienste der Bundesanstalt für Arbeit (ibv)", documentation for career advisors.

"IZ", "aspekte", "analysen", newspapers and magazines giving career advice.

Information sheets for pupils in the top class of primary school, ("Auf dem Wege zum Beruf"; "Mach's richtig"), at intermediate schools ("beruf aktuell"), and grammar schools ("Studien- und Berufswahl"), with special editions for the handicapped.

STEP für Abiturienten, STEP für Realschüler

Training programmes preparing for choosing a career

"Ihre berufliche Zukunft"

Vols. 1-4 are important for women. Vol. 2 gives tips for women returning to working life.

"Geh' doch mal zu JOB!" (for employees and employers);

these brochures give details of the JOB temporary placement service organized by the employment exchanges (Annexes 13 and 14).

- 2.32 The Institute for Research into the Labour Market and the Professions has also investigated the special problems of women workers.

Hans Hofbauer et. al, "Die Rückkehr von Frauen in das Erwerbsleben" Mitteilungen des IAB Nr. 9/1969 (Annex 15),

Hans Kohler and Lutz Reyher,

"Erwerbstätigkeitsphasen der Frauen", Mitteilungen des IAB Nr. 3/1970 (Annex 16),

"Erwerbstätige Frauen nach Berufen und Ausbildungsarten", Materialien aus der Arbeitsmarkt- und Berufsforschung

Nr. 23/1971 (Annex 17),

Hans Hofbauer, "Potentielle Berufsfelder für Frauen", Mitteilungen des IAB Nr. 3/1971 (Annex 18)

On invitation career advisers and the officials from headquarters and the provincial employment offices responsible for women workers participate in meetings covering problems of vocational training in general and of women in particular, or to prepare papers.

They also sit on working parties studying these subjects.

1. A 3 How they function

- 3.1 Procedure for vocational guidance intervention and machinery for quantitative and qualitative adjustment.

- 3.11 Vocational guidance methods

Among the methods used in vocational guidance are:

Visits to schools

Parents' meetings

Preparation of visits to firms and introductory courses

Lectures

Exhibitions

Film shows

Information centres (in preparation)

Vocational guidance of the public

#### Individual guidance

The main task of the vocational guidance service is to give advice and information individually. The concrete wishes of the young person seeking advice are discovered in a talk with the counsellor. The counsellor makes every effort to obtain information about the young person's mental and physical capabilities on the one hand and his or her inclinations on the other. Alternative training methods are worked out, so that the young person - if necessary together with his or her parents or guardians - can have a better idea of the available training courses, study courses or professions and can choose the career which appears best for him. Several visits to the counsellor are often necessary.



Young people whose talents and inclinations are as yet unclear can, with their permission or that of their parents or guardians, undergo a psychological and medical examination.

This examination is particularly important for handicapped young people and school leavers wishing to enter training courses.

Placement in vocational training posts is also part of the work of the vocational advisory service, although many young people do not make use of the employment exchanges for this purpose.

In areas with a weak or one-sided economic structure it is not always possible to offer suitable opportunities for vocational training. These difficulties can be overcome by transfer into the catchment area of another employment exchange. This is particularly true of placement in training posts in areas bordering on large cities, so that the young people can continue to live at home, although they may have to travel a long way to work. It is also possible to place an applicant in a training post a long way from home, but girls rarely make use of this.

In order to ensure that suitable applicants are placed only in approved training posts, the vocational guidance service of the employment exchanges cooperates closely with the bodies set up under the Vocational Training Law and their training posts.

In addition to placing trainees, the employment exchange also provides information about training in higher vocational training schools, specialized training schools and other vocational training centres. This is particularly important for girls who tend more strongly than boys towards college-based vocational training, once they have finished their compulsory general education.

The Ministers of Education of the various Länder have created a network to provide vocational guidance to pupils still at school. Educational guidance and vocational advice complement each other. Educational guidance aims to provide information on the most suitable type of school for the individual, vocational guidance, as already said, on the most suitable form of vocational training. The Decision of 5 February 1971 drew up a basic agreement on cooperation between schools and the vocational guidance service (Annex 19).

### 3.12 Vocational advisory service and placement

The aim of job placement is to bring applicants for work together with employers to draw up a contractual relationship (Article 13(1 AFG)). The task of job placement services is therefore to provide applicants with work and employers with the workers they need.

An applicant for work is defined as any person who can do a task for which workers are usually employed. An application for work is defined as any application, whether oral, by telephone or in writing, for placement in a contractual relationship or as a home worker. These criteria also apply to the placement order.

The applicant who is to be proposed for placement, or the job which is to be offered to an applicant, are to be selected in the light of the total range of jobs available and the overall demand.

Systematic selection, for example in the order in which applications are received, is not permitted.

The applicant should as a rule first be informed personally of the proposed placement, and given an opportunity of commenting. The placement service is obliged to inform the applicant of all important circumstances which may help him reach a decision, and give him advice.

Job placements for women must take into account the fact that women's choice of employment may be restricted by domestic and family ties. Their sphere of action can however be further expanded.

Every placement agency must keep in personal touch with firms, unions and administrative units and visit them regularly. A satisfactory solution to individual problems calls for cooperation with other offices in his own agency.

In making the placement it is necessary to bear in mind the physical and mental capabilities of the applicant and the demands of the vacant job. Cooperation with the medical, psychological and technical advisory services may be necessary.

If it is not possible to place a worker in the catchment area of a given employment agency, several agencies may cooperate to find an equitable solution. There are various balancing mechanisms for this purpose (~~greater~~-city, provincial, federal, according to aims, according to qualifications and ad hoc).

Open vacancies and applications for a placement outside the catchment area of the applicant's employment exchange can, as appropriate, be published centrally or regionally in the weekly vacancy and applicant advertiser "Markt und Chance".

Each provincial employment agency (Landesarbeitsamt - LAA) contains a provincial placement office (Landesstelle für Arbeitsvermittlung - LAV) for placing people with special qualifications, covered at federal level by the federal placement office (Zentralstelle für Arbeitsvermittlung - ZAV). The business management office (Büro Führungskräfte - BFW) is responsible for filling posts at management level including the training of future managers. The ZAV also includes an office for managers of international organizations ("Büro Führungskräfte zu Internationalen Organisationen" - BFIO).

The distinction between professions covered by the ZAV and the LAV is made in the "careers catalogue". The ZAV is responsible for graduates of an academic university or people with equivalent training and experience. The LAV is mainly responsible for graduates of a technical university or people with equivalent training and experience.

In addition the Federal Labour Office has set up special placement centres for particular professions in the main areas of need.

The breakdown of the organization units in the placement division of an employment exchange comprises:

General and specialized placement agencies

Advisory service

Office for multiple tasks

Special placement agencies have for example been set up for the seriously handicapped and those in course of rehabilitation, young people, temporary staff ("Job" for salaried employees and "Servus" for other trades for activity up to three months), students, etc.

Job counsellors are specially trained experts who inform those seeking advice of the possibilities for further vocational training and retraining including the grants obtainable under the Work Promotion Law.

The coordinating office carries out cross-section programmes from the placement department.

Work is divided out according to the various demands made on an organizational unit; these require of the staff various personal qualities and different types of training and further training. Social and economic understanding, tact, an extensive knowledge and experience of various types of job and firm together with initiative, adaptability and love of one's work are essential.

An organigram is enclosed at Annex 20.

In order to make the labour market as transparent as possible and rapidly harmonize supply and demand, data processing is gradually being introduced for job placement (computerunterstützte Arbeitsvermittlung - coArb). Code systems have been set up for technicians and engineers, so that applications and vacant positions can be compared by a data-sorting device and cards printed. Eighteen characteristics are included. Vacancies are classified according to the number of matching characteristics. This technical aid is intended to give employees and employers a better overall view and choice. It complements, but does not replace, individual counselling. Further code systems are being developed.

- 3.13 If the labour market is able to absorb further workers, reserves are mobilized by informing the public, advertising, introducing part-time work and temporary jobs, overtime, etc. and by measures intended to encourage people to go back to work.

A recession on the open market, on the other hand, means that overtime is stopped, no more workers are hired and jobs which become vacant are no longer filled. Short time may also be introduced or workers may be dismissed. In some cases the employers pay compensation or work out social welfare plans to encourage workers to give notice.

Workers are qualified for new jobs by a broad range of training measures. General education is free and the teacher is free to make his own choice of teaching material. In training schemes run by the firms the trainee receives a training allowance.

The BA is making every effort to train qualified new staff. In 1973 4 043 = 12% of all officials and salaried employees were undergoing training or further training. In the same period the BA organized a total of 694 training and further training courses with in all 16 296 participants.

### 3.2 Vocational openings and training offered

The choice of a profession is understood as a decision-making process. For each individual the large number of possible careers must be reduced to one. The BA offers its services in many different forms. Consultation is generally voluntary. Counselling and placement in training centres are also impartial and free.

#### Training methods and stages of training

Under the structural plan of the German Training Council (1969) and the overall educational plan of the Joint Federal and Provincial Commission for Educational Planning (1973), vocational training including on-job training supplemented by attendance at a vocational training school (dual system) forms part of secondary education. This also applies to full-time education in preparation for vocational training in the tertiary sphere (Abitur, University).

### 3.21 Vocational retraining not covered by the Work Promotion Law

Experience has shown that a considerable number of firms and government departments organize vocational training schemes for their own staff. Timetables and teaching methods depend on the needs of the individual firm.

In addition there are numerous state-run and private training centres and centres run by charitable organizations or trade unions, which offer vocational training courses.

### 3.3 Results

Number of gainfully employed persons and number of women workers receiving vocational guidance.

Since the Work Promotion Law makes no special provision for the vocational guidance and job guidance placement of women, the provision of separate placement agencies for male and female applicants has been abandoned. This organizational change does not imply a denial that women may have special problems in working life. This has been taken into account organizationally and in staffing.

In the reference year (1 October 1972-30 September 1973) the vocational advisory services advised 439 382 women = 49.6% of all applicants.

In the reference year 67.0% of female school leavers consulted the vocational advisory service, compared with 62.2% of male school leavers. It should be noted that 51.9% of the girls leaving school with Abitur, but only 38.5% of the boys, made use of the vocational advisory service.

As in previous years, women applicants who had completed elementary school were mostly interested in jobs in the service sector (60.5%). Manufacturing and technical occupations interested only a relatively small percentage (5.2% and 2.4% respectively). The percentage of such women who had an undefined wish for a profession rose to 15.9%, and the percentage of those without any wish for a profession was 14.9% - a rise on previous years.

In contrast to this, the largest percentage of male applicants who had completed elementary school showed a trend in this reference year towards manufacturing jobs (47.9%). Next came the servicing jobs (14.1%) and technical jobs (5.2%). 1.4% were interested in other vocations (e.g. farming). Among male applicants too the percentage with indefinite vocational wishes had risen and was 14.3%, while the percentage with no idea which career they wished to follow was 17.1%.

Compared with female school leavers who had completed only elementary school, female applicants who had attended an intermediate school showed more interest in technical occupations. However, the percentage of girls with no definite idea about their future career was also higher. Although the percentage of girls interested in the service sector was only a few percentage points lower than that for girls who had completed only elementary school, interest in particular careers differed greatly.

Although among male applicants also, the largest percentage - 34.9% - of those who had attended an intermediate school were interested in the service sector this figure was still 22.6% lower than in the case of girls from the same schools. In contrast to boys with only elementary education, of the boys who had attended an intermediate school only 11.3% showed interest in the manufacturing sector.

The wishes of girls holding Abitur did not greatly differ from those of girls who had completed only elementary or intermediate school. It should be noted that the percentage of girls interested in a career in the technical sector rises with their qualifications. However the percentage of female applicants who have no idea which career they wish to follow also rises with the degree of education. The same trend is also visible among boys.

The monthly average figure for women applying to the job placement service in 1973 was 218 792, or 48.4% of all applicants. Jobs were found in the course of the year for 728 311 women. In the same period women submitted 58 416 applications for individual assistance in further vocational training and retraining and introductory courses, as compared with 218 492 applications from men.

Hofbauer's investigation "Rückkehr von Frauen in das Erwerbsleben" also covers previous training and vocational qualifications. He found that women who had been apprentices or trainees were more strongly represented among those returning to work than among working women as a whole, while the percentage of women who had attended a vocational training school was lower.

Workers who have not completed vocational training are more seriously affected by unemployment. According to a "Structural analysis on unemployment" carried out by the BA at the end of September 1973, 43.3% of all unemployed men and 60.1% of all unemployed women had not completed a vocational training course.

In addition to the lower level of training of women, another cause of their higher unemployment is probably their wish for part-time employment (30.3%) and the fact that the branches of the economy particularly seriously affected by long-term weakness employ large numbers of women.

### 3.4 Cost and financing of vocational guidance and job placement

In order to finance its work the BA collects contributions from employers and employees (Article 167 of the Work Promotion Law). With a few exceptions, all persons carrying out paid work or undergoing vocational training must contribute (Article 168). The rate of contribution for both employers and employees is 1% (Article 174).

In 1973 also the contributions based on the regulation on the amount of contributions to the BA (Contribution Regulation 1972) of 4 November 1971 were each levied at a rate of 0.85%. Income from contributions to the BA amounted to DM 5 826.6 million. With income from other sources, this makes a total of DM 7 469.0 million. Total expenditure amounted to DM 6 807.1 million, of which employment policy measures accounted for DM 2 277.3 million and expenditure on the special tasks and commissions financed by the Federal Government and the individual Länder amounted to DM 1 440.4 million.

(in million DM)

Cost of staff and equipment	1970	1971	1972	1973
Job placement	401.3	480.2	544.4	655.1
Vocational guidance	148.8	171.6	219.7	264.3

## 1. B Vocational training for women workers

### 1. B 1 Laws, Regulations and Agreements

See 1. A 1; Laws and Administrative Regulations generally apply equally to men and women workers.

### 1. B 2 Institutions, structures and methods of procedure

Article 1 of the Vocational Training Law states that vocational training in the sense of that Law includes vocational training, further training and retraining.

The object of vocational training is to provide an ordered course giving a wide basic training and inculcating the necessary skills and knowledge required to hold a qualified post. It must also permit the trainee to obtain the necessary vocational experience.

### Institutional structure of vocational training

Vocational training within the meaning of the Vocational Training Law is carried out in business firms, in comparable institutions outside industry and commerce, in particular the public services, among self-employed persons and in households (on-job training) as well as in vocational training schools and other vocational training institutions outside school and on-job training.

### 2.1 Training at school

The School Law governs building of schools, compulsory education and the rights of parents and teachers; it is drawn up by the Länder. Because the individual Länder are the final authorities on education, Federal regulations are replaced by agreements between Länder.

Only rarely are the schools themselves private schools or independent public-law institutions. They are usually dependent institutes belonging to the body responsible for the school, which is generally a public-law body, e.g. a commune, a group of communes or the State.

Agreements made at the conference of Ministers of Education settle inter alia the start of the school year, dates of holidays, marks, foreign language tuition, the use of school books, teacher training, mutual recognition of qualifications etc.

### Survey of the general and vocational school system

There is no compulsory pre-school education.

All children who have completed their sixth year and not yet completed their eighteenth year must attend school. Compulsory full-time education ends after nine years. All pupils who do not go on to further full-time education, attend part-time classes. This compulsory vocational-school training (which runs side by side with vocational training) normally ends with the completion of the eighteenth year.

All pupils must attend primary school (Grundschule), which as a rule lasts four years.

This is followed by the second level of the elementary school (Hauptschule) which is compulsory for all pupils who do not transfer to a comprehensive school (Gesamtschule), an intermediate school (Realschule) or a grammar school (Gymnasium). A compulsory tenth year of education is being introduced. In some Länder a "leaving certificate" can be obtained at the end of this stage, permitting transfer to other methods of education.

The intermediate school (Realschule) leads to the Intermediate School Leaving Certificate which is a condition for entry to several types of vocational training and to further education classes for qualifying for university entry.

The Gymnasium is the only type of school containing secondary stages I and II and leading to university matriculation.

After leaving the Hauptschule many people begin their vocational training. If necessary it may be preceded by a basic training year, to give the applicant an idea of a particular range of professions, from which he or she will later have to choose the one in which he or she is to be trained. This year counts as one year for the purposes of further vocational training.

Basically, vocational training can take place in two ways:

- by the dual system of cooperation between vocational training schools and practical on-job training;
- or in full-time vocational schools (Berufsfachschule). These provide full-time courses lasting one-three years and provide both vocational and general education. They can lead to a certificate in a recognized profession requiring training, attendance at these schools can be counted as part of the training or may lead to training in a profession which can only be obtained in these schools.

Persons who have completed the necessary vocational training or proved that they have equivalent experience, may attend a two-year course at a higher technical school (Fachoberschule), which qualifies them for entry to the technical university. They place emphasis on further general education and on theoretical and practical technical training.

After completion of the basic vocational training there are various forms of further vocational training:

- complementary vocational training schools (Berufsaufbauschulen) lead to the intermediate certificate;
- technical schools (Fachschulen) provide practical vocational training and practice, e.g., as "state certified technician" or "state certified business consultant", or qualify for entry to a technical university;
- technical colleges (Berufsoberschulen) provide training after the intermediate Vocational Training Certificate. After a two-year course they qualify the student for the study of specific subjects at technical university level, or for entry to technical or academic universities.



The great distinction between general and vocational education has the following causes:

- the different educational qualifications required by various forms of vocational training (vocational training courses and college-based courses);
- in order to obtain a high degree of flexibility between schools permitting a student to qualify for university or technical university by the "second educational path" (Zweiten Bildungsweg), thus guaranteeing equality of opportunity at all levels of qualification.

## 2.2 Out-of-school vocational training

This takes place in occupations recognized as requiring training (465 in 1975) under the "dual system". Practical on-job training is supplemented by theoretical training in a vocational training school. The content and length of the training are prescribed by law (Vocational Training Law and implementing regulations). Young people under eighteen years of age may be trained only in an occupation recognized as requiring training.

### 2.21 Training institutions

These are

- industrial, commercial, craft or agricultural undertakings, comparable institutions in the public service and similar fields and
- vocational training schools.

The type, equipment and teacher-pupil ratio in the training institutions must be suitable for the purpose, and the instructors must be technically and personally suitable for vocational training. Suitability is tested by definite criteria.

As not all firms have the necessary training facilities, it is becoming increasingly common for a group of firms to set up a common training school.

The trainee must be released from work to attend the vocational training school, which has departments for each trade taught. Most of the teaching is concerned with the trade, and its underlying principles and deeper connections are made clear. Young people who have no training contract must also attend vocational training schools, where they are taught in special classes. Young people who have been unable to obtain a place as trainee or could not begin their vocational training because of poor performance at school may attend a basic training course (duration up to one year) organized by the employment exchanges.

## 2.22 Organizations or undertakings

The main organizations concerned in vocational training are the Chambers (industrial and trade organizations in the form of public-law bodies) which are the bodies made responsible by the Vocational Training Law for supervizing the suitability of personnel and firms, advising undertakings, keeping registers of training conditions, and organizing examinations.

The Federal Institute for Research into Vocational Training prepares the regulations on training to be published by the Ministry responsible. It must permanently observe, examine and evaluate the situation and requirements of vocational training.

- 2.3 The various types of training are as follows: basic training, special training, refresher courses and retraining, conversion, promotion, preparation for return to gainful employment, etc.

Please refer to Section 1 B 2.2 for details of basic training and special training.

The terms "refresher courses", "retraining" and "promotion" are taken in what follows to mean aspects of "further vocational training".

"Further vocational training" in the sense in which it is used here is of two types:

- initiatives taken by employers and/or employees and financed by one or both parties;
- provision and financing of vocational training facilities and schemes by the Government for reasons of employment policy (Article 2 of the Employment Provision Law).

Great importance is attached to the latter. As part of its vocational further training schemes (Articles 41-46 of the Employment Provision Law) the BA encourages participation in schemes intended to determine a student's vocational skills and knowledge, to preserve them, expand them or adapt them to technological developments, or to qualify him or her for promotion.

Vocational retraining is also promoted by the BA. It entails participation in projects aimed to facilitate transfer into another job, with the chief aim of ensuring or improving vocational mobility (Articles 47-49 on Work Promotion Law).

The Directive of the Administrative Council of the BA on the Promotion of Individual Vocational Training and Retraining of 9 September 1971, as amended by the second amending Directive of 27 February 1975, governs the type of promotional measures, the workers covered and the procedures used.

Articles 50-52 of the Work Promotion Law form the legal basis for promoting institutions for vocational training. There is no right to promotion: its type, extent and the procedure followed are governed by the directive "Promotion of Vocational Training Institutes".

Article 2(5) of the Work Promotion Law obliges the BA to ensure that "jobs are found for women whose reintegration under the normal conditions prevailing on the labour market is rendered more difficult because they are or have been married or are or have been bound by other domestic duties". The Law also lays down in respect of the further vocational training mentioned above that assistance will be given to participation in measures aimed at permitting or facilitating "the entry or re-entry of female applicants into working life".

### 1.B.3 How they function

#### 3.1 Access of women workers to vocational training

Article 12 of the Constitution guarantees a choice of career and training free from all State interference. Access takes place via an open market governed by the laws of supply and demand. The vocational guidance service of the BA helps applicants to help themselves by offering career advice and help in placing in trainee jobs. See 1 A.3.

#### 3.2 Present training facilities

See also 1 B 2.1 and 1 B 2.2;

In principle all kinds of work are open to girls, with the exception of those unsuitable for their health and physical constitution, e.g., underground mining.

However, girls still concentrate on a small number of careers (office work, domestic science, social work) because of traditional behaviour patterns, which in turn lead to their being under-represented at higher management levels.

It must also be noted that the percentage of unskilled workers is higher among women than among men. Investigation has shown that two-thirds of the pupils at vocational training schools without a training agreement were girls.

### 3.3 Number of trainees

According to the structural data published by the Federal Minister for Education and Science (provisional in some cases) the number of trainees in 1973 and 1974 was:

#### - vocational training schools

Year	Male		Female	
	in thousands/as % of peer group		in thousands/as % of peer group	
1973	1 272.9	55.7	1 001.1	48.8
1974	1 281.8	54.5	1 007.2	48.6

#### - university

Year	Male	Female
1973	489.5	233.7
1974	529.5	250.1

#### - trainees within the meaning of the Vocational Training Law

Year	Male	Female
1973	869.9	485.1
1974	873.8	487.2

The figure for trainees is also included in the figure for pupils at vocational training schools (see 3.2).

The concentration of female trainees or students in a few careers is made clear by the following figures: 30.0% of the female trainees but only 7.7% of the males chose to train as shop assistants and 26.9% of the girls compared with 6.2% of the boys were training for administrative and office work. 32.1% of the female students and 9.0% of the male students were studying at colleges of education.

### 3.4 Procedures and machinery for adjustment of training resources to requirements

The statements made under 3.1 also apply here.

Continual economic change and the resulting alteration in employment structures constantly make new demands on the education system. In spite of certain short-term automatic regulating mechanisms, in the long term, state research into careers, vocational training and career planning is necessary.

Various institutions have been set up for this purpose, e.g.:

- the Federal Institute into Research into Vocational Training,
- the Institute for Research into the Labour Market and Careers of the BA, and
- the Joint Commission for the Planning of Vocational Training set up by the Federal Government and the Länder.

### 3.5 Results (certificates and diplomas, training/employment ratio)

Both college-based and on-job training end with examinations, whose results are embodied in certificates or diplomas. These are necessary for employment as a skilled worker, for entry to a given career in industry and administration and for obtaining further qualifications (see 3.21); they are also required by law for the practice of certain activities (e.g., nurse, doctor, judge).

### 3.6 Cost and financing of vocational training

The costs of vocational training cannot be accurately determined, as there are too many responsible bodies each with its own budget, whether public or private. In addition the costs of college-based training must be added to the cost of vocational training alone (including individual benefits under the Vocational Training Promotion Law). Vocational training is financed by direct and indirect taxes, levies and fees, by contributions from undertakings to the chambers and by deducting the cost for on-job training.

The following figures, taken from the overall training plan of the joint Federal and Provincial Commission for Vocational Training, give an approximate survey of expenditure on training by local bodies:

Year	Cost	Percentage increase compared with previous year
1970	29.2 Mrd DM	-
1971	34.4 Mrd DM	17.8
1972	38.7 Mrd DM	12.5
1973	44.5 Mrd DM	14.9

These figures do not include the costs incurred by other bodies - whether public-law bodies such as the BA and the Social Security. In 1973 for example the BA spent approximately DM 1.8 thousand million on vocational training, retraining and further training.

## 2. Analysis of obstacles, difficulties and problems met by women workers in vocational guidance and training

### 2.1 Legal and institutional

The legal and administrative regulations forbidding the employment of women in certain fields and of the training of girls for work in these fields, (e.g., underground work in mining, work on building sites, employment in certain chemical production processes) were drawn up to prevent physical exhaustion and problems.

However, the existing regulations, e.g., the ban on night work for women in industry can lead to various problems on the labour market unless alternative activities are provided.

### 2.2 Psychological and sociological

Traditional views of whether a girl should be given vocational training, and if so which career she should follow, may cause obstacles and difficulties - particularly if they form the consensus of opinion in the region under question. Other factors may be a lack of geographical mobility and in some cases the view that vocational training is not as necessary for girls as it is for boys, as women "usually" only work for a short time. In areas with a weak economic structure, or single-industry areas, this view makes the situation even worse.

Society's expectations of the behaviour of the two sexes on the one hand, and of the role of a given profession on the other, are among the circumstances which have led to the concentration of working women in a few professions (e.g., social work, nursing, sales assistant and office work, light industrial work), and which also act as an obstacle to the expansion of the field of activity of women.

Another basic problem which is already latent in the choice of a career and the vocational training of girls is that of harmonizing the demands of a career and those of the family.

### 2.3 Economic and practical

Because of the circumstances indicated under 2.2, women without an adequate vocational qualification are so much at the mercy of economic changes that they are more easily threatened and affected by unemployment than men. This applies above all to rationalization measures, structural changes in single industries and in sectors, and recessions.

### 3. Solutions and prospects

Equal treatment for men and women is guaranteed by the Constitution (Article 3(2)). The same opportunities for career counselling and vocational training are in theory available to both boys and girls. The actual situation is however completely different: as we have already said, the girls themselves, their parents and teachers, employers and at least some sections of society still have certain views and certain behaviour patterns. These views must be gradually changed; in addition it is absolutely necessary to open wider fields of activity (in addition to the traditional women's careers) to girls and persuade them to obtain higher qualifications corresponding more closely to their share in the working population.

EUROPEAN SEMINAR

on

"Vocational guidance and training for women workers"

Phase A : Situation, achievements, problems in vocational guidance and training for women workers in Belgium.

Rapporteur : Mrs Colette MOREL

1.A. Vocational training for women workers

1 A.1. Educational and vocational information and guidance is governed by the Royal Decree of 13 August 1962 of the psycho-medical centres and vocational and educational guidance offices. This royal decree was amended in 1964, (RD 23/10) in 1965 (RD 21/5) in 1970 (RD 6/3) 1971 (22/7; 10/8; 23/9) and in 1975 (24/1; 30/1; 3/3).

1.A.2. There are two types of institutions : the psycho-medical-social centres and the educational and vocational guidance offices. They are termed official if they are organised by the State, the provinces, "communes" and associations of public authorities. The others are termed non-State and are subsidized if they conform to the RD of 13.8.62. The others are private.

2.1. The official centres and offices do not establish diagnoses of the labour market and occupations. This is due in part to their instability. We asked a non-state centre the following question : if a young girl wanted to become a nursery school teacher (at present an overcrowded occupation requiring a short and monovalent training period), what would you advise her to do ? The reply was that if the girl possessed the necessary gifts, she would be advised to take up this occupation. If she needed money, she would be warned of the current situation and shown the unemployment statistics of the ONEM (National Employment Office). It may be said that educational and vocational training in Belgium does not take account of the possibilities of jobs openings and seems to act completely independently from them. As stated above, one of the reasons is the constantly changing labour market and occupations' situation. Another is the lack of funds available to the offices and centres. One Adviser, a head of department in vocational guidance, wrote in 1959



"Educators do not have the right to place education apparatus at the service of the major objectives of economic expansion. Furthermore, the professional principles of the psychologist prevent him from giving information in order to guide (Reuchlin), but he quickly pointed out "Young persons, however, who are victims of unemployment, are surely being truly alienated. We should therefore attempt to protect them by supplying unbiased information, even if situations fluctuate to such an extent that the best data for 1968 were reversed in 1971. It is essential to watch for such reversals, and to recognize them when they occur". The warning seems to have passed unheard.

2.2. Data distributed by the centres and offices were prepared voluntarily by a series of persons in 1970-71. They consist mainly of cards filed according to occupation, noting the job, its description and current work circumstances. Vocational and initial training are noted, as are the salary scales or wages. Only rarely one finds a brief outline of the state of the labour market for the occupation question. These card files have not been updated since. Furthermore, they are not available to consultants.

Group information sessions are held at the end of the study cycle, as required by law. Several brochures and monographs on occupations, edited by ONEM, are available to the instructors. They are laid out on the same basis as the card files. Since these brochures reflect current occupations, they are determined by sex as are the latter in present times. Thus we see monographs on "the seamstress" and "the welder". It is pointless to insist on the bad psychological effect this has on persons coming for information. No better way could be found to prolong the excessive segregation and concentration between men and women on the labour market.

2.3. Educational and vocational guidance is based on the aptitudes, skills and interests of the person ... his sex and his social environment. One can only regret the lack of innovating spirit shown by the FMS and OP centres. Action taken by these institutions has hitherto served only to widen the social and cultural breaches. In the May edition of a Brussels' magazine, those responsible for non-State education published several pages on educational and vocational guidance.

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R. DERIVIERE in Documentation n° 32 "Prospective de l'Emploi pour les jeunes" (Employment prospects for the young) 15/4/1969.

Under the general heading "Educational and vocational guidance for men", the first sub-heading was "industry", then "mechanics", "electricity", "metal", "wood", "building-construction", etc ... On one of the following pages headed "Educational and vocational guidance for women", the first sub-heading was "clothing" then "family and health work" "miscellaneous (social, technique, sciences)", "beautician" and lastly "industry". This presentations leaves one in no doubt as to the order of priorities.

#### 1.A.3. How they function.

3.1. The centres and offices intervene only when the permission of parents or guardians has been obtained. Permission is required for school children aged 12, 15 and 18 years, and from all parents with children completing the primary, lower secondary and higher secondary cycle of State and non-State education.

3.2. The selection of jobs and types of training available is conventional and reflects the attitudes based on sex in the labour market.

3.2.1. Guidance only covers the choosing of a first training course or educational qualification. Belgium does not appear to have an official body responsible for guiding adults in the selection of vocational guidance after school (ONEM, dealt with below, sometimes performs this service).

3.2.2. There is no documentation on these items.

3.2.3.

#### 3.3. Results.

3.3.1. Unfortunately, no conclusions can be drawn on guidance provided by the centres to the female population. The statistic referring to the number of examinations is not broken down by sex. The only information available on this subject is contained in the figures published by the national education department showing the distribution by sex of pupils in their last term of primary school and at the end of the first and second cycle of secondary education. It appears that few parents are opposed to their children taking the tests. But of course there are no statistics on the number of children who follow the advice of the institution ... and whether they follow it profitably or not.

3.3.2. In Belgium, training for girls is still very traditional, dressmaking and nursery-school teaching still being in the forefront. Educational and vocational guidance does not appear to attempt

to counteract this movement and even favours it. The unfortunate consequence of this training is clear : Belgian women are not ready to hold a competitive position on the labour market. Their training is of no value and they are compelled to take the worst jobs left to them.

3.4. The centres are financed by an ordinary budget (the breakdown of expenditure was requested but we have not yet received it).

Comment. There are private (non-profit making) and non-State centres dealing with vocational guidance, e.g., Infor-femmes. Their data take account of the state of the market but their activities are not as yet well-known or widespread. These centres become known by word of mouth and are aimed at women in financial difficulties. Under such conditions, the centres only offer relatively short training courses leading to fairly gainful occupations, e.g., secretary, or jobs which society agrees to term as "feminine".

#### 1.B. Vocational training for women workers.

1.B.1. There are three types of vocational training possible in Belgium. The first and most important is organized by the Ministry for National Education and French culture and by the Ministerie van Nationale Opvoeding en Nederlandse cultuur. It concerns technical and vocational education governed by the law of 7 July 1970 on the general structure of higher education. We are only concerned with Article 1 (2) of Chapter 1 of this law, which states that "secondary education and higher education shall be given as full-time education and education for social promotion. Pending a law on higher education for social promotion, the latter is organized by the King on the advice of competent counsel : the law of 16.7.70 states that "reduced-time education shall be termed education for social promotion". The types and classifications of training provided by these Ministries are shown in Articles 7 and 8 of the R.D. of 30.4.1957.

#### 1.B.2.

2.1. Institutions or schools are mainly of the public type. There are two dominant networks : the state, provinces and communes, called the state network which in 1972-73 represented 51.5% of the schools, and the non-state network (subsidized) which represented 48.5%.

2.2. The technical and vocational schools mainly provide initial training. The social promotion classes, however, usually given in the evenings and at weekends, enable the students to benefit from training for qualifications, retraining, promotion or to return on the labour market.

1.B.3. How they function.

3.1. In principle, no distinction is made any longer between boys and girls, more and more schools admitting both. This trend is becoming increasingly widespread and, once this transitional period is over, most schools will be completely mixed. Nevertheless, the non-state sector still distinguishes on grounds of sex. In 1970, there were still three times more schools for girls than for boys whilst the number of female pupils was not even half the average number of boys in the male institutions. Article 7 of the R.D. of 30.4.57 states that in order to enter into the lower secondary cycle in technical education, the pupil must have successfully completed the third grade of his primary studies. To enter the higher secondary cycle, he must have successfully completed the third year of the lower secondary cycle, and to enter the higher cycle, he must have successfully completed the higher secondary cycle. The conditions of access to vocational education are the same in most respects. (Art. 8, R.D. 30.4.57).

Social advancement education follows the same lines and has the same conditions of entry as in ordinary education. Passing an entry examination, however, generally makes it possible to start these studies at any time.

3.2. Present training systems.

3.2.1. and 3.2.3. The types of training offered by technical and vocational education are as follows :

At the level of the lower cycle, (12/13 years after primary school) a short training course of 4 years (+ 1 optional year for advanced training) in the following sections :

- agriculture and horticulture
- industry and craft trades
- training specifically for women : dressmaking, domestic economy
- plastic arts : decorative arts, fashion drawing
- trade
- various training courses : beauty care, hotel trade.

The vocational school sections are virtually the same.

At the level of the secondary cycle :

- nursery school teacher training
  - primary school teacher training
- 1st cycle

For boys (non-State network)

- agricultural education
- industrial education
- artistic education
- business education
- modern languages
- education of maladjusted children.

For girls :

- greatly reduced industrial education
- artistic education
- but including : chemist's assistant  
clothing industry  
decorative arts  
social welfare  
nursing

Vocational education is determined by sex to an even greater extent when it leads directly to a trade, e.g., typo-offset, carpentry, welding, garage, radio and television, motor mechanics.

For girls : window dressing and sales, office work, home help, child welfare ... \*

Offence should not be taken at this obvious segregation. It is, after all, an excellent preparation for what the young may expect to find on the labour market.

Most parents and young women are clearly hesitant to send their children or to subject themselves to an education system for which their youth and environment have not prepared them. Since it has taken so long to open the portals, we cannot expect young women to suddenly rush in. It is not enough to be able to follow a training course, interesting in itself, to find an excellent position on the labour market. Such opportunity of employment for women, is far from being a fact.

B.3.3. In the school year 1972-73 there were 67,611 girls in day technical and vocational institutions compared with 68,196 boys in the French and German speaking parts of the country.

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\* See Annex for complete list.

In technical training there were 37,271 girls and 52,050 boys, in vocational training there were 30,340 girls and 16,146 boys. It should be pointed out that vocational training which, according to the national federation for catholic education, should be "education for persons with manual aptitudes", is unfortunately only a collection of pupils having failed in other studies or intellectually retarded. In 1972-73, between 52.6 and 57.3% of girls in lower secondary technical schools were backward (\*) whilst the percentages for boys in the same sector varied between 72.5 and 83.6%. The situation also occurs to a lesser extent in technical education.

Technical and vocational training in Belgium indisputably lacks intellectual standing (social advancement training comprised 44,796 boys and 37,438 girls in 1973, most of them doing technical studies : 32,182 boys and 20,438 girls). Girls in the lower technical courses are concentrated in the clothing, domestic economy, business and beauty sect. In secondary technical training, they are found in the chemistry, decorative arts, domestic economy, business, paramedical and educational sections. In higher technical training, which is open to girls (7,990 and 5,025 boys) they choose chemistry, plastic arts, business and especially the paramedical services (\*\*).

From data available, it can be seen that girls look mainly for a type of training that is not very advanced (vocational), and when they go for a more interesting type of education, they select those sections dealing with personal care, i.e., those leading to the so-called feminine occupations. Which is only logical in view of the jobs offered to women. One can only be perplexed, however, at the large number of girls who, as initial training, decide to allow themselves the luxury of dressmaking classes which, as the 1970 survey showed, of all the sections which lead to all - or nothing, this is it.

3.5. The only statistics available date from 1970 (survey).

3.6. State budget.

B.1. A second type of vocational training is that organized by the Ministry for Small Firms and Trades. This training is governed by the Royal Decree of 13 April 1959 on vocational training and advanced vocational training in trades and small firms (Moniteur of 25.4.59) amended by Royal Decree of 25.2.71 (Moniteur of 20.3.71°).

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(\*) In the French and German speaking parts of the country.

(\*\*) See Annex.

2.2. Vocational training provided in the context of apprenticeship contracts comprises practical training in the workshop or on the floor of a firm (SMF), supplemented by general and vocational training classes. This training is provided jointly by the small and medium-sized firms and the educational institution.

2.3. The training provided is aimed both at apprenticeship to a first trade and advanced vocational training and thus at promotion.

### 8.3. How they function.

Vocational training courses are organized at the qualification and employer stages. Those admitted (\*) to the general knowledge and vocational knowledge courses are apprentices under an apprenticeship contract approved by the Ministry for Small Firms and Trades and those learning a trade connected with the craft trade, small or medium-sized firms and all small industries, and able to furnish documentary evidence. A 14-year old child may request an apprenticeship contract. Those admitted to general knowledge and vocational classes at the employer stage are pupils aged 18 years with minimum training : "bearers of a certificate of qualification or a certificate stating that the person concerned has passed the general knowledge test of the qualifying examination" or a certificate of technical or vocational training at the lower grade.

3.2. As we have seen, there are two types of successive training provided for by the law. In practice, there can be three. The first is at the qualifying stage, is termed pre-employer training and lasts a maximum of four years. The general training section comprises French (or Dutch), arithmetic, business and "familiarization in law" classes. As to vocational training itself, it is organized for a large number of trades in the following sectors ; foodstuffs, textiles, wood, leather, non precious metals, precious metals, mechanics, electricity, precision machining, construction-stone-concrete, painting and decorating, printing and binding, office equipment, glass, photography and graphics, care of persons, cultures, retail, wholesale and other trades. As regards employer training, "the general trend, as regards general knowledge and according to the occupation, consists in setting up

(\*) Regulation on vocational training courses (approved by the Ministry on 9 November 1971)

(\*) See list in the Annex.

homogeneous groups making it possible to plan the programmes in keeping with the needs of the groups. Furthermore, an effort is being made to compose these groups in keeping with previous training : an adjusted management programme could be set up (\*). Specific training is given in the following sectors (\*\*): foodstuffs, textile, wood, leather, non-precious metals, precious metals, mechanics, electricity and precision machining, construction-stone-concrete, painting and decorating, printing and binding, office equipment, glass, photography and graphics, care of persons, cultures, miscellaneous, retail trade, other trades, wholesale trade.

The third stage, advanced vocational training, only holds conferences on the "small firms and trades" problem during study days on technical problems and seminars.

3.3. The only available figures broken down by sex concern the first training stage : pre-employer training. At the national and general level, the four groups of occupations which comprise the highest total of staff since 1972 are as follows :

	% in 1973
metals sector	29.9
foodstuffs sector	28.0
Care of persons sector	16.4
retail, wholesale sector + intermediary	10.0

In 1974, in the Dutch-speaking part of the country, of 8.330 persons under contract, 1.502 were women. In the French-speaking part, of 10.008 persons, 2.524 were women. Women prefer the trades connected with the care of persons (999 in Flanders and 1.283 in Wallonia), retail trade (238 in Flan. and 821 in Wal.) and the textile industry (107 in Fl. and 135 in Wal.), sectors in which they represent the majority. There are no other detailed figures broken down by sex and occupation.

3.6. The training and advanced training budget provided for 1973 was Bfrs 576.483.000. In fact, only Bfrs 448.000.000 was allocated to this item.

B.1. The third type of training is aimed mainly at adults and is organized by the National Employment Office. The latter "proposed to authorize all adult workers to have access to vocational training this should have enabled the labour force to adjust flexibly and rapidly

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\* Annual report 1974, p. 34

\*\* See complete list in the Annex.



to the requirements of new jobs resulting from changes in the technical and economic apparatus. The legislator authorized this measure by Royal Decree of 24 March 1961" ... (which) provides, in the field of vocational training for adults, the legal bases of a system adjusted to the demands of industry and the needs of workers, making it possible to fill the gaps in the training of such workers in their youth. The implementing order and supplementary instructions were published only later in the year, so that the new phase was only definitively and very cautiously begun during 1962" (\*). Since then, a R.D. of 20 December 1963 deals specifically with vocational training in Chapter III (Art. 82 onwards).

2.2.1. Training is provided either by the ONEM centres set up and managed with its own funds, or with the aid of undertakings, groups of undertakings, public authorities or public or private associations, by means of agreements which lay down the distribution of charges among the contracting parties (R.D. 20.12.63 Art. 87 amended by R.D. 16.2.70 Art. 3(1)).

Training can also be given in centres set up by undertakings, groups of undertakings or private or public associations which fulfill certain conditions and provide the guarantees required by law (R.D. 20.12.63 Art. 88).

Individual training, which is intended for the unemployed receiving compensation, is controlled by the ONEM. It involves attending classes in a technical or vocational school organized by the public authorities or apprenticeship in a trade under a vocational training contract concluded between the apprentice and the undertaking and approved by the director of the regional office of the ONEM (\*\*).

2.3. This training system has two objectives in view: to maintain and increase workers' vocational qualifications and give unqualified workers a vocational qualification.

### B.3. How they function

3.1. Conditions of entry. "All adult workers, regardless of

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(\*) Annual report ONEM 1966 p. 61 and 62  
(\*\*) See diagram in Annex.

nationality, who have carried out a vocational activity as employees or as self-employed workers for a period which varies according to age. Adult shall be taken to mean a worker aged 18 (minimum) (17 in the building trade). No age limit is stipulated for unemployed persons receiving compensation" (\*) (See R.D. 20.12.63 Art. 83)

3.2. For a long time, the ONEM refused to open all its doors to women. Those interested in vocational training may read the following in the ONEM brochure : "Training for women mainly concerns the following fields : employee, stitcher, sewer, lingerie and knitwear, ladder mender, knitter, waitress and kitchen help. Furthermore, the integration of women is possible in all the other centres, in accordance with a custom which is gradually spreading throughout the industrial and transport sectors". (\*\*)

3.2.1. In the centres managed directly by the ONEM, basic training is available in a large number of trades (see Annex). Supplementary training is also available. Centres set up in collaboration with the undertakings also provide basic and supplementary training. Vocational training subsidized by the ONEM principally offers a specialized, out-of-the-way type of training which usually takes the form of retraining.

3.3. Women are very restricted to the occupations of stitcher, restaurant staff and cutter. In 1973, they represented only 20.1% of persons receiving basic training directly managed by the ONEM. Very few receive further training (4.6% in 1973). They are more numerous in the centres set up with the aid of undertakings, but they are just as restricted. On the other hand, the number of women receiving individual training is relatively high, although low in terms of absolute value (366 in 1973).

3.6. Costs and financing. In 1973, vocational training cost the ONEM 783.8 million francs in benefits alone.

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(\*) "Vocational training for adults", p. 12

(\*\*) "Vocational training", p. 10.

Comment

1. The ONEM also deals with the "vocational protection of young persons" which provides employment and retraining for young unemployed persons (see R.D. 20.12.63 Art. 39, 40, 41, 42, 43).
2. Educational holidays have also existed (since 1973) to enable workers to receive technical and vocational training (social advancement classes), or courses in general training, social and economic policy without foregoing their wages. A small compensatory amount may also be granted in the event of attendance at social advancement classes.

2. Analysis of the problems, obstacles and difficulties encountered by women workers in vocational guidance and training.

2.1. In principle, there are none, or there will soon be none.

2.2. As we have seen, guidance and training generally come under the aegis of the State, which does not have considerable funds at its disposal. The guidance and training provided are highly conservative and only widen the breaches in the labour market. It cannot be expected that this will be the area to expect an innovating attitude and the desire to change.

2.3. The greatest obstacle, however, is the labour market. It is pointless to make it possible for girls to enter all the technical sectors if they are afterwards unable to carry out the trade they have learnt. An often-quoted example is that of an ONEM Centre which trained young women as painters. Not a single undertaking would willingly employ them. Thus it is quite understandable that women are found in the sections leading to so-called feminine occupations.

### 3. Solutions.

The labour market is constituted of a supply and demand for labour. The supply is affected primarily by the demographic factors of a region or a country and then by social changes (extended studies, reduction in

family charges, etc ...).

The demand for labour is the product of economic activity as a whole and it is the latter which has the greatest influence on the labour market. This is particularly true in the case of women (\*). Reforms now being proposed concern the supply of labour alone, by trying to modify its structure. These efforts are pointless, however, as long as the demand remains unchanged.

Proposals to desegregate the schools and small ads are only drops of water in the ocean compared with this double standard labour market and the profits gained from this cheap labour. Let us repeat once more - if a majority of girls are found in a limited number of sections, it is not because they are mentally retarded or are unaware that the future lies in electronics and not in dressmaking, but because they know and can see that they have only one solution : to bend with the winds of demand : become a beautician, if you want to become a welder, you have to have done your military service.

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(\*) See R. LEROY : Essai sur la population active, 1968, Louvain  
(Essay on the working population).

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European Seminar on  
Vocational Guidance and Training for Women Workers  
24th - 28th November 1975

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Phase A - Situation, achievements, problems in connection with vocational guidance and training of women workers in Denmark.

(Rapporteurs: Mrs. Karen Dahlerup, Advisory officer,  
Mr. Palle Eisenhardt, Deputy Head of Section)

1. Outline of the general context of vocational guidance and training for women workers.

A. Vocational guidance for women workers.

A.1. Laws and regulations.

The laws and official regulations which provide directives for educational and vocational guidance do not include special regulations or guidelines for women. Subsection 3 of section 1 of the Vocational Guidance Act of 3rd May 1961 (appendix a) states that "vocational guidance shall be open to all age groups and the service offered should be dictated by the same basic principles, regardless of the applicant's age and other circumstances". The sex difference is not mentioned here, since it is taken for granted that it has no effect in the sort of advisory service which society should offer. Similarly, and for the same reason there are no special provisions for the guidance of women in the laws which direct schools to provide educational and career guidance, nor in the Rehabilitation Act.

A.2. Institutions, vocational guidance structures and methods.

The public vocational guidance service in Denmark is based on the principles laid down in the ILO's 1949 recommendation on vocational guidance (no. 87). The vocational guidance service is in accordance with the Vocational Guidance Act of 3rd May 1961; it is attached to the public employment service.

The highest authority for the vocational guidance service is The Department of Employment. The central administration is conducted principally by the Directorate of Employment, whose vocational guidance office includes departments for staff training, information material, an information service and industrial psychology advice. On the local level, the duties of the vocational guidance service are carried out by approx. 140 vocational guidance counselors, working at the main employment exchanges, at branch offices and a few other places. In all, there are about 200 places in Denmark

where educational and vocational guidance may be obtained.

Educational and vocational guidance activities are also performed by the schools and other branches of education, and to a certain extent by the social services, the criminal welfare service and the armed forces.

Pursuant to the Act for Vocational Guidance, the Vocational Guidance Council has been set up to co-ordinate the efforts of the vocational guidance service, to assist with administration of the various vocational guidance arrangements and to ensure co-operation amongst the various parties. The social partners, the agricultural organisations, the white-collar worker organisations, womens' organisations and the educational and labour market authorities are all represented on the council. The Council's duties emerge clearly from the Act, according to which the Council is to follow developments in all areas of importance for vocational guidance, and to make proposals for measures which are necessitated by these developments. To a large extent, the council operates through ad hoc and permanent sub-committees. Co-ordinating assignments are also carried out by the Study and Vocational Guidance Group composed of members of staff from the 4 directorates of education under the Ministry of Education and from the Directorate of Employment. About 40 contact committees have been set up throughout the country for matters concerning schools, occupations and vocational guidance. These are composed of representatives of the Employment Service, schools, employees and employers, as well as representatives of special institutions in this field and of local government. These contact committees have been assigned to co-ordinate the various efforts made by the vocational guidance service within their own field.

2.1. Observation and analysis of labour market and development of professions and trades.

The extremely limited employment forecasts available must be considered to be a severe handicap in the vocational guidance effort. A prognosis is about to be started, although for the time being it is limited to occupational opportunities following further education.

2.2. Information and documentation.

The Directorate of Employment issues, collects and distributes comprehensive informational material on education, occupations and the labour market. This material is sent to vocational guidance counselors at the public employment exchanges, to schools, rehabilitation centres, libraries etc.

The directorate also issues a card index of occupations which is

the official source for information on training, education and occupations, and which is principally designed for advisory use in connection with the selection of trades and training. At the present time, the index contains about 470 articles, providing information on high on 2,000 educational and occupational opportunities. The articles are updated on average every two years, and the index is constantly being enlarged with articles about new sorts of education and trades. The card index on trades and professions is issued on a subscription basis; the most important subscribers are schools, employment exchanges and other advisory institutions; there are currently about 5,500 subscribers.

In co-operation with the education authorities, the Directorate also issues publications designed for preliminary selection purposes for use in various types of schools. These publications, which are updated annually, are worked out with the assistance of the schools, educational institutions, organisations and others. Finally, the Directorate collects and distributes supplementary information material, such as teaching curricula, school syllabuses, students' guides, regulations and orders, brochures etc.

The Directorate of Employment works closely with the directorates under the Ministry of Education and with other authorities with participation in the provision of information in some way or other.

The educational institutions produce handbooks on their educational facilities, and the organisations issue brochures etc. on training and particularly, working conditions. In addition the Federation of Danish Employers has set up a committee for schools and occupations which has arranged for the production of a large number of informative slide + sound shows and both this association and the Trade Union organisation have contributed in other ways to further the production of informational material on training, trades and professions.

In order to provide information on current educational opportunities on a local level and in individual schools, orientational material will often be produced independently, sometimes in a duplicated form, and this will make a major contribution to the preliminary selection activities. This may be worked out by the local trade council, vocational guidance counselors, school inspectors on educational and vocational guidance matters or careers masters at the individual schools.

Most of the material used in this work is neutral on the question of the sex roles, and there is very little special information material for women. This is because, in principle, men and women have equal access to education and work.

### 2.3. Vocational guidance.

According to the Vocational Guidance Act, the term vocational guidance

cover both educational and vocational guidance, and the guidance is given on both an individual as well as a group basis.

The vocational guidance counselors' principle assignment is individual guidance. The purpose of this is to:

- 1) help the individual through his own efforts to become aware of his qualifications and opportunities for development,
- 2) to provide information on available educational, vocational and employment opportunities,
- 3) to assist the individual in his efforts to make a choice or to plan a course of education.

If necessary the counselor may also provide assistance with problems of adaptation to the requirements of working life.

This guidance may take one or several interviews, depending on the individual case.

Vocational guidance counselors may call upon a variety of professional assistance. The Vocational Guidance Act provides for the availability of industrial psychologists to assist the vocational guidance counselors who may refer clients to the psychologist for an examination, when this is deemed necessary for the continuation of the consultation. When a question of health arises, the vocational guidance counselor may call upon the medical advisors who are attached to the vocational guidance departments of the employment exchanges. Furthermore, statements may be obtained from schools, educational psychologists, school doctors or other doctors, employers or institutions etc., with whom the client has been in contact.

The group counselling takes place in schools and educational institutions as well as other institutions (eg. in the armed forces or the criminal welfare service) when these request vocational guidance services. Information about the service available is sent to schools and institutions every year.

Since 1967 the employment exchanges have been able to organize vocational guidance meetings and courses for adults who are considering a return to the labour market or a change of trade. At the start the courses were only designed for women who were considering going out to work again after a number of years at home, but gradually, the type of person attending has become diversified.

In principle there are no limits defined either for the categories the courses should cater for or for their form.- and it is currently being considered whether there could be a demand for vocational guidance courses and for meetings for other groups.

The purpose of these courses is to provide guidance and assistance for the solution of the special problems associated with the transition to employment or another profession. The courses are arranged



by the individual employment exchanges and can therefore be adapted locally, both in terms of form and content. However, a standard form appears to have emerged, in which the courses last for 2 weeks, and provide guidance on employment opportunities and structures in the area, on educational opportunities of short or longer duration and on taxation, family and other social problems. 2 sessions of practical trade experience are normally included in the course to give the participants an impression of the area of work in which they are interested.

Some offices arrange vocational guidance meetings as a preliminary to the courses, so that the employment service can evaluate whether there is sufficient local interest and support for a course.

### A.3. How they function.

#### 3.1. Procedures for vocational guidance intervention and machinery for quantitative and qualitative adjustment.

One of the basic principles of vocational guidance is that it must not be directive, since "the principle task of the vocational guidance counselor must be to activate the client to take on the responsibility for his decisions himself". (Guidelines for the public vocational guidance service in accordance with the Vocational Guidance Act of 3rd May 1961, II.5.3). In other words vocational guidance cannot be used to channel its clients into certain areas of education or branches of industry. The vocational guidance counselors are independent of and neutral towards other institutions (on which the client might be dependent in other respects) and economic interests, since guidance is given outside the direct framework of the social and economic support programmes.

There is an occasional uneasiness about the position of vocational guidance counselors as employees of the employment service in case they become the instrument of labour market politics, used for the manipulation of the work force, e.g. from an employment angle. However, the vocational guidance service is also independent in this respect, and acts as an unbiased support for its clients.

Even though, as we have mentioned, there are no special directives for guidance in connection with the problem of the sex roles and equality, the counselors have been made aware of these problems through courses, conferences etc., and there is reason to believe that through their work, the counselors support the efforts to provide equal educational and job opportunities for both sexes. Mr. A. Søgård Jørgensen, Chief Inspector of Schools, made the following comments on the subject in the magazine "Education" 5a/1975:

"There are several reasons why they (the counselors) are rarely

to be formed on the front lines.

Firstly, the professional attitude tends towards an involvement in individual cases and an attempt to find solutions which will suit the client best under the given circumstances. If the client is a pioneering type with strength, courage and a desire to penetrate a world which has traditionally been the reserve of the opposite sex, the counselor will usually support this undertaking eagerly. If however the client expresses desires which fall within the prevailing pattern for the sex roles, the counselor will normally not initiate a more profound awareness or re-education.

Secondly, most student and vocational guidance counselors are still influenced by an objectivity which can be traced back to the organisation's beginnings. This implies that only all-round and reliable information may be disseminated, that the choices available must neither be glossed over nor devaluated, that unfavourable conditions must not be suppressed, nor must personal sympathies or antipathies be allowed to influence the advice given. It should therefore be impossible to hitch a publicly employed counselor onto a recruiting campaign which promotes specific trades or training programmes - nor should the opposite be possible. Behind all this lies the principle that the counselor wishes to preserve his integrity and be accepted as an unbiassed party, by clients, parents, schools, employers and trade unions".

### 3.2. Vocational openings and training offered.

3.21 Types of training: initial training, qualifications refresher and re-training courses, conversion, promotion, preparation for return to labour market.

In principle there is no limitation to the advice the vocational guidance counselor may give to women, since they have access to all types of education and training (apart from a few training programmes within the armed forces) on the same conditions as men, cf. also below under B.

3.22 By sectors of activity.

All sectors of activity are formally open to women (with the exceptions mentioned above under 3.21).

3.23 By standards of qualification.

In principle women enjoy the same qualificational and promotional opportunities as men.

### 3.3. Results.

3.31 Number of personnel (broken down according to A.3.2) and number of "women workers" receiving vocational guidance.

The vocational guidance service only comes into contact with a relatively small proportion of the adult population; women constitute a slightly larger percentage of the adult clientèle of the vocational guidance service (cf. annex c). There are no statistics available on the distribution of this clientèle according to types of training sectors of activity or levels of qualification, but it must be estimated that a relatively large proportion of the female clientèle is interested in short or medium-length training.

After the introduction of educational and vocational guidance in the various types of schools (see above under 1.A.2) everybody will have received vocational guidance to a greater or lesser extent.

3.32 Relationship between labour market/vocational role of women workers/educational and vocational guidance/vocational training/employment.

The effect of vocational guidance on the vocational role of women workers has not been measured; assertions on this point must therefore be based on supposition.

Approximately 40% of the Danish work force are women. The number of married women on the labour market has risen from approx. 240,000 in 1960 to over 650,000 today. There are comparatively more un-skilled women and women with a shorter training than amongst men, and the promotional level of women is far below that of men, even amongst those with higher educations (see also annex c).

3.4. Costs and financing of vocational guidance.

Vocational training, whether it takes place through the public vocational guidance service, within the various schools and other places of education or through other institutions, is publicly financed, i.e. by the state and/or local authority. No account has been made of the total cost of vocational guidance. All educational and vocational guidance is provided free of charge.

B. Vocational training for women workers.

B.1. Laws, regulations and agreements.

There are no special provisions for female applicants in the laws and other official regulations on training and conditions for training. In principle, all education and training facilities are open to men and women on an equal footing (apart from a few areas of training within the armed forces). Similarly there are no provisions in agreements which restrict any job to women/men. Since 1973 the industrial agreements have also ceased to include provisions for different wage tariffs for women and men. - In practice there are a large number of typically female trades and typically male trades, since the traditional distribution of jobs still prevails to a large extent.

B.2. Vocational training, institutions, structures and methods/procedures.

The Danish educational system is centrally administered by the Ministry of Education, as well as by a number of other ministries for special areas of education, there is therefore no single ministry for all education. On a local level education is principally the responsibility of the local authorities; certain minor sectors of education are run privately, but in most cases with considerable government subsidies.

The Central Education Council (CUR) and its four sectoral councils are responsible for planning.

Preparatory vocational training and education may be purely practical (typical of the shorter training courses), purely theoretical (typical of the longer training courses), or practical/theoretical (typical of the medium length training courses). Training courses may vary in length from a few weeks to 7-8 years.

2.1 at school (public/private).

It is not possible to make a sharp division between schools and other institutions of education in the Danish educational system. The edges are blurred and the definitions are used indiscriminately. In addition many kinds of training take place partly in educational institutes, including "schools", partly through practical training

periods in industry, institutions, etc. As mentioned above, for the greatest part of the training and educational sphere is under public management.

2.2 Other than school (public/private)

2.21 training institutions or bodies.

See under 2.1.

2.22 Organizations or undertakings.

The principle organizations of the labour market and other trade organizations arrange a considerable amount of further training for their members. Correspondingly, a certain amount of internal further and specialized training is carried out in some, mainly large companies; these are also able to arrange retraining courses with state subsidies. (See below under 2.3).

2.3 The various types of training: initial training, training for qualifications, refresher courses and retraining, conversion, promotion, preparation for return to the labour market .....

All the above-mentioned types of training exist in the educational system.

Some of the main types of basic vocational training are outlined below.

The training of apprentices, also called "Mesterlære" (Master apprenticeship) is an old, traditional form of training which is still utilized by about one quarter of all young people. A written agreement, or articles of apprenticeship, is established between the apprentice and master. The Apprenticeship Act provides rules for the contents of these articles. Training may take from 2-4 years and is carried out partially in the company, and partially at a technical or commercial school. Many trades begin with a period at one of these schools. The training of apprentices falls into two main groups: trade and industry - shops, commerce and office (see annex b).

The basic vocational training courses are currently superceding the traditional apprenticeships. Already a few professional training courses can only be followed by attending the more general basic vocational training course. Educational experiments are being carried out in several parts of the country. The new training system differs from the traditional apprenticeship in several ways. The most significant of these is that the individual is not required to select his specific training straight away, since the first part consists of a foundation year which is common to all students who have chosen a particular field. Comprehensive information on all the types of

training available within the chosen sphere is provided during the foundation year. Therefore, only a wider field of interest has to be selected beforehand. Experiments are being made with the 7 following areas - building and construction - the graphic industries - commercial and office work - iron and metal - agriculture - food industries - service industries.

In addition, an experiment is under preparation for a basic training course in the field of road transport, and several other areas are being considered.

During the course of the foundation year the student selects a more specialized area, and the training for this specific branch will continue and be completed in the second part.

The total training period, i.e. first and second part, will correspond in length to equivalent apprenticeship for these special trades.

The first part, the foundation year, is held at a trade school, and this will normally mean a commercial or technical school. The second part will alternate between lessons at a trade school and practical experience in the field.

In addition, other important fields of training are: Short technical courses, normally lasting 2 years (examples: laboratory assistant, technical assistant, textile technician training). Government service training within the Postal and Telecommunications Service and the State Railways; their structure reflects the apprenticeships to a certain extent. Training courses within the Health and Social Services taking 1-3½ years (examples: ergo and physiotherapy, nursing, welfare work and child care work). Training for teaching and informational spheres taking 3-4 years (examples: kindergarten and youth-centre teaching, primary school teaching, journalism and librarianships). Training for agriculture, services at sea, etc.

Over and above these areas training facilities will be discussed which are grouped under the heading of Labour Market Training; these include semi-skilled workers' training (1<sup>o</sup>), further training for skilled workers (2<sup>o</sup>) and retraining (3<sup>o</sup>). This training is designed for adult workers.

1<sup>o</sup> Semi-skilled workers' training. This training is carried out in accordance with act No. 194 on vocational training for semi-skilled workers and others and retraining, of 18th May 1960, cf. Consolidated Act No. 271 of 2nd June 1971.

Its function is to provide semi-skilled workers with a vocational training which will correspond to technical development and conditions on the labour market at all times.

It is the responsibility of the Education Council for Semi-Skilled Workers, composed of representatives from the principal organizations on the Labour Market to organize and up-date training arrangements, and to approve,

the educational plans worked out by the trade committees. The branch committees are similarly compared with representations from employer and employee organisations from the trade in question.

The training of semi-skilled workers covers a considerable number of graded course series, each providing vocational qualifications within a number of trades. The aim of this is to provide systematic training within the scope of broader areas of industry under conditions resembling the job situation, where the courses consist of both practice and as much theory as is necessary for the execution of the practical work.

2° Further training for skilled workers. Since 1965 the annual Finance Act has made provisions for further training of skilled workers, which have been implemented on the same lines as the Act on the vocational training of semi-skilled workers and others, and retraining. The regulations for the further scheme are laid down in the Department of Employment's circular of 18th June, 1965.

The aim of the further training scheme is to provide skilled workers with the opportunity to up-date their basic education and to supplement it with special subjects not yet included in the basic training, by means of short courses.

The trade organisations, in most cases the joint trades committee for the training of apprentices, assumes the initiative and responsibility for the vocational content of the courses and their implementation. Further training can consist of one or more courses in a series, which may have been worked out to meet a concrete demand. With the assistance of the committee on further training for skilled workers, which also includes representatives from the principal organizations on the labour market, the Secretariat for Labour Market Training approves course programmes and administrates the scheme.

3° Retraining. Retraining schemes have been carried out since 1969 under the provisions of the same Act as the training of semi-skilled workers, see under 1°.

The aim of the scheme is to supplement the education of semi-skilled workers and the further training of skilled workers, since certain situations and groups of workers have demonstrated the need for more extensive retraining facilities than those already in existence.

In development areas, the aim is to convert the labour force to

industrial work and the working conditions in industry and to train them up to the required routine. In other areas of the country the aim is to relieve special local or trade employment problems or to find employment for special groups of applicants, for whom work has been hard to find.

The central administration of the retraining scheme is handled by the Secretariat for Labour Market training, assisted by the retraining committee, on which the principal organizations of the labour market are represented. The Secretariat's advisors assist in the planning and implementation of retraining.

On a local level the scheme is administered in co-operation with the local employment exchanges who also decide whether the conditions for participation in retraining and for the receipt of retraining allowances have been fulfilled.

Whilst the training for semi-skilled workers is based on courses with a relatively broad aim, retraining for actual job opportunities in development areas is more goal-oriented towards the production in question.

A retraining plan is worked out for each retraining scheme, with the assistance of the relevant trade committee or the technical institutes. Retraining normally begins with a vocational, activity-oriented course which includes orientation in vocational economic and social problems. The participants then move on to work in the production in question and in the course of the retraining period the attempt is made to train them up to normal working capacity.

Courses for trade or local groups which experience particular difficulty in obtaining employment, are organized in co-operation with the appropriate trade organizations.

Participants in the courses described under 1<sup>o</sup>-3<sup>o</sup> received compensation for loss of income or job opportunities.

### B.3. How they function.

#### 3.1. Conditions of access of women workers to vocational training.

The conditions of access to all training are the same for men and women (apart from a few training courses within the armed forces).

#### 3.2. Present training facilities.

In principle women have the same training opportunities as men in respect of

3.21 types of training and

3.22 in the various sectors of activity and



3.23 of the various qualificational levels.

In practice, however, these opportunities are not exploited by women to the same extent as by men, see further under 3.3.

3.3. Number of trainees (broken down according to B.3.2 and compared with number of male workers).

Amongst the under 17-year-olds there are more women than men undergoing training. However, men stay in training for a longer period; thus nearly half the 19-year-old men (late 1972) but only approx. one quarter of the women in the same age group are undergoing training. See also annex b.

3.4. Procedures and machinery for adjustment (quantitative, qualitative) of training resources to requirements.

Until recently the efforts to plan education from a requirement angle have been rare and sporadic. The Planning Council for Higher Education has submitted several proposals since the late sixties, on the subject of the revision of dimensions for the spheres of education seen from this point of view. An important task for the Central Education Council (CUR) will be to submit proposals for a qualitative and quantitative adjustment of resources to the present and anticipated requirements, partially to be based on the more comprehensive and systematic prognosis to be implemented in the near future.

3.5. Results (certificates and diplomas, training/employment ratio).

In general women select shorter training courses than men. Since access to the majority of short-term further education is restricted, fewer women will undergo training than if there was free access to all training facilities. Of those who begin a longer training course, proportionately far fewer women than men complete their courses. See also annex b. Finally, women do not exploit their education in terms of employment to the same extent as men, - although there is a clear tendency towards greater equality in all the areas mentioned here. In this connection it is worth mentioning that the new basic vocational training courses (EFG - see above under 2.3) have contributed to a greater freedom in the selection of a trade, since the foundation year neutralizes the traditional role patterns determined by sex; in addition there is a tendency towards more girls continuing their training from the EFG than from the old apprenticeship training.

3.6. Costs and financing of vocational training.

The vast majority of training activities are financed by public funds, i.e. the state and/or local authorities. Educational expenditure is

the second largest item in the national budget, only exceeded by social welfare expenses. Practically all education is free of charge; a few private schools (e.g. medical secretarial school) still have fees, and there is a small charge made for participation in adult leisure-time education.

The State Education Fund grants economic aid to students, however, the total allocation is not sufficient to meet the needs. - In addition, it is possible to obtain financial aid for study purposes in special circumstances.

2. Analysis of obstacles, difficulties and problems, met by women workers in vocational guidance and training

2.1. of a legal and institutional nature.

The sexes are equal in principle. There are no formal obstacles relating especially to women.

2.2. of a psychological and social nature (models, roles, professional, married and family status, attitudes and behaviour .....

A large number of psychological and sociological factors influence the educational choice made by women and their position in active employment; traditional attitudes held by the population at large still imply the education of girls for special female roles, emotionally, intellectually and practically; this one-sided upbringing is not only to be found in the home, but also in schools which operate on the premisses of the society. There is still a clear division of labour in traditional, sexual grounds, which is also reflected in the choice of education, and the activities in connection with housekeeping and child-minding are still principally the woman's responsibility, even when she also has a job or is studying.

2.3. of an economic nature (structural, short-term).

The economic conditions for women wishing to get an education are in principle no worse<sup>than</sup> for men. And as mentioned earlier, the vast majority of women have been able to merge smoothly into the work force without the need for any special measures, but a number of women have to re-enter the labour market after a number of years of non-employment, e.g. because of widowhood or divorce; many of these women have no vocational training, or whatever they have is out-of-date. The opportunities for these women to obtain financial aid for study purposes are insufficient

2.4. of a practical nature.

In practice, childbirth and childminding constitute a severe obstacle to women completing an education.

3. Solutions and prospects.

- 3.1. Measures taken or planned to improve vocational guidance and training for workers according to the principle of equal treatment or to meet the labour situation.

There is a clear tendency towards more women obtaining a more comprehensive education. This trend is supported by both the vocational guidance and educational authorities.

At the suggestion of the Commission for Women, the Directorate of Employment has employed a special advisor for questions concerning female labour and potential female labour.

In September 1975 the Prime Minister's Department set up a Council for Equal Status to promote equality between men and women in the home, in education and training, on the labour market and in society.

- 3.2. Desirable measures, prospects, proposals.

In 1965 the prime minister appointed the Commission on the Position of Women in Society. Over the last few years the Commission has submitted a number of reports, including those on educational problems (1968) and on the position of women in the labour market (1973). The most important sections, points of view and recommendations contained in these reports have been summarized in the Commission's final report, The Report on the Position of Women in Society (1974) which also reproduces the comments made by the authorities and others to whom the proposals have been submitted. The length of this review does not allow for detailed discussion of the many proposals included in the report, and it is therefore enclosed as an annex.

In 1974 a committee submitted a proposal for the establishment of an experimental support scheme for adult education. The proposal, which has an obvious political aim for the labour market, suggests that aid is granted in the form of grants, comprising 60-80% of the approved unemployment benefit. The scheme is to be financed by the state.

Vocational Guidance Act  
Act, No. 117, of 3 May 1961

1. (1) By vocational guidance shall for the purposes of this Act be understood such assistance as is provided previous to choice of vocational training or occupation.

(2) The vocational guidance shall be so designed as to permit account to be taken, in the choice of occupation, of personal interests and qualifications and of the relationship between such and the future opportunities in the trades or occupational fields concerned so as to enable the individual person to obtain a satisfactory placing in the working community from his own as well as from a social point of view.

(3) Vocational guidance shall be available to all age groups and should be provided on the same basic principles, irrespective of the age and other circumstances of applicants.

(4) By occupational information shall for the purposes of this Act be understood the forms of vocational guidance that are provided collectively and designed to serve as a preparation for choice of occupation or training. Individual vocational guidance is the assistance given to the individual person wanting assistance in his choice of occupation or training.

2. (1) To assist in the administration of this Act, the Minister of Labour shall appoint a Board, the Vocational Guidance Board, which shall be composed as follows -

a chairman appointed by the Minister of Labour;

two members designated by the Danish Employers' Confederation, one of them representing commerce and offices;

two members designated by the National Confederation of Danish Trade Unions, one of them representing commerce and offices;

one member designated by the National Council of Women in Denmark and the Women's Secretariat of the Trade Union Movement between them;

one member designated by the Confederation of Danish Farmers' Associations and the Confederation of Danish Small-Holders' Associations between them;

one member designated by the Joint Council of Danish Organisations of Public Servants and Salaried Employees and the Joint Council of Danish Associations of Supervisory and Technical Staff between them;

one representative of the Ministry of Labour;

the Director of Labour;  
the Government adviser in matters relating to primary schools and training colleges;  
the Chief Inspector of Secondary Schools;  
the Government adviser in matters relating to youth education;  
the Director of the Ministry of Commerce Inspection of Technical Colleges;  
the Director of the Ministry of Commerce Inspection of Commercial Colleges; and  
the Head of the Secretariat of the Training Council for Non-skilled Workers.

(2) The Vocational Guidance Board shall set up subcommittees to discharge special functions within the sphere of action of the Board and shall, if necessary, add to its number special experts, who may also be summoned in the individual case.

(3) The Vocational Guidance Board shall follow the development in all fields relevant to vocational guidance, make recommendations for such measures as may be required by the trend of developments, and be prepared to assist the Minister of Labour, the Minister of Education, and any other authorities being concerned with vocational guidance. The functions of the Board shall, inter alia, be: to recommend lines of policy governing recruitment of personnel to be responsible for discharging the vocational guidance services referred to in sect. 3 of this Act; to recommend lines of policy governing training of vocational guidance officers; to follow the cooperation between the competent authorities, institutions, including schools, and other agencies being concerned with vocational guidance services and, if necessary, to make recommendations with a view to promoting that cooperation; to make recommendations for determination of detailed rules governing submission of declarations for the purposes of vocational guidance; and to promote the necessary cooperation between the agencies concerned with a view to providing suitable material for the purposes of vocational guidance.

3. (1) The public employment exchanges referred to in subsections (1) and (2) of sect. 1 of the Unemployment Insurance Act shall, each within its particular area, provide free individual vocational guidance and shall be prepared to assist in the organisation and operation of occupational information services, inter alia in schools

(cf. the Primary Education Act, No. 160, of 18 May 1937, as amended by the Act, No. 163, of 7 June 1958; the Secondary Education Act, No. 165, of 7 June 1958; and the Youth Education Act, No. 219, of 11 June 1954, as amended by the Act, No. 234, of 10 June 1960)..

(2) The vocational guidance services referred to in subsect. (1) of this section shall be carried out by vocational guidance officers to be appointed by the Labour Directorate on the basis of a recommendation submitted by the manager of the employment exchange concerned after consultation with the local education authorities. The detailed rules governing the functions of vocational guidance officers shall be laid down by the Minister of Labour.

(3) A medical officer shall be available to each public employment exchange to assist in the individual vocational guidance service; the Labour Directorate shall, subject to approval by the Minister of Labour, lay down detailed rules governing the functions of such medical officer.

4. (1) In individual vocational guidance services, the guidance officer shall fully utilise the knowledge of the applicant possessed by the school which he last attended. The vocational guidance officer may, accordingly, obtain opinions from the head of the school as well as from the school medical officer.

(2) For the purposes of individual vocational guidance services, the guidance officer may also, if necessary, obtain the opinion of a physician other than the school medical officer (cf. also subsect. (3) of sect. 3 of this Act) or of the applicant's parents or any other persons likely to know him. If required in the view of the vocational guidance officer, the applicant may be submitted to an aptitude test based on vocational psychology.

5. (1) The Minister of Labour shall see that the necessary expert assistance in the field of vocational psychology, etc., is available to the vocational guidance authorities.

(2) The Minister of Labour shall make arrangements for provision and organisation of a special training for vocational guidance officers carrying out the vocational guidance services referred to in sect. 3 of this Act.

6. The Minister of Labour shall arrange for provision of aids and information material for vocational guidance services.

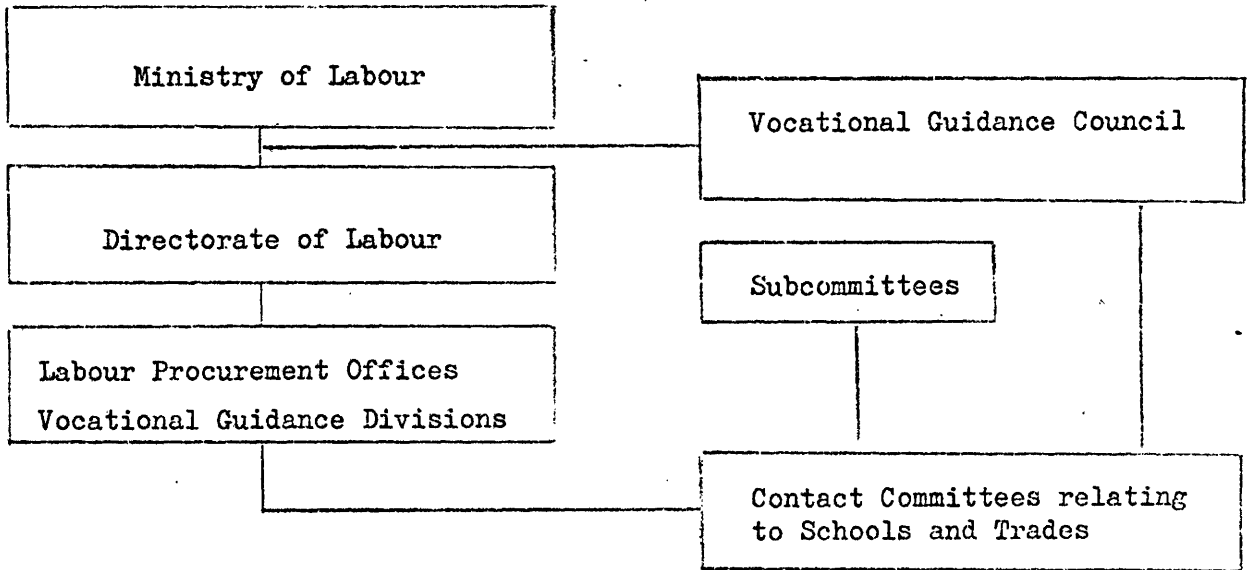
7. The cost of the vocational guidance services provided under this Act by the public employment exchanges and the cost of aptitude tests based on vocational psychology shall be met under the provisions of subsections (10) and (11) of sect. 2 of the Unemployment Insurance Act. Any other expenses shall be paid in full by the National Exchequer.

8. (1) This Act shall supersede the Vocational Guidance Act, No. 86, of 31 March 1953.

(2) This Act may by Royal Order be extended to Greenland, subject to such modifications as are found appropriate, having regard to the special local conditions obtaining in that area.

(3) This Act shall not apply to the Faroe Islands.

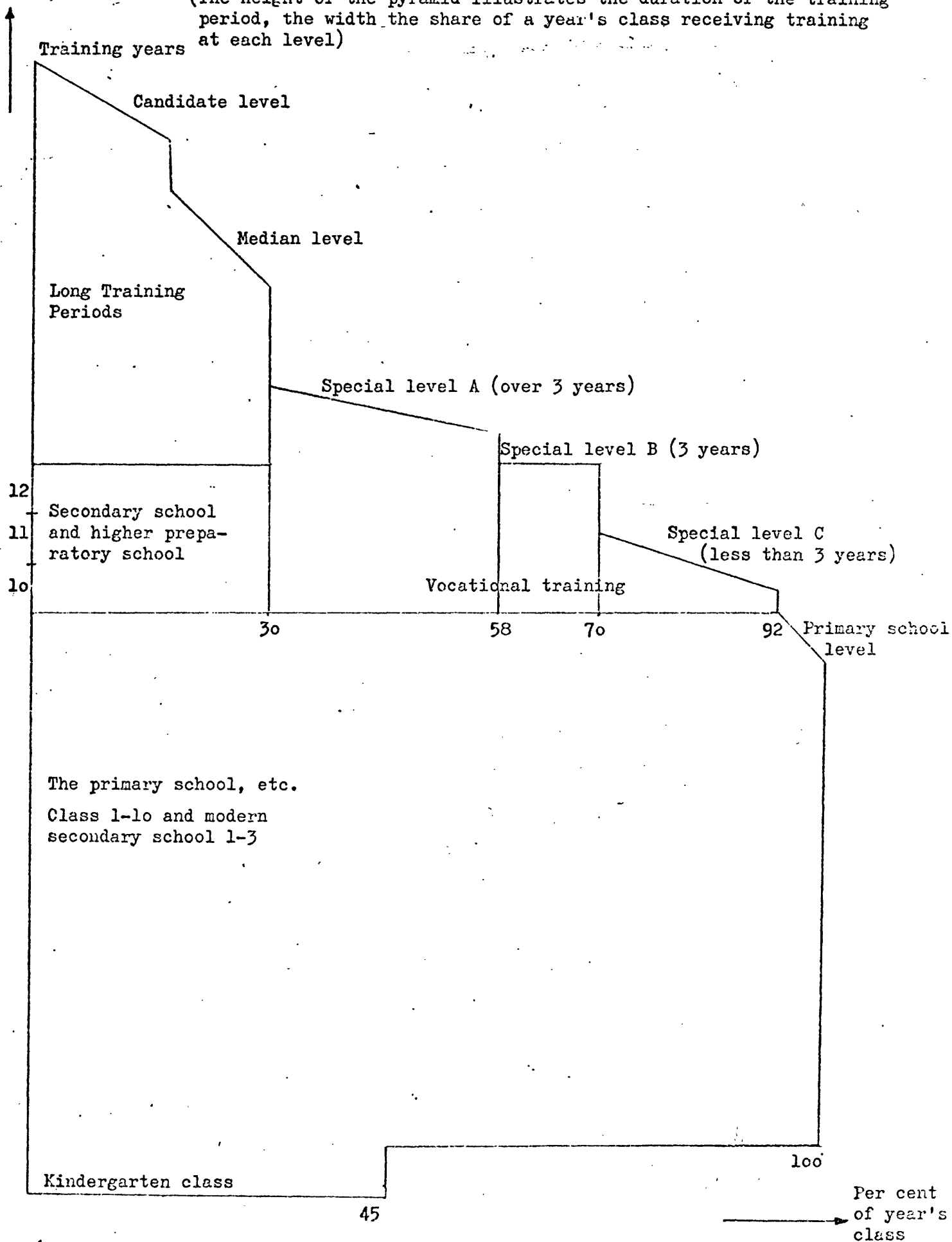
Public Vocational Guidance





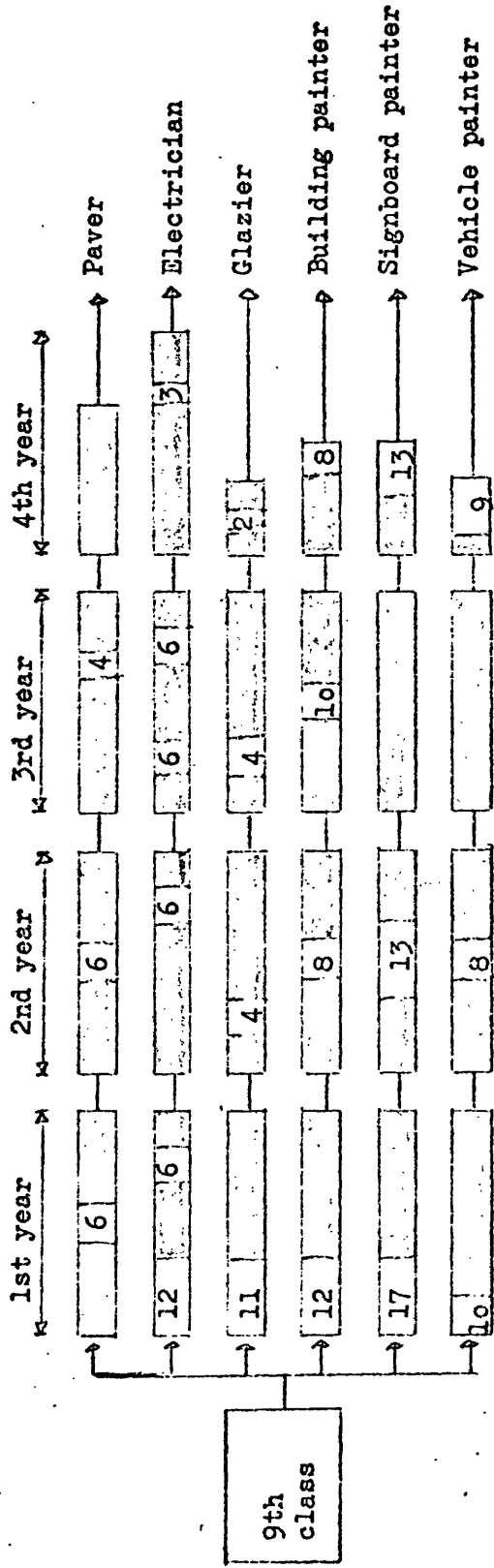
Schematic Training Pyramid (1972-73)

(The height of the pyramid illustrates the duration of the training period, the width the share of a year's class receiving training at each level)



(Source: Perspective Plan Review, 1972-1987. Copenhagen, 1973.)

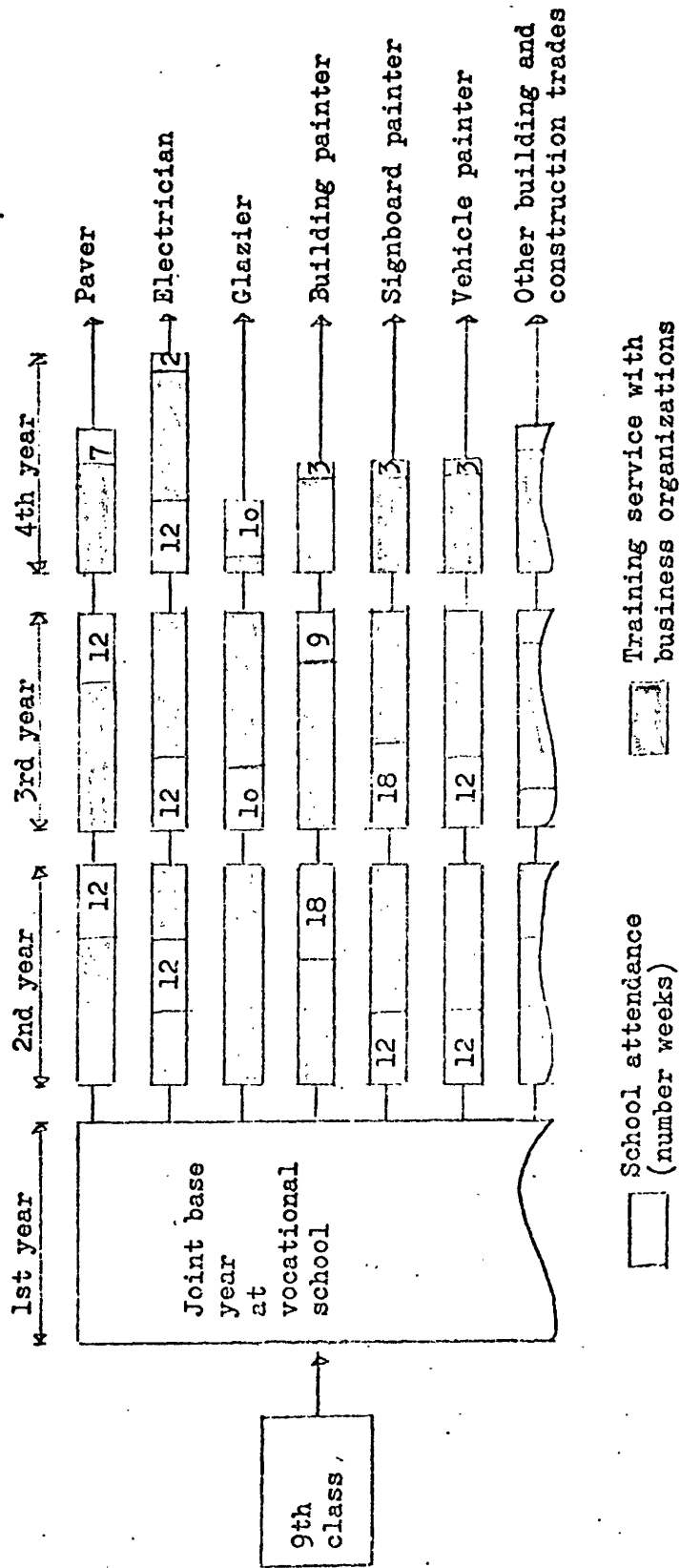
Examples of apprentice training



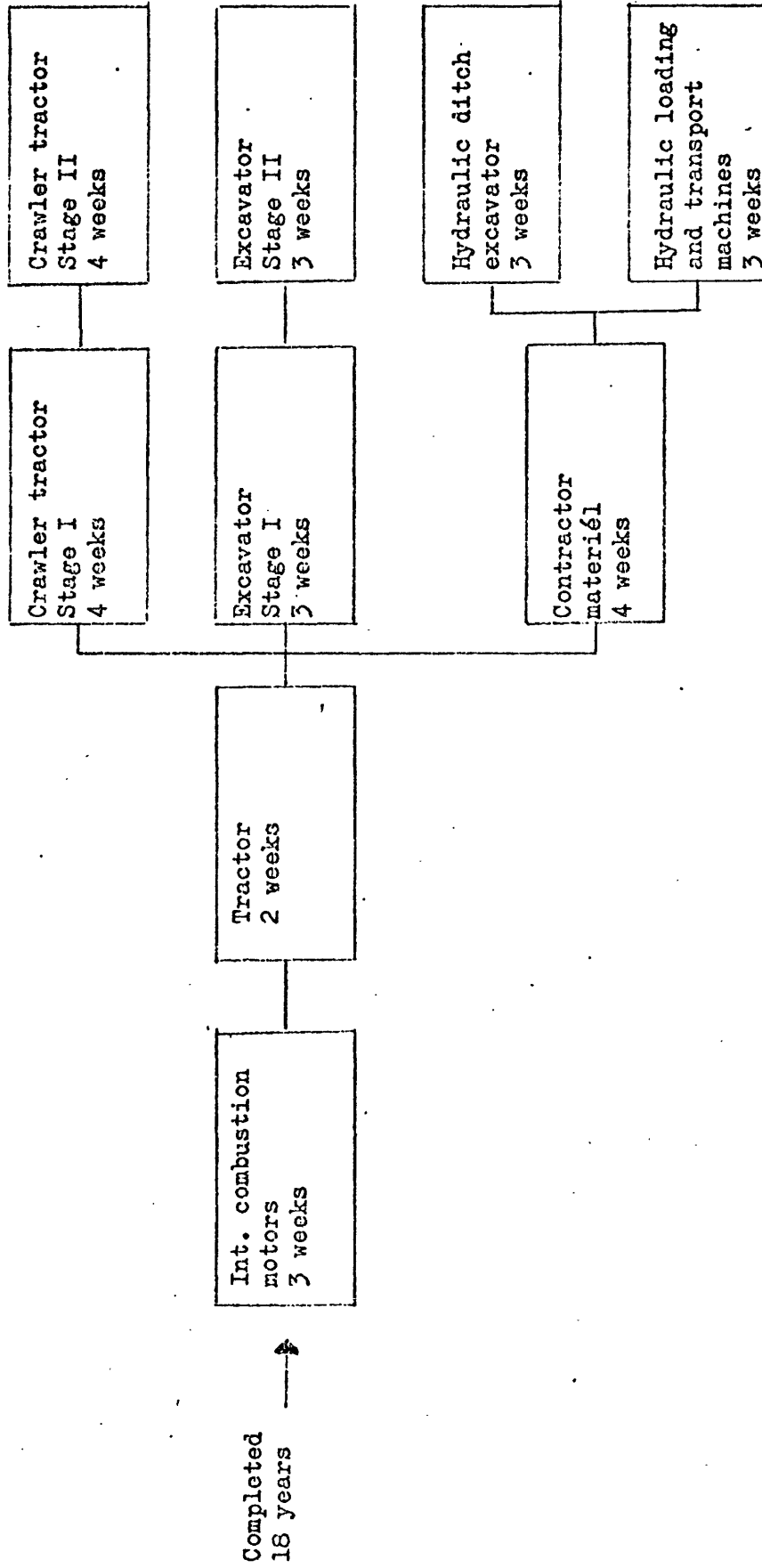
□ School attendance (number weeks)

▤ Practical work during apprenticeship

Example of EFC-training (building and construction)



Example of specialist worker training



It is possible to combine one's training periods in accordance with interests and needs. It will often be practical to take periods of employment between individual courses.

The public vocational guidance

Five to ten per cent of the population aged 16 to 25 years avail themselves of public vocational guidance.

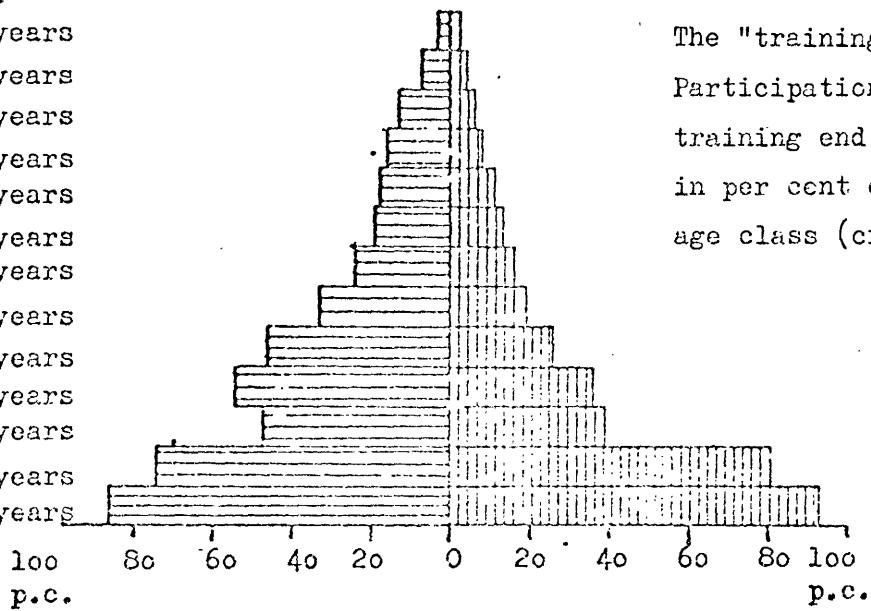
Out of the total number of clients about 54 p.c. are women.

Of the total female clientel approx. 80 p.c. are over 18, and approx. 68 p.c. over 20 years of age.

The vocational training courses

Age:

27 years  
26 years  
25 years  
24 years  
23 years  
22 years  
21 years  
20 years  
19 years  
18 years  
17 years  
16 years  
15 years



The "training pyramid".  
Participation in courses and training end of 1972, expressed in per cent of each individual age class (cf. Table 1).

Age end of 1972	Men p.c.	Women p.c.
15 years	86	93
16 years	74	81
17 years	47	39
18 years	54	36
19 years	46	26
20 years	33	19
21 years	24	16
22 years	19	13
23 years	18	11
24 years	16	8
25 years	13	6
26 years	7	4
27 years	3	2

Table 1.  
Number of trainees and students in training in per cent of annual age groups, distributed by sex.

Trainees and students in training						
Age	Women in per cent of age group for women			Men in per cent of age group for men		
	1968	1970	1972	1968	1970	1972
15 years	87	89	93	81	84	86
16 years	67	74	81	65	70	74
17 years	41	37	39	56	53	47
18 years	33	35	36	55	56	54
19 years	23	26	26	44	49	46
20 years	14	16	19	28	31	33
21 years	11	13	16	19	23	24
22 years	9	11	13	17	19	19
23 years	6	8	11	15	18	18
24 years	4	6	8	13	16	16
25 years	3	5	6	14	13	13
26 years	2	3	4	8	11	7
27 years	..	..	2	..	..	3

Table 2. Trainees and students in training, as placed in relation to the relevant annual age groups. End of 1968, 1970 and 1972.

Table 3.

Sex differences in secondary school education  
Number of students passed, with percentage distribution by sex, 1940-74

	Total		Percentage	
	Number	Per cent	Men	Women
1940	2,257	100	64	36
1945	2,807	100	59	41
1950	2,628	100	61	39
1955	3,136	100	56	44
1960	4,468	100	56	44
1965	8,958	100	55	45
1970	10,730	100	53	47
1971	11,651	100	53	47
1972	12,161	100	51	49
1973	12,556	100	50	50
1974	12,980	100	50	50

Table 4: Age distribution for course participants started, who have participated in the "Labour Market Training Courses"

Age of course participant	-17	18-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-	Total	Per cent
Men	293	4659	9799	6732	4127	2771	1987	1818	1177	688	330	34381	83.3
Women	546	1726	1854	777	592	360	389	297	195	105	27	6868	16.7
Spec.Work. Total	839	6385	11653	7509	4719	3131	2376	2115	1372	793	357	41249	100.0
Men	13	182	3857	4247	2537	1496	978	600	482	299	186	14877	87.1
Women	12	86	672	515	335	200	155	88	77	29	40	2209	12.9
In-serv. trng. Total	25	268	4529	4762	2872	1696	1133	688	559	328	226	17086	100.0
Men	0	11	23	22	14	14	12	9	12	4	3	124	67.4
Women	1	11	10	10	3	8	7	7	2	1	0	60	32.6
Retraining Total	1	22	33	32	17	22	19	16	14	5	3	184	100.0
Total Men	306	4852	13679	11001	6678	4281	2977	2427	1671	991	519	49382	
Total Women	559	1823	2536	1302	930	568	551	392	274	135	67	9137	
TOTAL	865	6675	16215	12303	7608	4849	3528	2819	1945	1126	586	58519	
Distribution	1.5	11.4	27.7	21.0	13.0	8.3	6.0	4.8	3.3	1.9	1.0	99.9	p.c.

Relative Sex Distribution by Trade, 1974/75

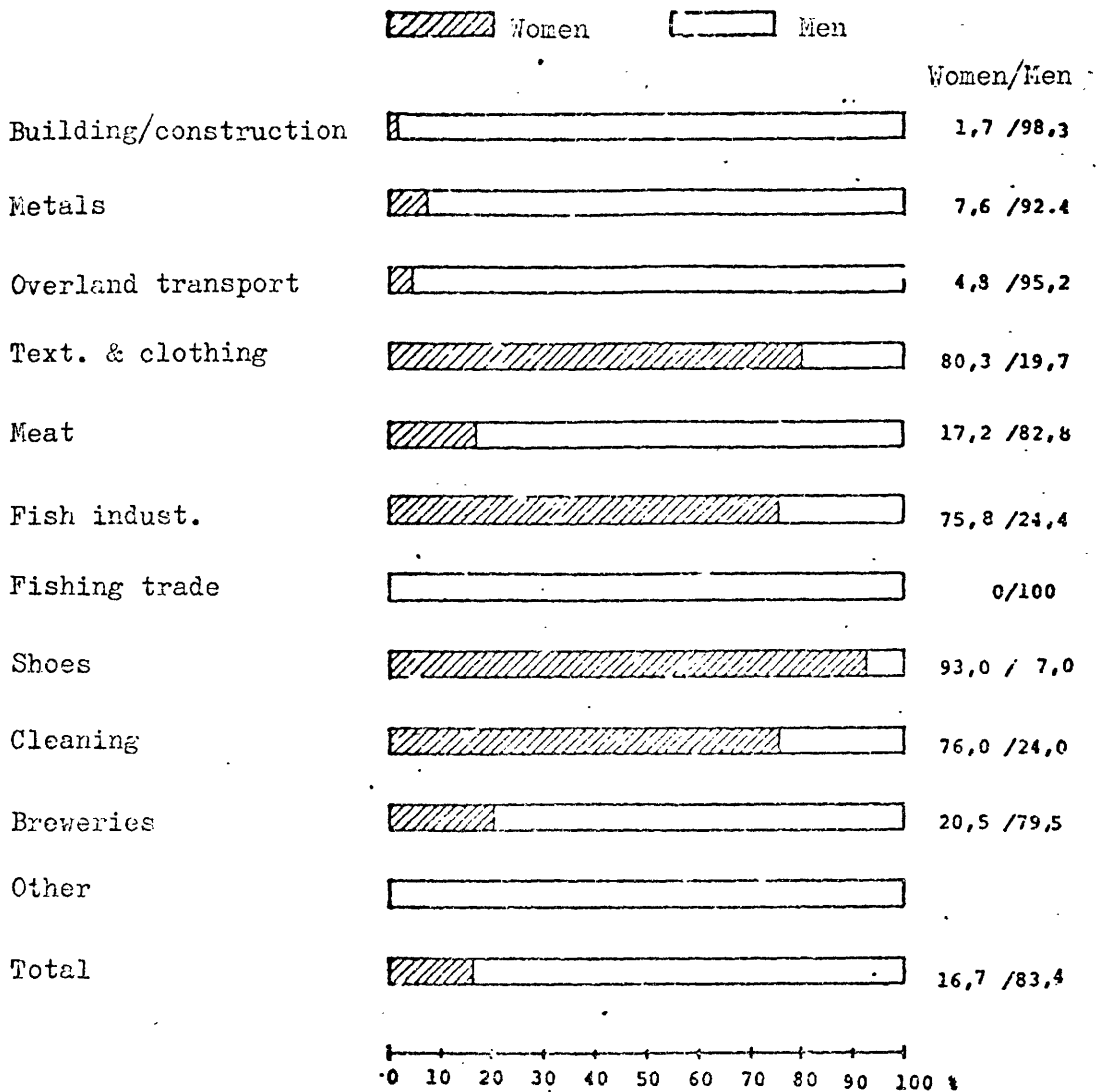


Table 5.

Share of undergraduates admitted to colleges of education.

	Women	Men
1961	19	10
1966	27	16
1970	29	18

Almost 30 p.c. of the women undergraduates were admitted to colleges of education in 1970, while only 18 p.c. of the men applied and were admitted.

The inclination to study, however, is greater for men than for women, both with respect to the universities and the institutes of higher education. But it should be borne in mind that the number changing institutions and duplicate registrations are larger for men than for women.



Table 6.

Inclination to study at the universities

	Women p.c.	Men p.c.
1950	43	59
1955	44	53
1960	44	51
1965	54	66
1970	59	74
1974 +)	58	86

+ ) The admission is here placed in relation to undergraduates plus those completing higher preparatory school.

The women undergraduates' inclination to seek a university education went up substantially during the 1960-65 period in spite of the fact that during precisely this period the number of students had doubled. The same tendency may be found for the male students, except that the increase after 1965 had been stronger than for the women. This is due primarily to the fact that the admission restrictions at the institutions of education had changed the inclination of the male undergraduates to study. As a result of the admission restrictions, the number of students admitted to the institutions of higher education had been declining from 1960 to 1965.

The institutions of higher education admitted only a modest share of new women undergraduates during the period considered. The drop in the inclination to study at the institutions of higher education due to the restriction in admissions from 1960 to 1965 has been absorbed partly by the universities, and partly by the colleges of education who have received an increasing share of the new students in recent years:

Table 7.

Women's share of all new admissions:

	1960 p.c.	1965 p.c.	1970 p.c.	1974 p.c.
Number undergraduates	43.6	44.5	47.0	50.0
Share of new admittances at:				
University of Copenhagen	42.5	42.0	43.5	41.9
University of Aarhus	32.0	32.4	37.5	40.3
University of Odense	...	...	47.1	...
Technical College of Denmark	3.6	3.7	6.6	9.2
Engineering Academy of Denmark	7.1	4.9	10.1	...
Pharmacy College of Denmark	54.1	65.8	65.4	60.2
Royal Veterinary and Agricultural College	8.7	9.7	15.8	35.2
College of Dentistry in Copenhagen	37.1	48.1	49.6	58.2
College of Dentistry in Aarhus	43.4	39.6	57.1	38.7
The architect schools	20.0	14.5	25.1	28.3
The music conservatories	51.2	39.5	38.8	41.2
The colleges of education	53.7+)	57.5	56.8	52.6
Technical college	...	0.4++)	0.5	...
Library School of Denmark	...	...	74.0	69.6
Danish School of Journalism	...	...	...	34.5
Therapeutical schools	...	...	...	89.4

+ ) Figures relate to 1961

++) Figures relate to 1966

Table 8.

The Sex Distribution Among Candidates

When looking at the development of the women's share of new candidates for those fields of education where there is a preponderance or an equilibrium of women in the admission to courses of study, the following relationships appear:

Women's share of all candidates

	1959/60	1964/65	1969/70	1973/74
	p.c.	p.c.	p.c.	p.c.
The faculties of arts	37	42	47	43 ++)
The colleges of education	..	55+)	56	58 ++)
The colleges of dentistry	35	38	46	46
Pharmacy College of Denmark	48	54	67	70

+ ) 1965/66

++ ) 1972/73

Differences in completion, and withdrawals.

It is generally assumed that the motivation for completing an education once started is the greatest when the education is short. It is true especially of women that the pressure from the surroundings to complete an education is smaller than the pressure placed upon men with respect to securing an education which provides professional competence.

The percentage of completion varies from one college to another, and it varies especially strongly when considering the completion for male and female university students.

Table 9.

Admission frequency, 1974

	Women	Men
College of Journalism	39.5	46.2
Therapeutical schools	15.8	32.0
Study of pharmacy	77.3	70.9
Study of dentistry in Copenhagen	56.4	49.6
Study of dentistry in Aarhus	38.7	60.0
Dental care training in Copenhagen	38.0	61.5
Dental care training in Aarhus	15.9	50.0

Table 10.

An average calculation for ten years of new candidates showed the following percentages of completion:

	Women	Men
	p.c.	p.c.
University of Copenhagen	44	71
University of Aarhus	36	65
Technical College of Denmark	77	83
Royal Veterinary and Agricultural College	49	76
College of Dentistry in Copenhagen	72	77
Pharmacy College of Denmark	65	92

Source: Lillian Vohn, "Uddannelsen 50/1975"

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EUROPEAN SEMINAR  
ON  
VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND TRAINING  
FOR WOMEN WORKERS

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SEPTEMBER 1975

Phase A: Situation, achievements and problems  
in vocational guidance and training for  
women workers in FRANCE

Rapporteur: Mrs ARIBAUD

I. GENERAL OUTLINE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND TRAINING FOR WOMEN WORKERS

1. A - VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE FOR WOMEN WORKERS

1. A 1. - Legal framework

Guidance is dealt with by three Ministeries:

- the Ministry of Education deals with educational and vocational guidance for pupils in secondary schools,
- the Secretariat of State for universities is responsible for the guidance of students,
- and the Ministry of Labour deals with vocational guidance for workers.

Educational and vocational guidance in secondary education

Decree No. 73.129 of 12 February 1973 introduced a reform of the procedures in the second degree of public education (Annex 1).

The Decree of 12 February 1973 (Annex 1) and circulars 307, 308, 309 and 310 of 27 July specified the manner in which they were to be put into effect.

The reform of the specialized services for information and guidance, started by the setting-up in 1970 (Decree No. 70.238 of 19 March 1970) of ONISEP (Office national d'information sur les enseignements et les professions), was continued in 1971 by a reorganization of the departments under the Ministry of Education which were responsible for information and guidance (Decree No 71.541 of 7 July 1971, Annex 2).

In order to give information and guidance services maximum efficiency, new regulations for technical staff were laid down (Decree No. 72.310 of 21 April 1972).

The organization chart of the information and guidance departments may be found in Annex 3.

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Educational and vocational guidance in higher education

Circulars No 349 of 23 May 1973, No 103 of 30 October 1970 and No. 1030 of 16 April 1974 give instructions on the organization of information and guidance for students. One of these measures provides for the setting-up of an information and guidance cell in each university.

Vocational guidance for workers

Ruling No. 67.578 of 13 July 1967 (Annex 4) setting up a National Employment Agency under the Ministry of Labour, provides that the Agency shall be responsible, on behalf of the State, for operations prior to vocational training to which it guides job seekers in cooperation with the administrations and bodies responsible for training centres.

1. A. 2 - Institutions, structures and methods of vocational guidance

2. 1. comments and analysis of the labour market and employment trends

Provision had already been made at the time of the creation of the ANPE (national employment agency) for two advisory and research bodies at the national level to deal with employment:

- CEREQ (Centre for study and research into qualifications) the creation of which was announced in Decree No 70.239 of 19 March 1970 on the organizing of ONISEP (Annex 5).

CEREQ deals more particularly with the qualitative aspect of employment. Its task as to:

- study jobs and trades,
- assess qualitative changes due to technical developments,
- study qualifications adjustments due to technical developments.

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More specifically, since 1970, CEREQ carried out a series of studies to obtain a deeper knowledge of the processes by which qualifications develop (branch by branch studies: chemistry, mechanics and construction, transversal studies: for instance, study on the effect of applying data processing to employment and qualifications in the undertaking as a whole) and means of access to jobs (survey of students leaving university in 1970, another on the activities of holders of a BEP (vocational studies certificate). Furthermore, in 1974, CEREQ drew up the "Répertoire Français des emplois" aimed at providing a better knowledge of the content and trend of jobs and at harmonizing jobs on the basis of common training systems.

- CEE (centre d'études de l'emploi) set up and organized by Decree No 70.1087 of 25 November 1970.

The CEE is connected with the National Institute for Demographic Studies. Its task is to:

- study the overall operation of the labour market (with the exception of the establishment of series of current statistics and overall economic analyses, the latter being the task of the INSEE - National institute for economic statistics and studies), short- and medium-term,
- establish/employment prospects by sector and occupation with the general commission of Plan and INSEE,
- undertake studies on the various aspects of employment sociology and all the problems of workers' adjustment to employment.

The forward studies carried out by the CEE and particularly those on the assessment of recruiting needs by occupation concern the departments of education and vocational training. These studies are aimed at pinpointing the risks of imbalances caused by those leaving training and the requirements of the economy. They will in future also take account of the possibilities of adapting the production system to the training systems.



In the field of behaviour, the Centre has already carried out research work on the attitudes of young people and old workers in respect of employment problems, and those of employers in relation to old workers. Such cross-referred research makes it possible to spot the differences at the root of non-adjustment and imbalance and attempt to analyse the causes. The same method of cross-research work will be applied to other population groups, e.g., women.

## 2.2. Information and documentation

### Documentation

ONISEP (Annex 5), cooperating with the University, administrations, occupations and bodies concerned, is responsible for drawing up and making available to users the documentation necessary in information and guidance for detailed knowledge of vocational methods and activities.

ONISEP publishes general documentation, (information on educational guidance, general data on education and vocational outlets) studies on each branch of economic activity, educational monographs (brochures on schools and universities), brochures on rehabilitation for the handicapped, and a series of 450 filecards on current occupations in 1972.

ONISEP has several direct sales points (usually the Regional Delegations of ONISEP) and a mail-order service. Its publications may be consulted in all information and guidance centres.

### Information

The documentation drawn up by ONISEP is the privileged working instrument:

- of the guidance counsellors of the information and guidance centres,
- of the information officers, a new body set up in 1975 whose task is to disseminate vocational information, and the vocational counsellors of the National Employment Agency,

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- the information officers of the CIF (information centre for women) an association set up in 1901, under the aegis of the Prime Minister and wholly subsidized by the State. The CIF and its regional and "departmental" branches (about fifteen) has since January 1972 been providing, women and hence their families with information on all the problems of family and vocational life, social sector, practical living and leisure time. The CIF provides the Ministries concerned with trend reports. The national CIF provided information to 10.127 persons in 1972, 19.986 in 1973 and 25.432 in 1974. It has just been allocated an additional subsidy of FF 350.000 by the National Fund for Vocational Training to provide women with information on continuous vocational training.
- The CIDJ information officers (information and documentation centre for the young) an association set up under the law of 1901, subsidized by the State and placed under the aegis of the Secretariat of State for the Young and for Sport. The CIDJ informs young people, particularly young workers on vocational training and leisure time. It publishes its own documentation in the form of cards.
- other bodies take an active part in vocational information for workers:
  - . the CNASEA (national centre for the development of farm structures) informs farmers, farming associates and those who have left agriculture on the training possibilities open to them,
  - . the Ministry of Defence provides recruits with mainly audio-visual vocational information in collaboration with the ANPE and AFPA (national association for vocational training of adults,
  - . the employers' and trade union organizations also provide their members with information on vocational training and employment,
  - . radio and television and a number of magazines (particularly women's weeklies) also inform the public on matters of training and employment.

### 2.3. Vocational guidance

#### C.I.O. Information and guidance centres

In principle, an information and guidance centre must be set up by decree of the Ministry of Education in each educational district. In the largest districts, several centres may be set up.

The centres are placed under the authority of the Academy inspector resident in the department, each centre being directed by a director appointed by decree of the Ministry of Education. An information and guidance inspector creates, coordinates and supervises the guidance activities in the department. In each academy, the responsibility for guidance and information activities is held, under the authority of the Rector, by a department head who also directs the regional Delegation of ONISEP.

The State, which is also responsible for all the personnel of the information and guidance centres, gradually takes over responsibility for the centres themselves which then also become State departments.

In 1975, the number of public IGC totals 315 of which 233 are managed by local collective groups (departments in most cases). They are staffed by 2500 counsellors and directors, 75 inspectors and 25 academy heads of department.

In the context of a coordinated and concerned vocational training and social advancement policy, the information and guidance departments provide information and guidance for trainees.

In addition to the school population, the guidance counsellors have also been given the task, since the implementing of the Law of 16 July 1971, of informing and guiding adult workers on continuous vocational training (circular No 71.417 of 13 December 1971 - continuous guidance and training).

The ANPE (National employment agency)

Vocational guidance for adults is the sole responsibility of the National employment agency.

Vocational counsellors are responsible for solving problems relating to the choice of a trade, change of occupation or further training. The vocational counsellors give personalized information to their consulters (personal interviews). They also take part in public information actions and collaborate in the study on reclassification conditions for certain job applicants.

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At 31 December 1971, the National Agency comprised 276 local employment agencies, 204 subsidiaries and 9 administrative centres located throughout the country.

The ANPE had 279 vocational counsellors in 1973 and 344 in 1974.

Furthermore, in 1974, vocational documentation, information and advice division was set up to ensure the development of vocational advice and information services and to carry out all the tasks resulting therefrom.

### A.3. - How they function

#### 3.1. Vocational guidance intervention methods and machinery for quantitative and qualitative adjustment.

Guidance in the educational context is, by definition, long-term guidance.

National advisory vocational committees for each branch of vocational activity are consulted in the event of the setting-up or closing-down of technical schools of all types. The committees, however, do not have the factors needed to predict the labour market for any period over 3 years. The adjustment is too fragmented.

Vocational guidance for adults is carried out in the short-term with a more or less immediate working programme.

#### 3.2. Choice of jobs and training possibilities

3.21. Types of training: initial training, qualification, refresher and retraining courses, conversion, promotion, preparation for return on labour market.

See in Annex the training possibilities offered to the school population (technological and agricultural education, apprenticeship).

See under 1. B.3.2. the training possibilities open to adult workers.

### 3.3. Results

- 3.31. number of staff (broken down according to A.3.2) and number of "women workers" receiving vocational guidance.

#### The ANPE

The vocational counsellors of the Employment Agency advised 151.098 persons in 1974, i.e. 14.8 % more than in 1973.

The increasing demand for vocational guidance is proof of the difficulties encountered by workers in entering or re-entering the labour market and of the increasing recourse to provisions relating to continuous vocational training. This demand mainly concerns the young and women who constitute a large proportion of those using the services of vocational counsellors.

A study carried out on the files of consultants for 1971, 1972 and 1973 shows that the number of women consultants is increasing; from 36 % in 1971 the figure rose to 39 % in 1972 and 42 % in 1973 (Annex 6 contains the table of consultants by sex and age).

#### The C.I.O.

Adults having received guidance in an information and guidance centre are listed in a "miscellaneous" column; it is therefore impossible to distinguish which are men and which women (Annex 7 comprises the table of persons consulting the CIO).

- 3.32. relationship between labour market - vocational role of women workers - vocational and educational guidance - vocational training - employment.

Guidance counsellors who receive as many girls as boys (there are even more girls than boys in the third, first and last classes) and vocational counsellors from the Employment Agency provide the same guidance for both men and women although they nevertheless take into account the differences in treatment, career prospects, etc. which might be encountered at work owing to their sex. Despite this, women too often opt for the traditional "woman's" jobs (third sector): secretary, health and welfare, clothing and textile industries etc.). A change is needed in the attitude of the employers and male workers and also in that of the parents and the women themselves.

Relationship between educational and vocational guidance and vocational training and employment

ONISEP 's task is to assist the administrations and bodies involved in problems for which it is responsible, and more specifically to assist the Interministerial Committee on vocational training and social advancement in the drawing-up and implementing of a coordinated vocational training policy.

Such concertation and coordination is done in the regional and departmental committees where the academy heads of department for information and guidance hold office.

Furthermore, circular No 71232 of 13 July 1971 invited the rectors to institute systematic cooperation between the heads of technological schools (CET, lycee, TUT, engineering schools), educational and vocational guidance centres and heads of local employment agencies.

3.4. Costs and financing of vocational guidance

- The ANPE

It is impossible to differentiate in the Agency budget between the cost of guidance and that of finding employment.

The amount corresponding to estimated and authorized ordinary expenditure in the Agency's 1974 budget was FF 260.427.365, i.e., 19 % more than in 1973 - FF 218.209.253.

This increase is the result of the development in the appropriation relating to expenditure on personnel (+ 19 %), which covers a little over 80 % of the appropriations allocated to the Agency and expenditure on equipment (+ 22 %).

In 1974, the Agency had 6,193 posts compared with 5,793 in 1973.

The creation of 400 new posts comprised 172 posts for job finders and 50 posts for vocational counsellors which brings the number of job finders to 2,661 and counsellors to 343.

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The CIO's

From 1971 to 1974, expenditure on the running of the centres nearly tripled (42.1 in 1971, 80.4 in 1972, 100.7 in 1973 and 114.6 million francs in 1974). Expenditure on staff training has nearly doubled (4.2 in 1971, 6.4 in 1972, 7.3 in 1973 and 7.5 in 1974) whilst the funds allocated to the ONISEP have appreciably increased (27.3 in 1971, 28.10 in 1972, 33.5 in 1973 and 37.5 in 1974).

1.B - VOCATIONAL TRAINING FOR WOMEN WORKERS

1.B.1. Laws, regulations and agreements

Law No 71.575 of 16 July 1971 and its implementing texts (Annex 8 to 13) lays down the principles, fixes the rules and sets up the machinery for continuous vocational training within the framework of Continuous Education. These texts, applicable since 1 January 1972, revise and improve the provisions of the Laws of 31 July 1959, 3 December 1966 and 31 December 1968.

Other major texts have helped in the preparation of the Law of 16 July 1971:

- the Grenelle protocol (June 1968) following the Grenelle negotiations (May 1968)
- the national inter-vocational agreement of 10 February 1969 on security of employment
- the agreement of 9 July 1970 and its "management" codicil of 30 April 1971 (Annexes 14 and 15).

concluded between Employers and workers' trade unions.

Law No 71.575 of 16 July 1971 introduced new rights for employees and new obligations for employers. It also deals with the self-employed.

The aim of this law is to:

- generalize the technique of the convention;
- extend the system of leave-for-training to all workers, particularly State officials and public officials;
- place employers under the obligation to take part in the financing of continuous vocational training;
- supplement and improve the wages' system.

- Annex 16 shows an organization chart of the vocational training and social advancement authorities.

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1. B. 2. - Vocational training institutions, structures and methods.

2.1. of the educational type (public/private)

- public secondary education establishments (technical colleges, lycees, etc.).

In each academy G.R.E.T.A. 's (groups of establishments) have been set up to meet the training demands made by undertakings and employees (Annex 17). Their activities are put into action by the DAFCO (academic delegate to continuous training), Adviser to the Rector (Annex 18).

Such establishments also offer social advancement classes.

- the IUT's (University technology institutes) who mainly organize advancement courses for trainees;

- the Universities

Training courses are set up under the continuous training schemes in each university.

- centres responsible to public establishments:

- the 152 CCI's (chambers of commerce and industry) play an important part in the field of education, particularly in Paris. The proposed projects (800 education units including a number of higher trade schools, 17 higher schools for trade and administration and 36 business training institutes) are aimed at the young and at adults. The CCI's have a continuous training department and most of them have a training centre (further training, promotion, training schemes of undertakings).
- The 96 trade chambers are playing an increasing role in the organization of apprenticeship to continuous education and in strengthening the qualifications of craftsmen and the like (advancement and qualification centres).

Management classes are also available to the wives of craftsmen.

- The 93 chambers of agriculture held courses in further technical training and management for farmers, farming associates and farmer's wives.

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- private establishments (schools, institutes, etc.) take part in vocational training for adults and are therefore eligible for a State subsidy within the framework of agreements, provided that their courses meet the priority guidelines defined by the Prime Minister in accordance with the provisions of the Law of 16 July 1971.

2.2. - of the non-school type (public/private)

2.21. training institutions or bodies

- the AFPFA (national association for the vocational training of adults).

This is a private association (Law of 1 July 1901) fully subsidized by the State. It is tripartite (administration, employees, and employers' trade unions) and comes under the Ministry of Labour.

The AFPFA is responsible for training, conversion and further training for job-seekers over 17.

The AFPFA also deals with the pre-training of the young and training for the handicapped. Its departments have been deconcentrated (Annex 19). Over 70 % of its departments are equipped to teach construction or metal work.

The trainees are paid and in certain centres can be lodged free of charge.

In addition to the full-time training courses lasting from three to twelve months, the AFPFA offers: part-time correspondence courses, guidance, examinations, continuous training courses, teacher training courses, and technical and educational constancy in France and abroad.

- the CFPPA's (centres for vocational training and advancement) in agriculture usually attached to the agricultural colleges.
- the CNAM (national conservatory for arts and trades)

A public establishment for higher education founded in 1974, the CNAM is placed under the authority of the Ministry of Education. The CNAM enables adults already working both to obtain further training in a specific field and to undertake long-term training leading to a diploma of higher technical or economic education without leaving their job (its preparatory courses, particularly in mathematics and physics, are aimed at those who do not have the level required to attend the higher education courses).

There are 42 associated regional centres (+ 49 annexes) and 7 approved regional centres operating in the same way in the provinces (Annex 20). The courses are held outside working hours at the end of the afternoon and on Saturdays. Certain courses are televised.

In the context of continuous training, some courses take place in working hours. "Tailored" courses can be organized at the request of undertakings. In addition, more specialized courses are held in the 25 institutes, schools and centres of the Parisian CNAM.

- the CNTE (national tele-education centre)

The CNTE is a public establishment which forms part of OFRATÉME (French office of modern education techniques).

Its task is to provide by correspondence, radio and television, free education to children, young persons and adults who are unable to attend an ordinary establishment for reasons of health, distance, work or family situation. About 85 % of CNTE users are persons who work.

The CNTE comprises 6 establishments (Grenoble, Lille, Lyon, Rouen, Toulouse and Vanves) which have been independent since 1972 each of which provides a different education (general, technical and vocational courses, teaching courses, preparation for administrative examinations, etc.).

There are oral classes to back up the correspondence courses (radio programmes, records, tape recordings, meeting centres, audiovisual techniques, etc.).

For a number of years, the CNTE has provided training for individual adults in the context of social advancement or for employees of undertakings in the context of continuous training.

## 2.22. organizations or undertakings

- the FAF (insurance-training fund)

There are two types of FAF:

- . employees 'FAF' set up for employees of undertakings legally obliged to participate in continuous training
- . self-employed persons' FAF.

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The FAF's are subject to the approval of the Prime Minister.

- employees' FAF's are set up by agreement between one or several employers and trade unions organizations representing the workers. They are financed by sums paid by member employers which may represent the whole or a part of their legal obligations.

Managed on a joint basis, the 49 FAF set up in 1975 guarantee the firms or employees the reimbursement of training costs and fees for the training period.

- the FAF for self-employed persons (traders, craftsmen and employers not subject to the legal obligation) may, by agreement with the trade union organizations, allocate benefits from this fund to their employees. (Annex 10).

- the ASFO's (training associations)

Since 1971, the CNPF (national council of French employers) advocated the setting-up of public structures enabling employers' organizations to promote a training policy in undertakings and to provide them with corresponding funds.

By 1973, about 140 ASFO conformed to this definition.

The ASFO's have a triple role:

- . information and sensitization of heads of undertakings
- . assistance and advice
- . management of training projects (own projects or recourse to external methods).

- business companies,
- non-profit making continuous training associations (association under the Law of 1 July 1971), whether or not specialized,
- private institutes, etc.

may take part in continuous vocational training within the framework of the Law of 16 July 1971.

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### 2.3 different types of training

Initial training, training for qualifications, recycling, conversion, promotion, preparation for return on labour market, ...

See the Tables on the organization of the school system in Annexes 21 and 22.

See the Table on the different types of vocational training courses in Annex 23.

#### 1.B. 3 How they function

##### 3.1 conditions of access for women workers to vocational training

The terms of the Law of 16 July 1971 and its implementing rules are not discriminatory. Particularly in respect of leave-training, the workers have the same rights as their male colleagues.

Nevertheless, although there is a constant rise in the percentage of women benefiting from the advantages of continuous vocational training, it is still not comparable with the proportion of women in the working population (38.4 %).

The percentage of women trained with State assistance has risen from 24 % (or 191.000 women out of 790.000 trainees) to 28 % (or 242.000 women out of 875.000 trainees) from 1971 to 1974. In 1973, it was about 25 % (or 236.000 out of 954.000 trainees).

Furthermore, in 1973, about 3.000 women workers were trained by firms in the context of their legal obligations, i.e. 22 % of all staff (1040000 workers) compared with 20 % in 1972.

In addition, the specific case of mothers who wish to work or return to work after raising their children, has been provided for by the legislator. Article L 960.3 of Book IX of the Work Code (former Article 25 of the Law of 16 July 1971) states that mothers wishing to hold a post requiring a qualification are treated in the same way as workers attending a conversion course and are therefore eligible for remuneration equal to the SMIC (about FF 1200) plus 20 % for those with at least 3 children or one child for which they are responsible if they are head of household.

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### 3.2. present training systems

#### - State aid policy

The various training possibilities open to workers of both sexes are as follows:

- public education establishments (CET, technical colleges, IUT, universities, etc.)
- centres under the authority of consular bodies
- approved private establishments  
see 2.1.
- public or private training institutions or bodies (CNAM, CNTE, AFPA, private institutes, etc.)  
see 2.21.

see also in Annexes 24 and 25 the Table of the number of trainees and the number of persons trained under the various categories of projects financed by the State.

#### - effort made by undertakings

The other training possibility is that proposed by the undertakings. Under certain conditions, employers organize training projects for their personnel either in or outside the undertaking. (Article 4 of Decree No 71.979 of 10 December 1971 Annex 11 and circular of 4 September 1972 on employers' financial participation in continuous vocational training. 4211 - 1st definition of training projects).

The number of employees that attended a course financed by the undertaking in 1973 is 1.490.000 (1.770.000 in 1974), which represents about 14 % of the employees of the undertaking in question.

It should be noted that some of these employees attended several courses in the year since the number of courses was 1.550.000 (1.944.000 in 1974). Moreover, 56 % (58 % in 1974) of courses are held in the undertaking, whereas 44 % (42 % in 1974) are held pursuant to agreements. Most of them are refresher and advanced training courses (see Annex 26).

### 3.22. by sectors of activity

Training courses for industrial employment comprise less than half the trainees, but they are considerably longer than other training courses (see Annex 27, the table of number of trainees by sector of activity).

The table of the number of trainees by groups of training schemes is unfortunately available only for 1974 (see Annex 28).

No statistics have been prepared on training schemes set up in the context of participation of undertakings.

### 3.23. by standard of qualification

The breakdown into levels of training schemes receiving a State subsidy was adopted. The training standards are laid down in accordance with the interministerial nomenclature adopted by the Standing Working Party on vocational training and social advancement.

#### - Interministerial nomenclature of training standards

- I and II : personnel in jobs normally requiring a standard of training equal to or higher than a degree from an engineering school.
- III : personnel in jobs normally requiring training to the level of a higher technician's certificate, a diploma from university institutes of technology or completion of the first cycle of higher education.
- IV : personnel in superintending jobs or possessing a qualification equal to a technical "baccalauréat" or a technician's certificate.
- V : persons in jobs normally requiring a standard of training equal to that of a vocational studies certificate (BEP), or a vocational aptitude certificate (CAP) or a vocational training certificate for adults (CFPA), 1st degree.
- VI : personnel in jobs that do not require any training beyond completion of compulsory education.

There is a distinct increase in training to a lower standard whilst training to a higher level is constantly dropping.

Most of the short advanced training courses, now also listed, were between levels I to IV; consequently, the average length of training at these levels distinctly rose from 1973 to 1974 (Annex 29).

The statistics relating to training in the context of participation take account of the personnel concerned and not of the standard required to attend the course (Annex 30).

Since 1972, the distribution of trainees among the various job categories has changed considerably. The proportion of engineers, management level and technicians has dropped whilst that of the workers and qualified employees has clearly increased: the number of trainees in these categories doubled from 1972-74. The percentage of skilled labourers and workers remained generally stable.

In 1974, trainees as a whole received 110 million hours of training, i.e., an average of 62 hours per trainee. This average dropped from 74 hours in 1972, 69 hours in 1973 and 62 hours in 1974.

The courses taken by the skilled labourers and workers are longer than average (60 hours in 1974).

3.3. number of trainees (broken down according to B. 3.2. and compared with number of male workers).

There is 75% male trainees and 25% women trainees, whilst in the population as a whole, the distribution is 62% and 38%. The proportion of women trainees increases every year; thus it rose from 22% in 1972 to 25% in 1974. One working man in 7 and one working woman in 13 attends a course (Annex 31).

There are as yet no statistics giving the breakdown by sex and sector of activity. We can attempt only to estimate number of women trainees in certain training groups (textiles, secretariat, personal care, etc).

The only statistic giving a breakdown by sex and training level is a cross-referred Table concerning the various training schemes which received a state subsidy in 1973 (Annex 32).

For the same year, there is only a Table showing the distribution by sex and job in the undertaking (Annex 33).



3.4. procedures and machinery for adjustment (quantitative, qualitative) of training resources to requirements

The AFPA and the ANPE (national employment agency) is the privileged instrument used by the Ministry of Labour to direct its employment policy. The AFPA's basic task is to assist in regulating the labour market and reduce any quantitative and qualitative imbalances. It provides employers with skilled labour and affords workers the possibility of supplementing their training, changing their qualification or advancing themselves.

In addition to this general task, there is the more urgent one of intervening when serious imbalances in employment or conversion problems occur at the level of a branch, region or undertaking.

Each year, a circular from the Prime Minister defines the priority guidelines of State aid. In its last circular (No 340) dated 20 February 1974, the following priorities were among those adopted:

- actions to facilitate the solution of employment problems

These are actions designed to

- provide against the effects of dismissals of an economic nature
- provide against the effects of economic development (farmers leaving agriculture, restructuring or modernization of certain sectors, particularly agriculture, trade and craft industries)
- cope with the serious and urgent shortages in skilled personnel.

3.5. results (certificates and diplomas - training/employment ratio)

The development of continuous vocational training has put a number of trainees onto the market, armed with "end-of-training or attendance certificates", "certificates of regular attendance", etc.) or even no certificate.

It is essential that bearers of diplomas or certificates obtained at the end of a continuous vocational training course are not placed at a disadvantage in relation to bearers of traditional education diplomas. For this reason, training or advanced training certificates delivered by the Ministry of Labour, Employment and Population (these are certificates confirming the training given in the centres managed by the AFPA and in approved centres) were approved (Decree of 17 December 1973) by a committee placed under the authority of the Prime Minister (Decree No 72.279 of 12 April 1972). The aim of the committee is to determine, on the basis of an objective analysis of the training, the level at which the certificate or diploma of technical education delivered on completion of the course should be classified.

The forms concerning the new agreements concluded between the Ministries and the regional administrators include a question on approval of the Training:

State-approved certificate or diploma	YES	NO
" " " "	"	"
Certificate of training	"	"
Non-approved training	"	"

Provided that no technical problems crop up, the draft financial law for 1977 will include a statistic on certificates or diplomas delivered by training bodies in 1975.

The employment/training ratio is a major factor in the drawing-up of a vocational training policy. The ANPE (national employment agency) is the body responsible for bringing together the supply of and demand for employment. Ruling No 67.578 of 13 July 1967 creating a National Employment Agency specifies that the ANPE is responsible, on behalf of the state, for operations prior to vocational training, to which latter it guides job seekers with the assistance of the responsible administrations and bodies of the training centres (Annex 4).

It is, however, difficult to achieve a connection between job openings and the training which should lead to them. Even in times of unemployment, there are posts which are not filled as they are over-specialized in relation to the training received by the job seekers.

At the regional level, there are two advisory authorities competent in matters of employment and vocational training:

- regional committee for vocational training, social advancement and tripartite employment (employers' and workers' representatives, qualified persons, representatives of administrations) who:
  - . examines employment situations and prospects,
  - . coordinates at regional level the studies and research work undertaken to improve knowledge of employment conditions;
  - . regularly receives information on the activities of the agency, employment in the region and the regional ONISEP delegation,
  - . suggests any measures effective in the solving of employment problems,
  - . gives its opinion at the request of the regional administrator on study and research projects financed by public funds, training equipment financed by the state and on training agreements,
- the joint intervocational regional committee on employment (not in all regions as yet), composed in general of 10 employer members and 10 trade union members which:
  - . plays a specific operational role in the event of mass dismissals,
  - . undertakes studies, analyses and debates in a joint context enabling it to take any action required to establish contacts with the regional committee and its specialized groups.

### 3.6. costs and financing of vocational training

- State aid (Annexes 8 and 12: Articles L 940.1 (former Article 9) and L 940.2 (former Article 10) of the law of 16 July 1971, Decree No 71.980 of 10 December 1971).

Continuous vocational training schemes are financed under various budgetary items under a general "vocational training" heading. The vocational training fund, forming part of the Prime Minister's budget, constitutes a part of this whole.

The vocational training fund takes part in the financing of the vocational training agreements concluded by the Ministries or regional administrations and the social advancement classes of the Ministry of education and vocational training projects carried out by the Ministry of Defence for your conscripts.

Apart from this fund, the vocational training budget takes into account the financing of the AFFA, agreements concluded under the national employment fund and action taken on behalf of adults by the CNAM and CMTE.

State aid can cover operating expenditure on the courses and the costs of building and equipping the centres. The State also partly finances trainees' remuneration. Vocational training is still one of the government's top priorities. Total appropriations for vocational training represented:

- operating expenditure (including apprenticeship)	FF	1.215 million in 1971
	"	1.437 million in 1972
	"	1.741 million in 1973
	"	2.195 million in 1974
- equipping	FF	181 million in 1971
	"	230 million in 1972
	"	262 million in 1973
	"	273 million in 1974

The draft budget for 1975 provided FF 2750 million for operating expenses and 263 million for equipment, i.e., an overall increase of 22% compared with 1974 and an increase of over 115% in four years.

- participation of undertakings (Decrees No 71.979 of 10 December 1971, Annex 11, No 27.916 of 4 October 1972 and No 72.107 of 13 December 1972 amending No 71.973).

Participation was fixed at 0.8% of the pay-roll of the undertaking in 1972 and 1973, and reached 1% in 1974. Such participation concerns only undertakings with more than 10 employees. It is not a traditional tax since the employers have the right and even the duty to spend it on training their own employees.

Of 130.000 undertakings liable to the obligation to participate:

- 113.000 made their statement in 1973
- 114.000 " " " in 1974
- 118.000 " " " in 1975 i.e. about 90%

These undertakings represent about 10 million employees and a payroll of

207.000 million francs in 1972
234.000 million francs in 1973
300.000 million francs in 1974.

Expenditure on training of their personnel amounted to:

- |  |           |
|--|-----------|
| - 2.800 million in 1972 which corresponds to a participation rate of | 1.35%     |
| - 3.400 million in 1973  | " " 1.45% |
| - 4.900 million in 1974  | " " 1.63% |

2. Analysis of obstacles, difficulties and problems encountered by women workers in vocational guidance and training

2.1. relating to laws, regulations and institutional provisions

Both in the field of guidance and of training, the laws are not discriminatory in respect of sex.

2.2. of a psychological and sociological nature (models, roles, professional status, marital and family status, attitudes and behaviour, etc.).

"The woman's place is in the home", for centuries advertised as the ideal concept, considerably affects guidance and training for women. Nevertheless, women today represent 38.4% of the working population. This coexistence of two female roles is the source of conflict for all women. Those who work are to blame in the eyes of their husbands and children; those who stay at home feel useless.

In the least favoured strata of society (e.g., workers), men are hostile to the idea of their wives working since, owing to their hard working conditions, it is not considered as a social promotion. At the other end of the social scale, husbands are in favour of their wives working insofar as it is a job that flatters them (the professions, executive jobs, etc.).

2.3. of an economic nature (structural, short-term economic)

In a number of regions, particularly in the North and the East, the employment structure is opposed to women on the labour market. Employers demand highly skilled labour, whereas girls and women tend to have only general education diplomas. The desire of those who have already received a measure of training but do not want to specialize too soon runs counter to that of the employers who want super-specialized staff able to work immediately.

Furthermore, in times of low economic stability, women's employment is not viewed with favour. Even workers' trade unions consider female applicants as "job stealers".

#### 2.4. of a practical nature

The problem of minding children, whether or not they are at school, is a major obstacle to the development of vocational training and employment of women. We can never sufficiently emphasize the need for more public facilities. There is still much to be done in this field; new solutions must be proposed.

The distance of training centres is also a major handicap to vocational training for mothers of families. Even where a vocational training centre for adults includes a section for women, it is difficult to imagine that mothers will leave her home for several months, even if she returns at the end of each week. Provision has therefore been made for travelling centres to obtain maximum decentralization of training.

### 3. Solutions and prospects

#### 3.1. measures taken or planned to improve vocational training and guidance for women workers to achieve equality of treatment or to meet the employment situation

- circular No 340 from the Prime Minister of 20 February 1975 includes the following actions among those eligible for State aid:
  - . actions aimed at the insertion on the labour market of women wishing to start work late in life or to return after a period of absence.
- circular No 74.074 of 21 February 1974 from the Ministry of Education invites Rectors to organize training actions for women aged 30 - 40 who wish to work or return to work.
- circular No 1029 from the Prime Minister of 9 June 1975 implementing Article 7 of the Law of 3 January 1975 gives priority access to vocational training courses to widows, with or without a child, and compelled to find work.

- AFPA circular published in the information bulletin of July/August 1975 comprised two specific lists of AFPA specialities accessible to women and specialities not recommended for women.

(Annexes 34, 35, 36 and 37)

3.2. desirable measures - prospects - proposals

The Law of 16 July 1971 on continuous vocational training is currently being reformed.

Certain innovations introduced in the reform proposed by Mr HABY, Minister for Education, which include the dropping of the traditional chain of moves in the first cycle and the setting-up of a system of education by option in the second cycle, emphasizes the need for effective educational and vocational guidance.



EUROPEAN SEMINAR ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND TRAINING FOR WOMEN WORKERS

Phase A - Situation, Achievements and Problems in vocational guidance and training for women workers in the United Kingdom.

Rapporteur - Mr F C HAYES

1. The General Context of Vocational Guidance and Training

1 Under the Employment and Training Act, 1973, responsibility for running and developing the public training and employment services in Great Britain passed from the Department of Employment (DE) to a newly established body, the Manpower Services Commission (MSC). The aim was to give these responsibilities to representatives of those who use the services. The MSC consists of a full-time Chairman, 3 members appointed after consultation with the Trades Union Congress, 3 after consultation with the Confederation of British Industry, the main employers' organisation, 2 after consultation with local government authorities and one member with professional education interests.

2 The MSC acts through two Agencies, the Training Services Agency (TSA) and the Employment Service Agency (ESA). Each year it submits a programme of work and a budget to the Government. Once its policy has been approved control of day to day activities is in the hands of the MSC. Its programme includes proposals coming forward from the Agencies.

3 The philosophy and objectives of the employment and training services in Northern Ireland are similar to those in Great Britain but the functions of the MSC are there the responsibility of the Department of Manpower Services.

4 -It is expected that the Sex Discrimination Bill will be law in Great Britain by the end of 1975. The introduction of similar legislation in Northern Ireland is being considered. Details of the proposals in the Bill are included in Annex 1. In addition to its general conditions, the Bill will make it unlawful to discriminate against women in the terms of access to training courses and facilities and by refusing or omitting to afford women such access. At the same time, it will be lawful to discriminate positively in favour of women in certain circumstances. It is hoped that this will help to redress the imbalance between the sexes in particular kinds of employment, within individual organisations or in specific areas of the country.

1.A. Vocational guidance for women workers.

1.A.1 Laws and regulations.

1 The Employment and Training Act 1973 imposes a duty on Local Education Authorities (LEAs) in Great Britain to provide a vocational guidance service for people attending educational institutions and an employment service for those leaving them. The Act empowers LEAs to extend their services to others who seek to use them.

2 Vocational guidance is an essential element in the MSC's duty under the same Act to make arrangements to assist persons to select, train for, obtain and retain employment suitable for their ages and capacities. The MSC's powers extend over the whole employment field. Thus, although vocational guidance for young people would normally be provided by LEAs and that for adults by the MSC, the legislation permits individual choice regardless of age.

3 In Northern Ireland the public employment service operates under the authority of the Employment and Training Act (NI) 1950.

### 1.A.2 Institutions, vocational guidance structures and methods.

- 1 The responsibility for vocational guidance in Great Britain rests with Local Education Authorities (LEAs) under the guidance of the Secretary of State for Employment, and the Manpower Services Commission. In Northern Ireland, the Department of Manpower Services is responsible for an all-age vocational guidance service.
- 2 In Great Britain, the responsibility for the provision of vocational guidance is divided between the Careers Service, which carries out the responsibilities imposed on the LEAs, and the ESA.
- 3 The objectives of the Careers Service are:
  - to help young people to decide on their careers
  - to help them get appropriate employment and/or training
  - to keep in close touch with industry, TSA and ESA.
- 4 There is a network of careers offices throughout the country at which job information - local and national - is available. The main function of careers officers within the service is to provide individual guidance by interviewing pupils and students and being available for consultation.
- 5 The ESA offers a nationwide service to jobseekers and employers by providing
  - information on jobs that are available;
  - advice on labour market opportunities;
  - guidance for individuals with special problems and needs.
- 6 The TSA has a role in the vocational guidance process by providing
  - advice to individuals on suitable training opportunities which are available;
  - courses to assist self assessment and occupational choice among those who have had difficulty in getting or keeping employment.
- 7 In addition many of the Industrial Training Boards (ITBs) (for details of whose role see section 1.B.2 below) produce information about occupations in their industries.
- 8 The objectives of the vocational guidance services in Northern Ireland are broadly similar to those in Great Britain.

### 2.1 Observation and analysis of labour market and development of professions and trades

- 1 In Great Britain the collection, interpretation and dissemination of manpower intelligence is a co-operative activity involving the institutions concerned with vocational guidance and training and other manpower issues. The Careers Service and the ESA, through their network of local offices, obtain information during visits to employers which is used to the benefit of both services. Since employment officers obtain information both on people seeking employment and on vacancies notified by employers they are well placed to detect and assess movements in local labour markets. The MSC is giving priority to making further improvements in manpower planning and intelligence arrangements. For example the desirability of establishing a computerised national careers and occupational information system to which anyone with an interest could have access is under consideration, though the idea is still at a relatively early stage.
- 2 Institutions concerned in vocational training have a role in relation to labour market intelligence both as recipients and as providers of information. For example, regional offices of the TSA identify major training opportunities

and problems through an annual audit of regional indicators of economic, social and manpower conditions and a review of current training provision. All the TSA regions have made provision for the improvement of training opportunities for women in their forward plans. ITBs assist and encourage companies in the identification of manpower and training needs, undertake strategic assessments of manpower and training needs in their industries, and also, through their own regional networks, provide regional and local labour market intelligence. The TSA co-ordinates information produced on a regional and industrial basis and investigates multi-industry manpower needs and the needs of particular groups. Since the training of women is a top MSC/TSA priority, some ITBs have concentrated attention on how arrangements in their industries can be improved.

3 Information is also provided by the Government Departments concerned. In particular, the Department of Employment provides information on employment trends and undertakes special manpower studies. Information is available from other Government sources, for example on industrial trends, social trends and trends in education.

4 In Northern Ireland, employment trends are monitored centrally by the Manpower Intelligence Service of the Department of Manpower Services. In addition, the Department is developing a system for the collection of local labour intelligence based on 13 travel-to-work areas within the province.

## 2.2 Information and documentation

1 Information on specific jobs is usually on a self-service basis: vacancies are displayed in local offices of the ESA in ways which help jobseekers to choose jobs quickly and simply for themselves. A receptionist is available to provide further information on request. This service has proved to be speedy and economical for those needing job information only. The jobseeker who is unable to meet his or her requirements from the display of vacancies can obtain advice on a personal basis from an employment adviser. Whereas in the past it was possible to differentiate between 'men's' and 'women's' jobs, this will be illegal once the Sex Discrimination Bill becomes law, and the ESA is taking steps to ensure that its services accord with the law.

2 The ESA operates a Careers and Occupational Information Centre which prepares information mainly for the employment and careers guidance services. It also helps other bodies in the Manpower field and those working in the field of occupational research. The current range of publications includes an annual careers guide, a series of booklets containing detailed descriptions of specific careers, a classification of occupations and directory of occupational titles, general guidance films and various audio visual aids and a variety of bulletins and leaflets. The Centre plans to indicate in some of its publications currently being prepared for school leavers, that there are opportunities for girls in occupations in hitherto male preserves. The ESA also conducts and sponsors research to improve vocational guidance techniques, eg computer-aided guidance.

3 Within the schools, vocational information and advice is provided both by careers teachers and the Careers Service. The latter also provides similar information for young people who have left school.

## 2.3 Vocational guidance

1 The process of vocational guidance starts within the education system. Careers education is an integral part of the educational curriculum. The process starts at about age 13 with general considerations of the career implications of subject options. Later, pupils are introduced to information on work environments, and occupations and are encouraged towards an increasing awareness of

the available vocational opportunities in relation to their particular abilities and interests. Careers education covers a range of activities including, on a small but developing scale, schemes in which pupils spend short periods in industry to gain practical background experience of work and courses which enable pupils to spend time at a college of further education.

2 The way in which careers education is organised in schools varies widely. Whilst that is a policy of equal opportunity, the fact that girls in general study less scientific subjects than boys and enter a narrow range of occupations often below their abilities, suggest that there is a need for a more positive approach to careers education for girls, starting at an early age.

3 The Careers Service, and its equivalent in Northern Ireland, acts as a bridge between full-time education and employment. It provides individual guidance to all pupils and students and assists schools in the planning and provision of programmes of careers education. It is also active in the development of course material and vocational guidance techniques.

4 Careers education and vocational guidance in colleges of further education are provided similarly by college staff and the Careers Service. Students at universities have their own guidance system and appointments services.

5 Reference has already been made to the services of the ESA which are available after the young person has left school. The ESA's employment advisers are available to act as a consultant both to jobseekers and to employers on the state of the local labour market.

6 There is a range of specialist services for those with special problems and needs including occupational guidance, resettlement services for the disabled and advice on training opportunities.

7 The ESA's occupational guidance service, and its equivalent in Northern Ireland, is a client-centred service which helps individuals to consider their abilities, circumstances and inclinations and to identify jobs which will match their characteristics and give maximum personal satisfaction. About 60 per cent of clients are referred to the Service by employment advisers; the remainder make direct application. Clients come from all age groups and from varying backgrounds ranging from the completely inexperienced or unskilled to the highly qualified professional. They may be facing an enforced change of occupation, generally dissatisfied with their present employment and prospects or returning to employment after a lengthy break.

8 Clients of the Occupational Guidance Service are seen by appointment. They are asked to complete a comprehensive biographical and interests questionnaire and in appropriate cases, an occupational interests inventory prior to an indepth interview with a guidance officer. Occupational guidance officers are specially selected and given intensive inservice training. The further advice of an occupational psychologist who may carry out comprehensive psychological testing is available if required.

### 1.A.3 How they function

1 The functioning of the institutions concerned with vocational guidance has already been largely dealt with in the previous section, 1.A.2.

2 The vocational guidance system in Great Britain operates without distinction for men and women of all standards of qualification, whether employed or unemployed, in all sectors of the economy. Guidance to individuals is provided on the full range of vocational and training opportunities available.

3 The institutions have recently been re-organised and were constituted in their present form only in 1974. They are still therefore at varying stages of development. The aim of the re-organisation is to give maximum response to the needs of both jobseekers and employers, as determined by analysis of the labour market. It is, for example, a specific aim of the ESA to promote measures to enable employers and employees to adjust and adapt to changing labour market circumstances. Women in particular should benefit from the ESA's plans to provide better information on part-time and temporary employment, though this has necessarily been delayed by the problem of dealing with the current high level of unemployment. The ESA is also encouraging its local offices to extend the range of women's employment and this corresponds with the TSA's own plans to increase training opportunities for women in the traditionally male occupations (see 3 and Annex IV).

4 The process of vocational guidance itself attempts to balance the vocational aspirations and aptitudes of the individual with advice based on knowledge of the labour market about job opportunities. The way in which job information and vocational guidance is provided is designed to meet individual needs.

5 Developments within the ESA's employment offices will be of particular relevance to women; a programme of renewal of offices is under way to provide attractive centres in shopping precincts and thoroughfares where the jobseekers can peruse job information on a self-service basis. These new offices have proved to be especially successful in attracting women jobseekers.

6 The greatest opportunities for reducing labour market imbalances through manpower services are in relation to training: the training arrangements are in Part B of the report. An important contribution can be made also by improving mobility and the ESA operates schemes designed to increase the mobility of workers between manpower shortage and manpower surplus areas of the country. Unemployed workers and those threatened by redundancy may be advised and assisted to move to work in areas beyond easy travelling distance of their home.

### 3.3 Results

#### 3.3.1 Numbers receiving vocational guidance

1 The table below analyses the vocational guidance activities of the Careers Service during the period 1 October 1973 to 30 September 1974. It may be assumed that the figures relate in broadly equal proportions to males and females.

Vocational Guidance Interviews:	Schools	1,025,520
	Further Education Colleges	36,460
	Other Young People	104,927
Group Talks/Discussions:	with pupils/students	74,185
	with adult groups	26,612
Interviews with Parents		52,087
Number of Visits:	to employers	48,829
	to FE colleges	10,820

2. The table below shows the specialist, in-depth advice given by the Occupational Guidance Service in 1974 (see section 1.A.2.3 above).

Vocational Guidance by Categories (1974)	Men	Women	Total
Enforced change of occupation	6,076	1,453	7,529
Voluntary change of occupation	21,402	9,611	31,013
New Entrants to Employment	4,758	2,941	7,699
Re-entrants to employment	385	1,579	1,964
<b>Total</b>	<b>32,621</b>	<b>15,584</b>	<b>48,205</b>

3. The following table analyses the vocational guidance given by the ESA according to age groups. It will be seen that great majority of the ESA's clients are adults - ie over 18 years of age.

Vocational Guidance by Age Groups (1974)	Men	Women	Total
16-17	493	329	822
18-24	17,015	9,168	26,183
25-39	10,392	4,452	14,844
40 +	4,721	1,635	6,356
<b>Total</b>	<b>32,621</b>	<b>15,584</b>	<b>48,205</b>

4. The age breakdown of women receiving vocational guidance in Northern Ireland is: 18-24: 71 per cent; 25-39: 21 per cent; 40+: 8 per cent.

### 3.3.2 Relationship between the labour market and the role of women

1. In Great Britain, at June 1974 (latest available figure) the total number of employees in employment was 22,297,000. This was made up of 13,363,000 males (12,675,000 working full-time and 689,000 part-time) and 8,933,000 females (5,512,000 working full-time and 3,421,000 part-time). Thus, whilst women represent 40 per cent of total employees, they constitute only 30 per cent of full-time employees but 83 per cent of part-time. Nearly 40 per cent of women employed work part-time. The unemployment rate for 1974 was 2.6 per cent, 3.6 per cent for men and 1.1 per cent for women. (In September 1975 the corresponding percentages were:- 5.2 per cent; 6.6 per cent and 3.2 per cent).

2. This population is served on a nationwide basis through 1,000 local offices of the Employment Service Agency, 44 Occupational Guidance Units and approximately 2,000 Careers Offices.

3. In Northern Ireland the total number of employees in employment is 494,000 comprising - 296,000 males and - 198,000 females.

4. So far only one vocational guidance unit has been established. It has a staff of 3 who provided vocational guidance interviews for 1,482 people, including 400 women, in the period 1 January 1971 to 31 December 1974.

### 3.3.4 Costs and financing

1. Vocational guidance is provided as a free service to the individual. In Great Britain, the Careers Service is financed by rate support grant to LEAs and the Employment Service out of Exchequer funds. Estimates of the cost of the services in Great Britain in 1975-76 are:

Occupational Guidance Service	£1.25m
Employment Advisory Services	Not separately calculated
Careers Service	£14.7m

## 1.B Vocational Training for Women Workers

### 1.B.1. Laws, regulations and agreements.

1. In Great Britain the Industrial Training Act, 1964, empowered the Government to set up Industrial Training Boards (ITBs) on an industry basis, with the responsibility of seeing that sufficient training is undertaken and that it is of adequate standard to meet industry's needs. The arrangements for the operation of ITBs were modified by the Employment and Training Act, 1973, under which Governmental responsibility for the public training services passed to the MSC.
2. In Northern Ireland, Government training is carried out under the Employment and Training Act (Northern Ireland) 1950. ITBs for Northern Ireland are set up under the Industrial Training Act (Northern Ireland). 1964.
3. There are no statutory regulations governing vocational training.
4. Provisions relating to industrial training may be included in collective agreements reached between employees and employers, covering such matters as the length of training for specified occupations, the proportion of trainees to skilled workers etc. But practice varies widely: there is no general pattern.

### 1.B.2. Vocational training institutions, structures and methods/procedures.

#### 2.1 At school/within the education system

1. The role of secondary schools is to provide a general education for life in the community and to provide a basis for subsequent specialisation. Secondary education may include vocational elements, such as typing for girls, but the actual process of vocational training takes place after young people have left school.
2. Institutions of further and higher education cover courses in both academic and vocational subjects. The vocational elements of further education are often closely integrated with programmes of training and in some instances Colleges of Further Education assist industry by providing training in addition to further education.

#### 2.2 Other than at school

##### 2.21 Training institutions or bodies

1. The national level institutions concerned with the development of industrial training are:

(a) Manpower Services Commission (MSC)

2. For information on the constitution and funding of the MSC see para 1.1.

(b) Training Services Agency (TSA)

3. The TSA is the executive agency of the MSC which has responsibility for putting into effect the MSC's policies on training. The principal aim of the TSA has been defined as

"to promote the development of an efficient national training system which contributes effectively to meeting the manpower needs of the economy and enables all people to have training opportunities consistent with their capacities, desires and employment needs in preparation for and throughout their working lives".

This aim is being pursued through three programmes of activity.

4. The first programme deals with the training needs of industry. More than half the working population in Great Britain come within scope of one of the ITBs (see (c) below). The TSA is in daily contact with ITBs to ensure a common approach on plans and priorities and on the handling of problems. It provides

- funds for the ITBs' operating expenses
- grants for key training activities
- some direct training services
- specialised expertise in selected areas
- planning information from national sources.

5. The TSA also provides a range of direct training services to industry, including help for employers to send selected employees for training at the Agency's establishments (Skillcentres) and provision of a mobile instructor service giving in-plant training for specific projects.

6. Special attention is being given by the TSA to a number of multi-industry training needs of great national importance. Particular priority is being given to women and young entrants to the workforce. Other priorities are office and administrative occupations, management development, offshore oil, overseas trade, safety and health at work, and the training needs of the unemployed.

7. The TSA's second programme is designed to meet the training needs of individuals, i.e. those who have left employment in order to improve their qualifications and those who are unemployed and hope to obtain a job as a result of training. This is the Training Opportunities Scheme (TOPS). Training takes place at Skillcentres, colleges of further education or in employers' establishments

8. Under its third programme the TSA aims to improve training, wherever it is carried out, by the development and dissemination of training knowledge and methods.

#### (c) Industrial Training Boards (ITBs)

9. In Great Britain, over 20 ITBs are now in operation, covering some 12 million employees. Each board has an equal number of trade union and employer members from its industry and a smaller number of educational members. In Northern Ireland, 9 ITBs cover the major industries.

10. In pursuit of their main responsibility of seeing that sufficient training is undertaken and that it is of adequate standard the ITBs publish recommendations on the nature and length of training for various occupations, provide advisory services and in some cases provide training themselves. They work within plans and budgets agreed with TSA, but subject to this have a wide measure of freedom. While specific ITB policies are related to the particular characteristics of their industry, the general approach of ITBs is based on encouragement of systematic training whereby firms assess their training needs and establish and fulfil plans to meet these needs.

11. One of the ITBs' instruments for stimulating training is the arrangement under which they levy a charge (limited normally to 1 per cent of the employers' payroll), the income from which is used to give grants and other services related to the training performance of the recipient undertaking. Additional grants financed by the TSA are available to support key training activities which are concerned with the promotion or improvement of training methods and programmes of general use to the industry, or which are economically or socially desirable but are

- beyond the needs of individual firms or
- beyond ITBs' own resources

12. Each year, ITBs conduct a strategic review of the state of training in their



industries and agree with the TSA a plan for their next four years' operations. ITB plans outline overall and detailed objectives, and programmes to meet the objectives, indicating the type and scale of resources required, the results sought and the implications for provision to be made by the education service.

13. ITBs support some 750 group training schemes, covering firms employing 1.7 millions. Under these schemes small companies with similar training needs employ their own training officer and share facilities which they could not provide individually at an economic cost.

## 2.22 organisations or undertakings

1. The major part of the direct vocational training activities in the United Kingdom is financed and undertaken by employers for their own workers, though important contributions are made by the ITBs and TSA, as has been described above.

2. Sectors of employment not covered by ITBs employ about 10 million workers and include the nationalised industries, public services and some important sectors of private industry and commerce, such as banking, insurance and finance; port transport; shipping. Standards of training vary greatly, as does the scope for fruitful intervention by the TSA. Studies have been made of the "non-ITB sector" by the TSA to see whether any help can be given to enable undertakings to identify and meet their priority training needs.

## 2.3 Types of training

### (a) initial training and training for qualifications

1. In the United Kingdom a more readily understood distinction would be between short-term training (usually based on the requirements of a particular job) and long-term training (providing a range of skills, knowledge and experience). Short-term training is normally associated with jobs at the semi-skilled level requiring limited knowledge or skill, such as machine operating, clerical work or work in retail shops. Long-term training relates to employment at the skilled and professional level.

2. Short-term training is normally provided by the employer, since it is usually job specific and best provided within the work environment. Few employees at this level, whether male or female, are helped by their employers to gain further education qualifications. Relevant ITB recommendations are concerned with

- the provision of suitable induction training
- the identification of training needs and the design of training programmes based on job analysis
- job related training supported by planned work experience

At the same time the TSA is advocating the development of off-the-job vocational preparation of a recognised national standard, inculcating knowledge relevant to jobs within broad occupational bands, for occupations at this level.

3. Most long-term training is provided by employers although such training does also normally include elements of higher or further education. There are three main levels of long-term training:

- professional/technologist
- technician
- craft

4. In most professional/technological occupations the required qualifications, experience and degree of competence are specified by a professional association.

In numerical terms the main occupations are (i) those in the public education, welfare and health services and (ii) those for engineers, technologists and scientists. For those in group (i) formal education is complemented by planned practical experience and training provided, or sponsored, by the appropriate Ministry and following the acquisition of a degree at a university. Those in group (ii) are trained in one of two ways: the individual may complete a full-time degree course and receive subsequent training from his employer or he/she may undertake, or be sponsored by the employer as a 'sandwich' student on, a programme in which education and training are provided within a combined course. In addition to their specialist educational qualifications both these groups receive extensive training, usually of about two years' duration, from the employer. The nature of such training is governed by the requirements of the relevant professional associations and by ITB recommendations. Those taking education and training for professional and technological occupations are normally school-leavers, but there are no age barriers to admission and a small but increasing number of mature people undertake courses of higher education which may lead to employment at this level. The teaching profession in particular regards mature entries as a normal feature. A recent innovation of particular relevance to adults which is proving of special interest to women is that the Open University provides part-time courses leading to degrees on a predominantly home study basis by a combination of television, radio, correspondence, tutorials and short residential courses.

5. Technicians occupy a position between that of the qualified scientist, engineer or technologist and that of the skilled manual worker. The most common form of technician training is through traineeships for school-leavers. These normally involve training for three to four years. The first year of broad based training is provided off-the-job either in a training centre provided by the employer or the ITB or in a technical college. This is followed by planned on-the-job general training, which is applicable to all trainees, and objective training which is special to each trainee and related to his or her first job. Employers are required to release trainees for further education throughout the training scheme. There are also sandwich courses similar to those for technologists but of shorter duration. Initial technician training for adults is less common but still an accepted and significant feature of the training system. In practice, most adults who undertake technician training have previous engineering or scientific experience, often as craftsmen, and their training as technicians is normally more job specific than that for young entrants. The training provided by employers is normally on-the-job and for those with suitable background knowledge and experience, lasts between 10 and 18 months. It is part of the TSA's policy to encourage women to undertake training as technicians, where employment prospects are generally good. As indicated in paragraphs 5.20 to 5.30 of the draft report on Training Opportunities for Women the TSA intend to pursue this in relation both to girl school leavers and mature women intending to return to employment.

6. Craftsmen, or skilled manual workers, are employed in almost every industry. As with technician training, the most common form of initial craft training is through apprenticeships for school-leavers. Again, the structure of training provides one year's broad based training off-the-job followed by training on-the-job and planned experience in both general and specialist skills. Unlike technician training, initial craft training is not normally provided by employers for adults. This is an area in which the Training Opportunities Scheme makes a significant contribution, mainly through its own Skillcentres. TOPS provides craft training, primarily for adults, in over 60 trades in 55 training centres. Most courses last six months; a few are longer but none exceeds 12 months. The courses aim to provide basic skills for particular trades and continued training with an employer for specified periods is required for some trades. The TSA

attaches importance to enlarging the scope for craft training for girls in the longer term, but the difficulties are considerable: there is little evidence of interest among girls themselves and it happens that the engineering and construction industries, where craft employment is concentrated, are among the most resistant to the employment of women.

7. Other kinds of initial training, about which it is difficult to generalise because of the variation in standards and methods, include training for administrative occupations, requiring knowledge and skills of a commercial nature roughly equivalent to those of the industrial technician. The scope for establishing a more unified pattern of education and training is currently under consideration, as is the suitability of this field for increased employment of women.

8. There are two exceptions to the general structure of training which affect women in particular: for historical reasons, most secretarial training and much craft training in the catering industry is provided within the education system prior to employment

(b) refresher courses

9. The arrangements for refresher training are as diverse as the arrangements for initial training. There is no coherent pattern of provision and there is some evidence of demand for more refresher training than is currently provided. Most professional associations help their members to update their knowledge and skill, through publications and short courses. Formal refresher training is available within the public education, welfare and health services. Many employers provide refresher training on an informal individual basis and TOPS makes a substantial contribution to refresher training. Refresher training is particularly important for women because of the numbers who wish to return to employment after a spell of years during which they have been occupied in bringing up their families.

(c) conversion training

10. The initial training of craftsmen and technicians is designed for flexibility and thus provides a sound basis for subsequent conversion. Such training normally comprises broad basic training to which additional skills and knowledge are added in units (modules) as needed by the individual. Further modules of training can be added at any time during the working life: of particular interest to women is the application of this technique in the catering industry. Conversion training to upgrade craftsmen to technicians is also quite common: a substantial proportion of adult technician training is actually an upgrading process for craftsmen.

11. The primary function of TOPS is to enable individuals to acquire a new or better job. Much of the training provided under TOPS is by definition conversion training although the actual amount is unquantifiable. Present TSA and ITB moves to provide a broader basic training for a wider range of occupations will increase the scope for conversion training.

(d) Management and supervisory training (promotion)

12. The term "management" covers a multitude of highly individual jobs occupied by people with varying qualifications and experience. Training programmes are normally devised for the individual, based on job analysis and appraisal of the potential manager's abilities. ITB recommendations in this area usually cover four elements: an off-the-job course - in-company or external - to introduce the manager to management principles and practice, coaching, normally by a superior, in the day-to-day aspects of managerial work, planned experience and self-development. There is a variety of formal off-the-job training for managers ranging from higher degrees in general management or in specific areas of management to short courses and seminars on particular aspects.

13. Relatively few women are employed as managers and work needs to be done to establish why this is so and what can be done to increase their numbers. In the longer term the position is likely to be improved if more girls can be persuaded to undertake technician level and professional training and if a clearer recognition of the potential managerial talent that already exists can be achieved through fair and systematic systems of appraisal.

(e) training for return to labour market

14. In general, there is little to distinguish the training for those returning to employment from the normal provision of initial or refreshment training. Certain types of training provided by TOPS for those with employment difficulties are especially relevant to those who have interrupted their careers, in particular, TOPS provision of occupational selection and, for a minority, Wider Opportunities Courses, which are designed to aid self-assessment, to promote confidence and to encourage adaptability, can be of great help to returners.

15. There is some evidence that those returning to employment, particularly women, have special training needs arising out of their unfamiliarity with the context of employment and their maturity. The TSA is experimenting with various training techniques and courses to meet these needs. Current examples include the use of programmed learning in some TOPS courses; the arrangement of courses on a modular basis; the provision of self-presentation courses to promote the confidence and skills to cope with the recruitment process; the improvement of counselling arrangements for trainees. Part-time courses are available under TOPS, on an experimental basis, for those with domestic responsibilities who wish to return to employment. The TSA is also experimenting with a variety of other short courses to assist individuals to gain new employment appropriate to their skills, experience and expectations and to provide a sound basis for continued self-development and career progress: it is a specific TSA objective to ensure that such courses are relevant to the needs of women returning to employment.

1.B.3. How they function.

3.1 Conditions of access of women workers to vocational training

Training of all kinds, at all levels and within all sectors of the economy is in principle open on equal terms to men and women, but women do not in fact use anything like the full range of training opportunities. There may be a growth in the provision of special training for women when the legislation on sex discrimination becomes operative.

3.2 Present training facilities

1. There is no comprehensive information on the quantity of training facilities. The range available includes:

(a) TOPS

2. Most TOPS training for the individual takes place in the TSA's own Skillcentres or on a TOPS sponsored basis in Colleges of Further Education and employers' establishments. Training is available for semi-skilled occupations, craft, technician and equivalent commercial and clerical skills and for management and comparable levels. More than 45,000 people were trained under TOPS in 1974 and 60,000 will be trained in 1975. The target for 1976 is 82,000 and thereafter the aim is to train 100,000 each year as soon as possible. There are at present 55 Skillcentres offering a wide variety of mostly craft training. The courses most popular with women are, however, mostly found in Colleges of Further Education.

(b) ITBs

3. In 1973, there were about 2,000 ITB training advisers, providing both general and specialist expertise. About 10,000 full-time industrial training

officers and 20,000 instructors were employed in industries covered by ITBs.

(c) employers

4. Off-the-job training places, usually for operative, craft and technician training, are provided by employers, group training schemes and, on an employer sponsored basis, by colleges of further education. In 1973, it was estimated that there were 70,000 off-the-job training places available to industries covered by ITBs. It is estimated that the total training effort, mostly by employers, in industries covered by ITBs is about 2 million people at any one time.

(d) Colleges of Further Education

5. Over 700 Colleges of Further Education provide between them some form of further education for nearly 2 million people each year. Most also run courses for TOPS.

(e) professional and voluntary bodies

6. Many professional associations provide training for their members. Trade unions and employers' associations are also active here and a large number of private institutions provide full or part-time training to members of the public.

### 3.3 Numbers of trainees

1. Comprehensive statistics on an occupational basis are not available but Annex 111 contains a range of statistics as follows, which provide an indication of the scale of training:

- (i) employment with training entered by boy and girl school-leavers, 1962, 1972, 1974 (1973 was an unrepresentative year due to the raising of the school-leaving age)
- (ii) number of men/women employed in different occupational categories and (by implication) trained in 1961, 1971.
- (iii) women as a proportion of total trainees by occupational group based on a sample survey, 1974.
- (iv) total numbers of women trained under TOPS annually 1969-1974; numbers of men/women trained under TOPS by type of training, 1974.

2. The statistics show that women's training/employment are concentrated in a narrow range of occupations. Whilst there are a few women trainees for virtually every occupation, the majority receive training of short duration leading to work that involves relatively little skill. About a third of women currently in employment (and a third of those receiving training in employment) are in clerical occupations for which the training is usually of short duration and job specific. Despite the range of training available under TOPS - approximately 400 training courses - 80 per cent of the women trained under TOPS in the last two years have taken commercial and clerical courses. Women are also employed widely in other occupations which are associated with only short-term training. These include selling (retail), textile machining, repetitive assembly and other semi-skilled occupations in manufacturing industries.

3. There are some occupations for which long term training is provided in which substantial numbers of women are employed. In many of these occupations women tend to predominate: the most notable examples are: primary and secondary school teachers, welfare workers, nurses, librarians, secretaries. There is a further, rather limited, range of occupations requiring a high degree of skill and/or experience and associated with substantial training in which a reasonable

proportion (about 20 per cent) of trainees/employees are women. These include doctors, personnel officers and managers, retail and institutional managers, computer programmers, laboratory technicians, hairdressers. But comparatively few women participate in many long term training schemes or in training for responsible positions. The statistics on new entrants to employment for 1974 show that girls represented only 13 per cent of those entering apprenticeships or learnerships to craft or technician occupations. Women are also a small proportion - in training provided by employers any by TOPS - of management trainees and professional trainees in science, engineering and technology.

### 3.4 Procedures and machinery for adjustment of training resources to requirements

1. Among the more frequently used procedures are:

- (i) ITBs, and the TSA through ITBs and non-ITB organisations, influence employers to adjust their training resources by advice, by grants to offset the costs of undertaking particular kinds of training or establishing additional training places or facilities and by including specific quantitative or qualitative requirements in ITB levy exemption criteria.
- (ii) encouragement and financial assistance towards the establishment of additional group training schemes.
- (iii) The TSA and ITBs influence the availability of competent training staff by, for example, employing additional training advisers, supporting the development and running of courses for training officers and instructors and by providing grants to employers to train training staff.
- (iv) the establishment of training centres. The TSA and many ITBs have already created additional off-the-job training places to help industry to meet its training requirements and will continue to do so as necessary.
- (v) increase, or reduce, the central provision of direct training services.
- (vi) the nature and scale of TOPS can be adjusted. Existing resources within Skillcentres can be re-allocated to cater for changing demands or requirements. In the medium term, additional Skillcentres can be built to provide extra places. There is further scope for adjustment and in the use through TOPS of spare capacity in Colleges of Further Education and employers' establishments.
- (vii) training systems and methods can also be adjusted. For example, changes in the length of training immediately affects training capacity. Modular training permits flexibility in providing training to different levels of skill requirements. The provision of training by methods which do not involve the use of training facilities, such as programmed learning, is another procedure which can increase training capacity.

2. There is a variety of other possible measures, not outlined above, which can affect the availability of manpower resources per se. In addition, planned studies and ad hoc surveys are undertaken of training needs in particular areas, and means of adjusting resources to meet the needs, in response to problems identified by the manpower intelligence network and the regular strategic reviews described earlier. A recent study has been concerned with the training needs of women.

### 3.5 Results

1. In general training, as opposed to education, aims to improve employment opportunities and performance in employment. For the most part progress is not marked by the issue of certificates and diplomas.

2. The following information, based on a sample survey in 1974 of 1 per cent of the working population, provides an indication of the proportion of those unemployed in particular groups who were undergoing training at the time of the survey. An analysis as between males and females is not available.

#### Full-time employment. Trainees as % age of Emuloyees, 1974

<u>Occupation Group.</u>	<u>Trainees as % of full-time employees</u>
All occupations	7
All manual occupations	6
All non-manual occupations	8
Managerial	5
Professional & related - Management & admin	7
Professional & related - education, welfare & health	9
Professional & related - science, engineering & technology	9
Clerical & related	6
Selling	11
Catering, cleaning, hairdressing etc.	5
Farming, fishing & related	6
Making and repairing	10
Painting, repetitive assembling, packaging etc.	10
Construction, mining & related	5

### 3.6 Costs and Financing of Vocational Training

1. The greater part of vocational training is undertaken by employers for their own workers. Such training is almost entirely funded by employers and estimates of the cost are not available.

2. The TSA and the ITBs are the principal organisations concerned in the financing by public funds of vocational training in Great Britain. The TSA obtains its funds from the MSC. The ITBs are partially funded by the TSA (through payment of ITB operating costs and through grants for priority training), but they also derive income from a levy on employers in their industry. Most of this income is redistributed within the industry by means of grants to assist improvements in the quality and effectiveness of training. The levy income of ITBs for the financial year 1974-75 was approximately £155 million. The Agricultural Training Board (ATB), is an exception to the general arrangements for training finance. The Board is totally financed from public funds by the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food. Total expenditure of the ATB for 1974-75 was £2,293,000.

3. Most of the TSA's expenditure is concerned with

- (a) meeting the training needs of industry. Under this programme the TSA meets the operating costs of ITBs, makes grants to ITBs for approved

training activities, makes grants to non-ITB organisations and provides funds for research on broad industry-wide projects. The main items for expenditure in the financial year 1975-76 are:

	<u>£000s Sterling</u>	<u>£000s Sterling</u>
ITB Operating Expenses		22,506
including: training advisory services	13,089	
direct training	1,194	
research and development	1,030	
Grants to ITBs to encourage Key Training Activities		12,022
including: management training and development	499	
1st year off-the-job training	3,247	
craft training	1,983	
technician/technologist training	1,000	
operative training	616	
group training schemes	3,422	
Training in the Non-ITB Sector		1,179

(b) meeting the training needs of individuals. Under this programme the TSA provides direct training services through TOPS (mainly through its own Skillcentres or at Colleges of Further Education). Trainees are paid an allowance which is set at a level 75 per cent above the basic rate of unemployment benefit. The main expenditure items in 1974-5 were:

	<u>£000s Sterling</u>
Trainees' allowances and expenses	27,173
Skillcentre Operating Expenses	19,496
Fees for TOPS Training at other establishments	15,650

Total expenditure on this programme for 1975-6 is expected to be £76.4 million.

4. Other costs are incurred by the TSA in relation to two further programmes: improving training effectiveness and efficiency and managing the TSA. Total TSA expenditure for 1975/6 may be summarised:

	<u>£000s Sterling</u>
Meeting Training Needs of Industry	57,900
Meeting Training Needs of Individuals	76,400
Improving Training Effectiveness and Efficiency	300
Management of the TSA	800
	<hr/>
	135,400 (including 2,300 for agriculture).

5. To obtain an overall assessment other elements to be taken into consideration are the estimated levy income of ITBs (approximately £150M in 1976); and the expenditure by the further education service on training and the expenditure by public and private undertakings, for which estimates of cost are not available.

2. Analysis of obstacles, difficulties and problems.

2.1 Legal and institutional.

1. There are no significant legislative restrictions on the employment of women in the UK. The Sex Discrimination legislation, when enacted, will make discrimination in vocational guidance and training unlawful other than the special provision for training to encourage a more even distribution of employment



opportunities between men and women, which should work in favour of women on balance.

2. There are no institutional barriers to the vocational guidance and training of women. Many institutions are currently concerned to improve the provision for women.

## 2.2 Psychological and sociological

1. Attitudes and expectations about the role of women, not least on the part of women themselves, are probably the most significant factor inhibiting women from making fuller use of vocational guidance and training opportunities and from widening the range of jobs they undertake.

2. Vocational guidance is provided on equal terms for both sexes: there is no evidence that women encounter special difficulties or receive guidance of a different kind from men. However, the effectiveness of the guidance is conditioned by unconsciously biased views of those giving guidance as well as by the aspirations of the women themselves. There is evidence that many women and girls choose careers which are either below their capabilities or which they believe can be easily refreshed with the object of compatibility with present/future domestic responsibilities. However, the range of vocational training to which women can be guided is often limited by the fact that comparatively few girls acquire educational qualifications in scientific and technical subjects and comparatively few women have technical experience.

3. The domestic role of women and their own expectations affect the provision and uptake of women's training. There appears to be little demand amongst girls for many types of long term training: few apply for such training, particularly for skilled or technical occupations unless they are recognised as "womens" occupations - e.g. nursing. Generalisations about the pattern of women's working lives in terms of length of career span (often 15 years shorter than men's), labour turnover and absenteeism (both higher amongst women in general), influence employers' willingness to train women. Many women with domestic responsibilities seek employment in specific geographical locations and on a part-time basis: this restricts their opportunities for training and employment. Few women receive management training, partly because of a reluctance to accept high responsibility in employment.

4. On the other hand, there is evidence that employers have often ill-founded beliefs about the general suitability of women for many kinds of employment, and hence for training. A recent survey sponsored by the DE showed that many of the attributes required by employers in relation to different occupations were based on masculine criteria which men were more likely to satisfy, even though this might not be justified by the nature of the job.

## 2.3 Economic

Many of the occupations in which women predominate are in growth areas of the economy or are subject to persistent manpower shortages: the most notable examples are industries in the service sector and junior non-manual occupations. In these cases there is no incentive for women to branch out into a wider range of work. At the same time the changing structure of the economy is producing a gradual decline in skilled manual occupations, which are one of the main areas in which employers invest training resources. Annex III provides an indication of the extent to which women tend to be segregated within particular sections of the labour market. In areas where women are in greater competition with men, women in general are likely to be at a disadvantage in times of economic downturn. This is due to circumstance rather than prejudice: manpower reductions by employers are normally directed first towards those who work part-time (primarily women) and those who have the shortest service in employment (invariably women).

## 2.4 Practical

1. The greatest practical problems which inhibit women from entering employment, and hence training, within the full range of opportunities are in relation to child care facilities for both pre-school children and older children outside school hours and during holidays. A minority of employers provide child care facilities and permit flexible working hours but the combined arrangements of employers and public authorities are inadequate to meet demand.

2. Many of the long-term training opportunities offered by employers are restricted to young people. TOPS provides a variety of training for adults to similar levels of skill but the scale is more limited. This largely restricts training opportunities for those women, and men, who wish to embark on a new career during their working lives. Similarly, TOPS provides training on a part-time basis where there are opportunities for part-time employment. In addition, employers provide limited training for part-time employees. There is, however, evidence that few consider part-time employees eligible for promotion.

### 3. Solutions and Prospects

1. MSC is giving priority attention to improvements in training and employment opportunities for women and is currently considering a range of solutions. The following is an outline of the proposed programme of activities:

2. It is proposed that the TSA should take new initiatives, or increase existing activities in four main areas:

- (i) improvements in training for occupations and industries in which women at present predominate and an extension of career development;
- (ii) an expansion of women's opportunities to train for those occupations to which they lack at present significant access and which involve relatively high degrees of responsibility and/or skill;
- (iii) the provision of special training, particularly for women who have interrupted their employment, to enable them to compete for employment on equal terms with men;
- (iv) influencing and co-operating with bodies outside the training system.

3. Action on (i) might be:

- by increasing the amount, quality and breadth of training for many of the occupations in which women predominate and where training needs have been identified;
- by the provision of broad based vocational preparation to facilitate subsequent development;
- by promoting, with the help of sample development schemes, the design of training programmes which would assist able women to progress by stages throughout the organisational hierarchy;
- by encouraging managers to recognise and develop the abilities of women employees by making more use of systematic manpower analysis and appraisal.

4. As regards (ii), the factors limiting a more even distribution of training opportunities are concerned more with attitudes than with the training process. It is therefore proposed that activity in this area should concentrate primarily on guidance and advice to employers. Three studies are also proposed:

- investigation into training requirements of potential women managers in selected industries in which women are employed in significant numbers in low status occupations;
- the possibilities and problems in developing and providing professional and technician training for mature entrants;
- the extent to which craft and technician training in selected areas could be provided on an integrated home study/training centre basis for unemployed women prior to entry to employment.

5. As regards (iii) it is proposed to provide such special training as is necessary to enable women to compete on equal terms with men of similar ability including:

- the expansion and further development of assistance for women returning to employment in gaining both the confidence and the skills necessary to make a successful comeback;
- assessment of the needs and provision of refresher training;
- the development of schemes (some already exist) to enable women to maintain contact with former careers whilst out of employment;
- the development of short, possible weekend residential courses, for women in employment to promote self-assessment and development.

6. As regards (iv), it will be a continuing concern of the TSA to encourage other bodies operating within the training system to expand and improve training opportunities for women.

Training Services Agency  
162 Regent Street, London, W1R 6DE  
September 1975

EUROPEAN SEMINAR ON VOCATION GUIDANCE AND TRAINING FOR WOMEN  
WORKERS

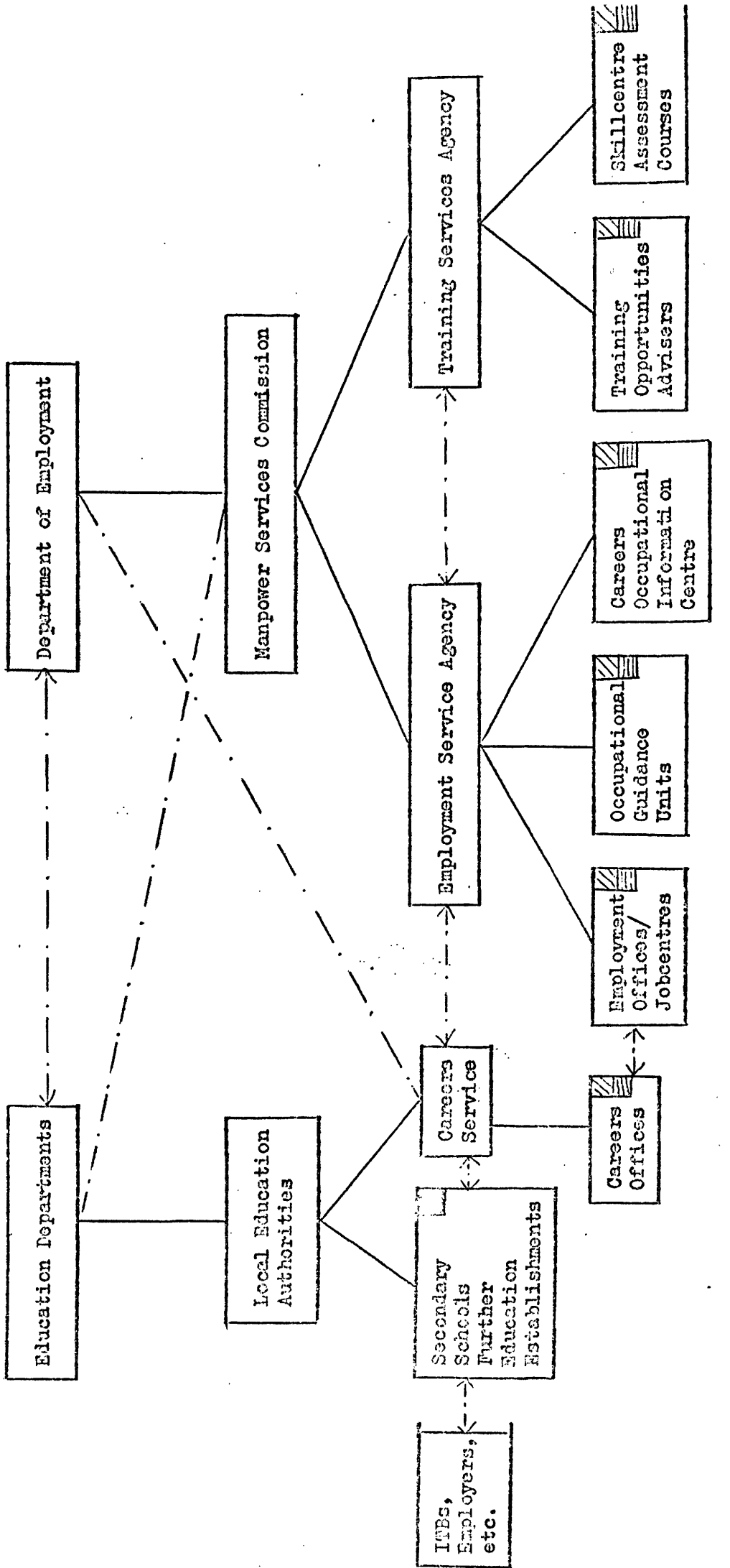
Phase A - Situation, Achievements and Problems in vocational  
guidance and training for women workers in the  
United Kingdom

Rapporteur - Mr F C HAYES

SELECTION OF ANNEXES

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND TRAINING FOR WOMEN WORKERS

The Structure of Vocational Guidance (Great Britain)



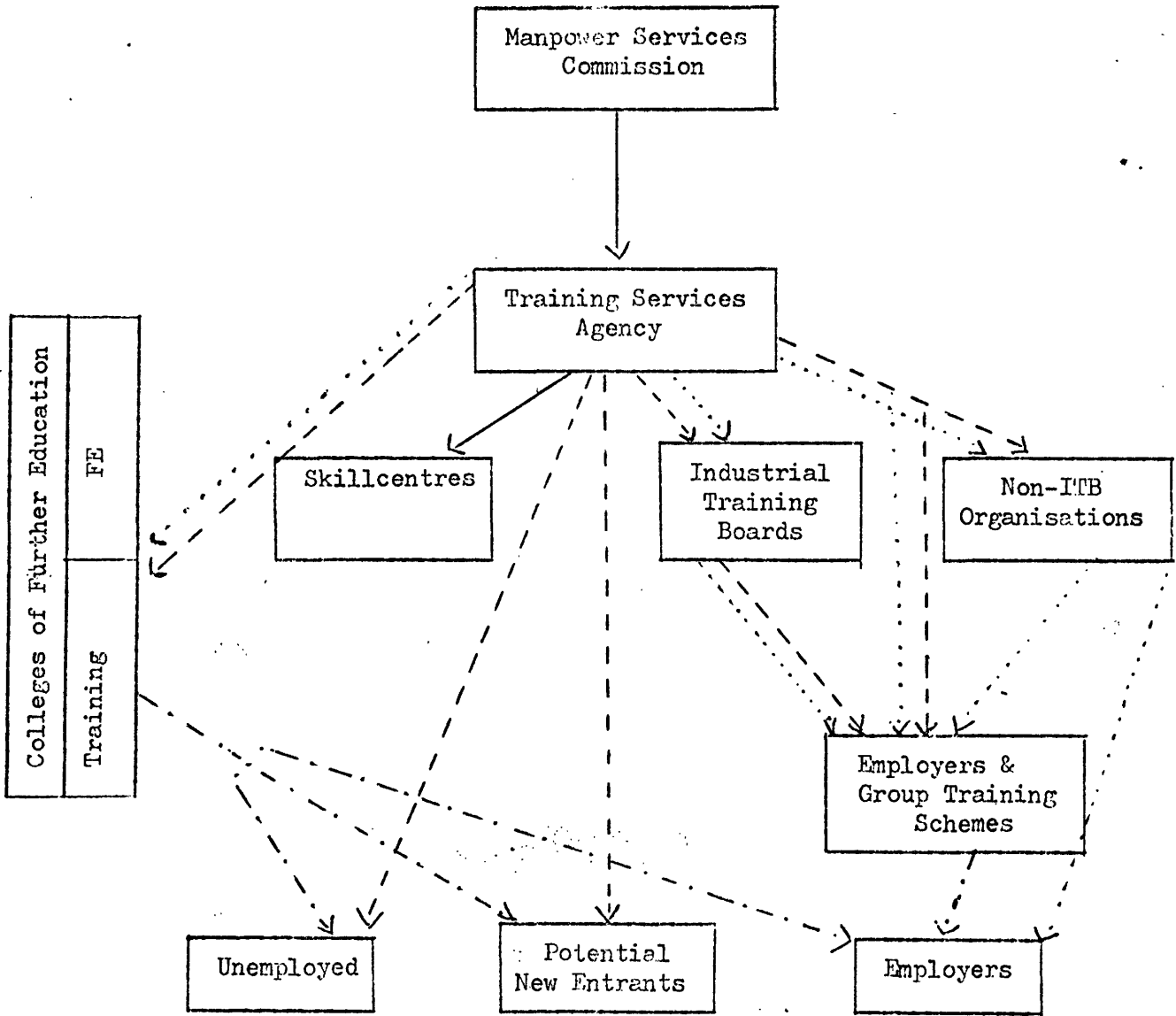
responsibility  
liaison

Vocational Guidance provided to:

school pupils/students  
school-leavers  
adults

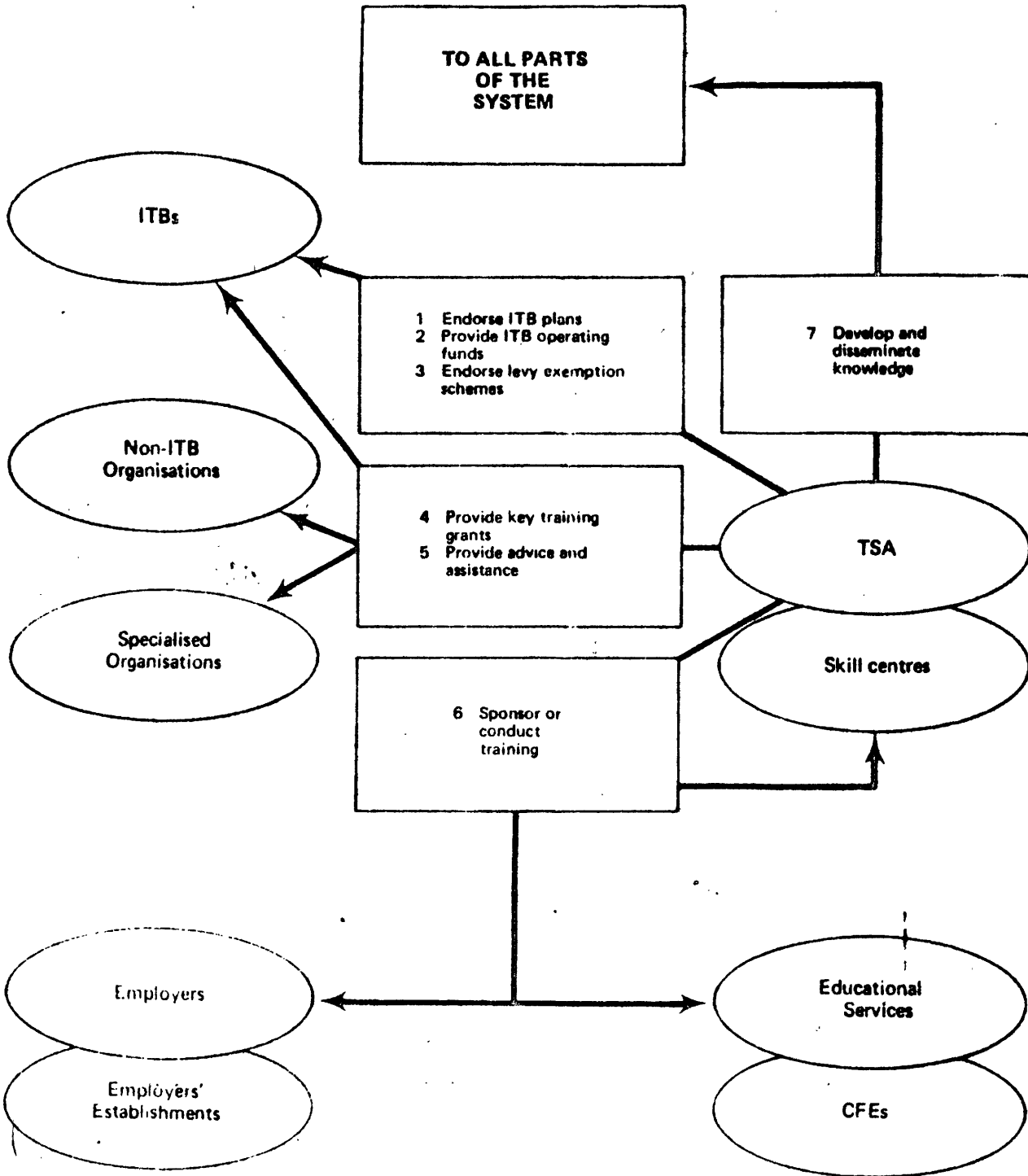
Vocational Guidance and Training for Women Workers

**11a** The Structure of Vocational Training.



- \_\_\_\_\_ responsibility
- - - - - funds
- ... training
- ..... advice

118 The Main Functions of the TSA



## Vocational Guidance and Training for Women Workers.

## A Class of Employment entered by Secondary School Leavers, Great Britain, 1962, 1972, 1974.

.Thousands

Class of Employment Entered	1962		1972		1974	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
	Apprenticeship or learnership to skilled occupation	121.5	21.3	100.2	18.0	118.2
Employment leading to recognised professional qualifications	4.3	3.5	3.4	3.9	3.5	4.2
Clerical employment	30.2	113.5	18.4	78.3	19.2	96.3
Other employment with planned training lasting more than 8 weeks	44.5	32.0	42.6	40.5	47.0	41.0
Other employment with training lasting less than 8 weeks	135.5	151.0	94.3	87.5	86.9	80.9
TOTAL	336.0	321.3	258.9	228.2	274.8	237.9



## Vocational Guidance and Training for Women Workers

## C. Socioeconomic Distribution of Employment Great Britain, 1961, 1966, 1971.

Socio-economic Group	Numbers 1961 (000)		Numbers 1966 (000)		Numbers 1971 (000)		1971 as% 1961	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Employers and Managers	1661.3	314.5	1680.4	353.8	1918.7	417.1	115.5	132.6
Professional Workers	595.0	61.7	712.6	88.8	782.7	83.9	131.6	136.0
Intermediate Non-manual Workers	616.2	708.2	702.8	826.4	866.8	976.6	140.7	137.9
Junior Non-manual workers	1991.0	2823.7	1977.1	3244.5	1842.5	3367.5	92.5	119.3
Personal Service Workers	139.0	891.7	154.3	1159.9	146.1	1114.7	105.1	125.0
Foremen & Supervisors - Manual	525.9	40.0	563.7	48.3	545.2	50.6	103.7	126.5
Skilled Manual Workers	5065.0	645.5	4949.2	625.1	4561.1	528.4	90.0	81.9
Semi-skilled Manual Workers	2293.8	1210.9	2305.0	1273.1	1950.7	1099.8	85.0	90.8
Unskilled Manual Workers	1270.4	527.2	1243.6	653.4	1060.9	692.0	83.5	131.3
Civil Account Workers	670.6	196.8	679.4	230.2	774.9	188.1	115.6	95.6
Agricultural Workers	388.7	55.3	322.7	66.4	240.2	62.3	61.8	112.7
Armed Forces	317.5	12.4	238.8	12.2	236.4	10.8	74.5	87.1
Others (inadequately described)	189.1	98.3	44.8	32.5	72.4	113.4	-	-
Total	15723.3	7586.1	15574.2	8594.6	14998.6	8705.2	95.4	114.8

Vocational Guidance and Training for Women Workers

B Industrial Analysis of Employment entered by School Leavers, Great Britain 1974

Industry Group	Category 1				Category 2			
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Agriculture, forestry & fishing	2,222	19	124	8	29	-	4	-
Mining and quarrying	2,207	58	7	3	24	1	1	-
Food, drink and tobacco	1,024	13	89	1	35	-	29	-
Chemicals & allied industries	1,007	35	79	2	83	3	44	1
Metal manufacture	3,673	54	41	2	92	1	8	-
Engineering: mechanical, instrument & electrical	16,939	63	158	1	158	1	30	-
Shipbuilding & marine engineering	3,525	89	28	11	9	-	-	-
Vehicles	4,594	74	37	3	41	1	6	-
Textiles	932	17	64	1	33	1	21	-
Leather, leather goods & fur	106	13	10	1	2	-	2	-
Clothing & footwear	436	13	132	1	16	-	16	-
Timber, furniture etc.	2,724	37	34	3	20	-	3	-
Paper, printing & publishing	3,636	45	204	3	47	1	26	-
Other manufacturing	7,786	38	120	1	118	1	14	-
Construction	28,854	69	73	2	223	-	21	1
Gas, electricity & water	2,140	73	17	1	37	1	8	-
Transport & communication	4,644	41	69	1	151	1	16	-
Distributive trades	5,662	14	812	1	171	-	105	-
Insurance, banking, finance & business services	1,665	6	87	-	307	4	162	1
Professional & scientific services	1,127	27	1,217	6	735	14	3,164	16
Miscellaneous services	16,270	55	11,596	41	202	1	169	1
*Catering, hotels	1,977	33	364	4	71	1	22	-
*Motor repairs etc	12,241	71	77	3	47	-	14	1
*Hairdressing	809	86	10,638	92	4	-	58	-
Public administrative & defence	7,912	40	455	4	944	5	742	3
TOTAL	118,185	43	15,483	7	3,543	1	4,191	2

\*included in Miscellaneous Services

Categories

1. Apprenticeship or learnership to skilled occupation.

2. Employment leading to recognized professional qualification.

Category 3				Category 4				Category 5				TOTAL			
Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
46	-	221	14	1,704	15	240	15	7,709	66	1,022	63	11,710	100	1,611	100
124	3	183	86	1,128	30	13	6	307	8	7	3	3,790	100	211	100
318	4	1,990	26	839	10	701	9	5,827	72	4,706	63	8,043	100	7,515	100
199	7	1,986	41	603	21	608	12	971	34	2,124	44	2,863	100	4,841	100
414	6	1,336	78	1,286	19	77	5	1,398	20	246	14	6,863	100	1,708	100
883	3	6,060	45	4,506	17	1,941	15	4,339	16	5,240	39	26,825	100	13,429	100
47	1	213	80	136	3	10	4	224	6	15	6	3,941	100	266	100
168	3	1,001	72	678	11	98	7	750	12	244	18	6,231	100	1,366	100
199	4	1,419	16	1,703	31	4,568	51	2,632	48	2,742	31	5,499	100	8,814	100
16	2	117	16	238	28	317	41	470	56	307	41	832	100	753	100
115	4	1,082	6	1,345	41	11,047	65	1,321	41	4,763	28	3,233	100	17,040	100
163	2	725	53	1,572	21	164	12	2,926	40	433	32	7,405	100	1,359	100
484	6	2,455	36	1,617	20	1,375	20	2,221	28	2,782	41	8,015	100	6,842	100
666	3	4,135	42	4,378	22	1,447	15	7,403	36	4,224	42	20,351	100	9,940	100
647	2	3,069	90	3,584	8	111	3	8,335	20	140	4	41,709	100	3,414	100
452	15	1,611	88	216	7	120	7	103	3	66	4	2,948	100	1,822	100
1,047	18	5,230	70	2,056	18	1,644	22	2,538	22	488	7	11,436	100	7,451	100
1,549	4	12,863	21	8,407	21	8,241	13	25,210	61	39,390	64	40,999	100	61,411	100
1,443	75	26,787	95	535	7	646	2	476	7	475	2	7,226	100	28,157	100
1,120	21	9,320	47	1,157	21	3,881	19	791	15	2,020	10	5,210	100	19,632	100
1,690	2	5,220	18	4,662	16	2,570	9	7,930	27	8,831	31	29,754	100	28,386	100
58	1	908	13	1,412	23	1,023	14	2,413	41	4,829	68	5,913	100	7,036	100
1,273	2	2,028	78	2,143	12	96	4	2,550	15	375	14	17,254	100	2,590	100
10	1	150	1	57	6	425	4	60	6	253	2	940	100	11,744	100
1,225	17	9,250	78	4,429	22	1,203	10	3,037	15	604	5	19,918	100	11,859	100
1,126	7	36,273	40	46,959	17	41,031	13	86,913	32	80,869	34	274,801	100	237,847	100

3. Clerical employment.

4. Other employment with planned training lasting most than 8 weeks.

5. Other employment with training lasting less than 8 weeks.

Vocational Guidance and Training for Women Workers.

**D** Women as Proportion of Trainees/Distribution of Women Trainees. Great Britain 1974  
 (Full-time Employees only)

Occupation Group	Women as % All Trainees	Women Trainees in Group as% of All Women Trainees.
Managerial	14	2
Professional & related - Management and administration	14	2
Professional & related - Education, welfare and health	84	21
Professional & related - science, engineering & technology.	9	2
Clerical & related	62	33
Selling	57	15
Catering, cleaning, hairdressing & other personal service	63	8
Farming, fishing & related	7	-
Materials processing (exc. metals)	19	2
Making & repairing (exc. metal & electrical)	24	7
Processing, making & repairing (metal & electrical)	2	1
Painting, repetitive assembling, (product inspecting, packaging)	38	5
Construction, mining & related	-	-
Others	5	2
All manual Occupations	14	25
All non-manual occupations	48	75
All occupations	30	100

Vocational Guidance and Training for Women Workers

E Numbers completing courses under the Training Opportunities Scheme, 1974

Training Course/Type of Establishment	Men	Women	Women as % Total Training.
<b>SKILLCENTRES</b>			
Construction	5,493	2	-
Engineering Production	4,184	10	0.2
Engineering Servicing	898	-	-
Electrical Electronics	1,936	2	0.1
Plant and Automotive Trades	3,690	6	0.2
General Servicing	233	1	0.4
Miscellaneous Trades	345	62	15.2
Limited Skills	251	4	1.6
<b>TOTAL SKILLCENTRES</b>	<b>17,030</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>0.5</b>
<b>COLLEGES OF FURTHER EDUCATION</b>			
Clerical and Commercial	298	1,439	82.8
Shorthand Typing	69	6,415	98.9
Clerical Bookkeeping	224	136	37.8
General Office Practice	142	402	73.9
Computer Studies	215	97	31.1
Management Studies	449	25	5.3
Food Preparation, Catering and Cooking	154	202	56.7
Miscellaneous Skills	864	1,219	58.5
Other Courses at CFEs	2,816	2,080	42.5
Copy and Audio Typing	4	4,442	99.9
<b>TOTAL COLLEGES OF FURTHER EDUCATION</b>	<b>5,235</b>	<b>16,457</b>	<b>75.9</b>
<b>TOTAL EMPLOYERS' ESTABLISHMENTS</b>	<b>5,449</b>	<b>360</b>	<b>6.2</b>
<b>TOTAL OTHER ESTABLISHMENTS</b>	<b>638</b>	<b>160</b>	<b>20.1</b>
<b>GRAND TOTAL</b>	<b>28,352</b>	<b>17,064</b>	<b>37.6</b>

4b Numbers completing courses under TOPS 1962, 1969-1975.

Year	Men	Women	Women as % Total Training.
1962	Total 4,149 : no breakdown available		
1969	13,826	502	3.5
1970	13,782	620	4.3
1971	14,277	1,189	7.7
1972	24,316	4,703	16.2
1973	28,860	11,070	27.7
1974	28,352	17,064	37.6
Jan - July 1975	16,201*	12,519*	43.6

\* $\frac{1}{2}$  year only

European Seminar  
on  
Vocational Guidance and Training for Women Workers

Phase A - Situation, achievements and problems  
in vocational Guidance and Training for  
women workers in  
IRELAND

Rapporteur: M/s J. Rudd

Seminar on Vocational Guidance  
and Training for Women Workers

National Report of Ireland (Phase A)

	<u>Pages</u>
National Report	1 - 14
Guidance	1 - 7
Training	7 - 14
1.	7-11
2.	11-13
3.	13-14

Annexes:

1. Occupational Tables showing female participation in labour force.
2. Educational systems, vocational guidance and training in the educational systems.
3. Vocational training organisations other than those in the educational systems.

FOR WOMEN WORKERS

National Report of Ireland (Phase A)

1.A5

Vocational Guidance for Women Workers (General)

Formal vocational guidance in Ireland is in its early stages. In 1960 the City of Dublin Vocational Education Committee appointed an Educational Psychologist with particular responsibility for the development of guidance in the Committee's schools. In 1967 the Department of Psychology, University College, Dublin established a one year postgraduate course leading to a Diploma in Career Guidance. The Department (Ministry) of Education established an advisory committee on the training of guidance teachers which reported in 1971. As a result of its recommendations there has been a rapid expansion in guidance services available in second level schools. In 1972 a further one year training course was established at the Mater Dei Institute in Dublin. There are at present guidance teachers in 333 second level schools covering about 50% of all pupils in second level education.

The Department (Ministry) of Labour has established a guidance service to work in conjunction with its manpower placement service. Three officers of the Department completed a course at the Mater Dei Institute this summer; and three more trained officers are being appointed to form the nucleus of the proposed service.

Most career and job guidance has been and still is informal and relies heavily on advice from families and friends, with some help from teachers, placement or recruitment officers. Informal career guidance usually re-inforces traditional occupational routes and structures and it is too early yet to know what impact the introduction of formalised guidance services will have.

The persisting pattern of the movement of young girls from rural and country to metropolitan areas, both inside and outside the country, suggests that much informal career guidance for girls orients them towards migration or emigration.

Job and career choice is restricted in many areas by lack of job opportunities and in such circumstances career information has limited application for persons interested in employment in their own localities.

f.A.1

Laws and Regulations

There are no laws or regulations which discriminate between males and females in the matter of vocational guidance. Male and female guidance teachers and officers have been trained and appointed in equal numbers and approximately the same number of girls as of boys receive their services.

1.A.2.1

Observation and analysis of labour market

The following table shows the main areas of women's occupations and the percentage of women gainfully employed who were in each occupational group in 1971.



<u>Educational Standard of recruits</u>	<u>Gainfully Employed % of Women</u> %
<b>Mainly professional:</b>	
Religious Orders	5
Teaching/Nursing/ medical work	12
<b>Leaving Certificate:</b>	
Office Work	
Administration in public and semi-State bodies, banks, insurance some secretarial.	24
<b>Intermediate/Group Certificate+ Secretarial/ Commercial</b>	Routine clerical, typing, secretarial, telephonist
<b>Intermediate/ Group Certificate/ no formal qualification</b>	Retail distribution
<b>No formal qualifications</b>	Industrial occupations, mainly routine and semi-skilled factory work in textiles and food
<b>No formal qualifications</b>	Maids
<b>No formal qualifications</b>	Farmers
	Other Occupations

### Married Women in the Labour Force

Girls are normally expected to take a job or a training course on leaving school. After marriage they generally return to the labour market only if they are widowed or because of economic necessity.

Home-making and child-rearing are considered to be full-time occupations and all post-primary schools which take girls have, by Departmental Regulation, to provide for the teaching of Home Economics. Because of the high fertility rate of married women "home duties" extend through most of a married woman's working life.

Married women who wish to rejoin the labour force, frequently experience a lack of provision, public or private, for child-care, housework and catering services. Public transport services are often inconvenient or unavailable in relation to a woman's place of residence.

The compulsory school ages are 6 to 15 but almost all five year-olds and 68% of four year-olds are in the infants' sections of primary schools. However, the infants' sections operate a short day and even in the senior sections, school hours are generally shorter than and do not correspond conveniently to normal working hours. A few industries which wish to employ married women, recognise this, and operate a late afternoon/evening shift to accommodate them.

In 1971 6% of the married women (excluding widows) between the ages of 14 and 64 were in full-time occupations. A survey carried out by the E.S.R.I. in 1971 found that a further 10% were in part-time occupations. *Annex 1.*

As up to a quarter of the women in any age group (though this proportion is decreasing) never marry, and of those who do, many can expect to spend a considerable time in employment before marriage, vocational guidance and training of girls has to be considered in this context.

### Women's Occupations

#### Religious Orders (Nuns and Sisters)

The female religious orders manage and teach in primary and secondary academic schools, manage and nurse in voluntary hospitals, run old peoples' homes, orphanages and a variety of other caring institutions. The Orders finance professional and other training for their own recruits and provide the main routes to top level jobs for females in education, nursing and to some extent, the social services. Latterly religious vocations have fallen and educational and social services have been expanding, so top level jobs in these spheres are opening up to lay women.

#### Teaching/Nursing/Medical Work

Traditionally nursing and teaching, latterly para-medical and social work, have been regarded as suitable professions for women. Teacher Training Colleges are maintained by the Department (Ministry) of Education, but managed by religious orders (with the exception of the Church of Ireland college). Trainees receive a repayable loan from the Department of Education.

General nursing training schools usually charge a fee varying from £50 to £300 but with the exception of the first three months training in voluntary hospitals - trainee nurses are paid a salary during training.

The demand for both these types of training from qualified applicants is always far in excess of the places available. Between 400 and 500 girls emigrate annually to train in nursing schools in England.

The main routes to second level teaching and to other professional occupations are through the universities. Girls are admitted to all faculties, but their previous educational experience as well as the existing occupational structure, orients them towards the Arts, Social Science and Commerce faculties.

Other specialist teachers are provided for in maintained colleges for teacher training. Girls are eligible for courses at colleges of technology and regional technical colleges, but apply mainly for general and commercial courses.

### Office Work

An alternative to professional training is entry on leaving school to the executive or higher clerical grades in the public service or semi-state bodies in competition with boys. The pay, permanence and marriage gratuity or pension rights in such jobs are attractive to school-leavers. However, as such jobs are normally situated in Dublin, recruits from country areas have to migrate to them. Until 1973 girls in such jobs had to resign on marriage and for girls who did not marry, promotion to higher executive and administrative grades was rare. Latterly the promotion prospects for women have been improved, but the results of such a policy have not yet had time to work their way through the systems.

Clerkships in banks and insurance companies are filled from the same labour market i.e. school leavers at Leaving Certificate level. Girls, however, can offer typing as an alternative to Leaving Certificate pass. Until recently women in these occupations had also to resign on marriage and their career routes within the organisation were separated from those of men and did not lead to administrative jobs. There is now only one career structure and internal job and training opportunities are the same for women as for men.

Other female jobs in office work are traditionally routine clerical, typing and telephone operating. They are filled mainly by girls who have completed a junior secondary school (Intermediate/Group Certificate) course and have subsequently spent a year full-time doing a secretarial/commercial course. These courses are widely available in girls' and co-educational vocational schools; but about a third of the girls taking these courses do so at private and commercial colleges as these are expected to lead to jobs in higher status organisations. Some senior girls' secondary academic schools offer a commercial/secretarial course as an alternative to the Leaving Certificate course, but whereas the latter is recognised by the Department of Education and subsidised, the former is not.

Office jobs for girls are generally regarded as interim occupations suitable for the period between leaving school and marriage. There is always a demand for office workers and the high probability of finding employment makes this type of training particularly attractive to girls who do not expect to spend their whole working life on the open labour market. However, promotion prospects are very limited and in many cases, non-existent.

### Retail, Service and Industrial Occupations

Virtually no girls are recruited to apprenticeships in "designated" trades (mainly skilled crafts in industry and manufacture). However about 2,000 girls are recruited annually as apprentices/learners in retail distribution and service industries (mainly textiles and food). Besides these apprentices/learners, many of the casual, unskilled

and semi-skilled workers in these areas are women.

Routine factory work has largely displaced private domestic service as the lowest prestige work for girls. Young girls are recruited to do routine and repetitive work in factories - particularly in the textile and food industries.

Few girls who have attended a secondary academic school aspire to factory work and most such schools discourage girls from taking it up. Most girls who work in factories will have attended vocational second level schools or left the education system from primary school.

Few young girls now aspire to be maids, particularly in private service, and domestic service is a declining occupation.

### Farmers

The median age of female farmers is 63.6 years - many of them are widows. There was a decline of 23.5% of women working in agriculture between 1966 and 1971. Farmers' wives are not included here as their main census occupation would have been classified as "housewife".

### Census of Population of Ireland, Socio-Economic Classification

Because of the classification used, few females are shown as being in "unskilled" occupations. Domestic, cleaning or factory work is classified as "semi-skilled". Street vendors, hawkers and newspaper sellers, maids and orderlies, are classified as "Other non-manual workers".

### Informal Career Guidance

Informal career guidance for girls and women is likely to work within this framework of "women's occupations". Choice of a particular occupational area will be dictated by choice of second level school, educational attainment, economic and social factors (but not necessarily geographical factors which are mitigated by boarding education, school transport and female mobility) and by school curriculum offerings. Most girls attend all female schools, or female sections of co-institutional schools, at both primary and secondary level, though latterly a number of co-educational schools have been opened and amalgamation of small schools frequently results in a co-educational school. Schools in Ireland are provided by many different agencies and policies and problems in respect of co-education differ.

The existing situation is that the role models to which girls will have been exposed in their schools are largely female and the experience of the adults on which they are likely to draw will have been in "women's work".

### 1.A.2.2. Information and Documentation

Since its inception in 1967 there has been a careers' section of the Manpower Service of the Department (Ministry) of Labour. To date it has published 244 leaflets covering 300 occupations. These leaflets are constantly being updated and each edition is distributed to every primary and secondary school in the country, to libraries, youth clubs, manpower offices. They are available free to individuals on request. Approximately 3 million leaflets are distributed annually.

Prior to 1973 the careers' leaflets distinguished between male and female occupations, but the latest editions do not.

Literature on specific careers is made available by large employing organisations. The 1975 leaflets published by the Civil Service Commission about careers in the public service, specify male or female occupations or occupations open to both. The latest leaflets issued by the Training Authority (AnCO) state that apprenticeships are open to boys and girls.

Careers' exhibitions are organised by schools, voluntary and commercial organisations and by Local Development Associations. The Department of Labour's career section is usually represented at such exhibitions.

The careers' section has produced a film "Choosing a Career" and is producing one on "Employment Opportunities for Women".

The careers' section is aware of the necessity of reaching the public at large, not just school leavers, if any appreciable alteration is to be made in attitudes towards male/female occupations. It is also aware that there exists a lack of information on careers in the country as a whole.

### 1.A.3

#### Functioning of Guidance Services

A serving teacher may apply to be seconded for a year to a Guidance Training course. If accepted on the course and released by the school, he/she remains employed on full salary and on completion of the course returns to his/her school as an ex-quota guidance teacher.

Guidance teachers must spend at least 3 hours a week in ordinary teaching. Counselling, individual and group, is carried on throughout the students' school career and includes, in his/her leaving year, vocational guidance. Guidance teachers maintain liaison with local manpower placement officers, but do not direct placement themselves.

The City of Dublin's Vocational Committee's school psychological service, besides supervising guidance teachers in its vocational schools, provides a guidance service to vocational school pupils and vocational college students who do not have access to such a teacher at school, and to former vocational school/college students.

The National Manpower Service is establishing a Guidance Service which will be operated from local manpower offices. The Irish Management Institute has a service restricted to its members and which it is expanding to cover members' families. The Department (Ministry) of Agriculture and Fisheries provides career guidance for farm families. The National Rehabilitation Board provides some guidance and assessment for the handicapped.

There are no commercial services other than any which may be offered by guidance teachers in their spare time.

### 3.3.4

#### Costs and financing of vocational guidance

The school guidance services are financed out of the educational budget and are not costed separately from the psychological services as a whole. The fact that guidance teachers are involved in counselling, ordinary teaching and other school activities and that they are paid on the appropriate salary scale for teachers makes guidance difficult to cost separately.

The Mater Dei Institution is financed and run by the Catholic Diocese of Dublin. It receives a direct grant from the Department (Ministry) of Education towards the cost of its course in counselling and guidance and the fees and remuneration in respect of those attending the course are usually paid by their employers - in most cases these costs are paid by the Department of Education. Although run and financed in part by the Catholic Diocese, the Department of Guidance and Counselling is not confined to Catholics.

The University College, Dublin, course is run by the Department of Psychology of U.C.D. The running cost of the college as a whole is subvented to the extent of 70% - 80% by the Department (Ministry) of Education. It also pays the salaries and fees of teachers attending the course.

#### Vocational training for Women Workers

##### 1.B.1

There are at present no laws which discriminate between males and females in the matter of vocational training.

There are laws which restrict the employment of women in certain areas of work i.e. night working in industrial employment, working underground in mining and quarrying, work involving the cleaning of moving machinery and work which would expose them to lead or ionising materials or the moving of heavy loads. Women could not avail of any training courses leading to areas of employment from which they are legally excluded.

There are no written regulations or agreements debarring females from certain types of training.

##### 1.B.2

#### Vocational Training Structures

These are dealt with here under four headings:

1. Apprenticeship training
2. Institutional training (before-employment)
3. Institutional training (in-employment)
4. Training/retraining for unemployed adults or adults who wish to change their employment.

##### 1. Apprenticeship training

The only route to skilled trades is through apprenticeships begun at the age of 15/16. These are structured in "designated" trades (mainly in manufacturing, production and industry) and non-designated trades (mainly in distribution and service industries).

Until 1974 only boys were recruited to apprenticeships in designated trades. Although for the last year all such apprenticeships are open to girls, neither employers nor social attitudes have yet adapted to this change and, as the only girls (other than in upholstery where there has been a special short apprenticeship available to girls for some

time) recruited have been to AnCO's off-job apprentice training scheme, it is not possible to say at this stage whether these girls will be absorbed readily in the workforce.

The young person seeking an apprenticeship in a "designated" trade is expected to have a pass in specific subjects either in a Group Certificate (two year second level school course) or an Intermediate Certificate (three year second level school course) or to be given exemptions. Girls would not usually qualify under the Group Certificate requirements at present as no girls take woodwork or metalwork in this examination and only in co-educational schools would they have the practical possibility of doing so. Girls would be more likely to qualify on the Intermediate Certificate as a grade in science is acceptable instead of woodwork or metalwork, but the number of girls taking the required science subjects in this examination is less than half the number of boys and there are likely to be fewer facilities for the study of science in girls' than in boys' schools.

A qualified boy or girl must seek an employer who will take him/her on as an apprentice and this is a highly competitive labour market. The employer registers the apprentice with AnCO and releases him/her to attend block release courses run by the VECs. He/she may take the Department of Education Junior and Senior Trade examinations, but there are no final tests or examinations.

AnCO favours off-the-job training for 1st year apprentices and a reduction of the five year apprenticeship period and the whole system is at present under review. Currently it "takes on" about one sixth of the total intake of apprentices in "designated" trades and gives them off-the-job training in their first year. However, these apprentices have to be placed with employers in their second year, and this may prove to be difficult in the case of girls.

CERT Ltd. co-ordinates and supervises the training of employees, including craft level apprentices, in the hotel and catering trade. About two thirds of the apprentices recruited in this area are girls.

The Department of Agriculture and Fisheries operates a farm apprenticeship scheme and takes on 40-60 apprentice farmers annually for a 3 or 4 year course. One girl has qualified this year for the award of the First Certificate in Farm Management and there is one girl apprentice.

These three organisations maintain and pay apprentices while in training and are themselves maintained out of public funds.

Service and distribution trades (hairdressing, tailoring, butchery, retail trades) account for about half the apprentice recruitment. 85% of the apprentices/learners in these trades are girls. The individual trades themselves supervise the training and regulate the standards.

#### Professional Apprenticeships

A number of professions, such as accountancy and law, operate apprentice schemes whereby the trainee, usually for

a fee, is articulated to a practitioner. The apprenticeships are open to boys and girls, but are mainly in "men's" professions.

1500-2000 trainee nurses are recruited annually to Irish hospitals. These are mainly girls of Leaving Certificate (completed secondary school) level, but 100-200 male trainee nurses are recruited mainly by psychiatric hospitals. Most general hospital training schools charge a fee, psychiatric hospitals do not.

2. Institutional vocational training (before employment)

This is the type of vocational training which prepares trainees for occupations in a certain sphere, but it is incumbent on the graduate trainee to find his/her own employment in the desired sphere - or any other sphere if he/she so wishes.

Almost all initial secretarial/commercial training is of this type. 70% of the girl school leavers who take this type of training do so in the maintained vocational schools and regional technical colleges. The remainder do so in private schools/colleges. 98% of those attending these secretarial/commercial courses are girls.

The Department of Agriculture and Fisheries maintain 4 residential colleges for boys and one which admits girls and a college of dairying for girls. It also aids six private colleges of agriculture for boys and runs a non-residential course of amenity horticulture which is open to both boys and girls. Scholarships awarded by County Committees of Agriculture and the Department are available to both men and women.

The fisheries section runs a residential (one year) course for boys wishing to be fishermen and some courses for skippers. The Department of Education maintains male, female and co-educational teacher training colleges as well as co-educational colleges of art, physical education and a National Institute of Higher Education.

Vocational Committees maintain eight regional technical colleges and 2 colleges of technology. All the courses in these colleges are open to girls, but girls generally take only commercial and arts courses.

In no case in these maintained or aided institutions is a graduate constrained to take up employment in the sphere for which he/she has been trained. There are also some non-aided private colleges which provide vocational training in specific spheres on a commercial basis.

Number of trainees broken down by sex, is given in Annex 2.



### 3. Institutional training

Training patterns in most organisations parallel employment patterns. The shorter courses and courses at lower levels are attended by women, but the courses at middle management, higher management, skilled or supervisory levels are attended mainly by men.

AnCO assists and advises firms in setting up in-training courses and runs itself courses for training officers and instructors. The Irish Management Institute provides a variety of courses at management/supervisory levels mainly for private firms. All the IMI courses are open to women but in the first six months of this year 95% of those who attended such courses were men. The Institute of Public Administration provides training courses for employees of public services and semi-State bodies.

The Departments (Ministries) of Defence and Justice run training colleges/centres which are, with the exception of a small number of female police, exclusively for male members of the police and defence forces.

In all these cases, the employer, not the employee, pays for and designates the area of training and employees are released to attend and are paid while on the training courses.

### 4. Training/re-training of adult workers

These are training courses for unemployed adults and adults who wish to change their jobs. The main training organisation for this is AnCO which has a range of 54 courses in operation in 12 industrial training centres in different parts of the country. Women are eligible to apply for places on all the courses, but only those courses which are geared to "women's occupations" attract significant numbers. In the nine month period April/December, 1974 2,580 adults received training at the centres together with 670 adults sponsored by companies. However, there were nearly 8,000 applications for places on courses, about 6% of whom were women. (See Annex 3).

University extra-mural and external courses, vocational school adult evening classes, particularly in arts, liberal studies and traditionally women's crafts and women's occupational skills, generally attract a high proportion of women.

The College of Industrial Relations runs evening courses to Diploma level in Management and Supervision. These courses are availed of by individuals seeking to gain management qualifications and skills.

AnCO runs a commercial course specifically for women who have had some commercial training previously and who wish to re-enter employment in this sphere.

Adults attending AnCO training courses are paid a small wage, somewhat in excess of their social security entitlement but less than the normal industrial wage.

Adults attending courses, other than those run by AnCO, are responsible for their own fees and do not get paid for attending the course but in some cases AnCO, trade unions or employers re-imburse the fees or part thereof.

Further information on training organisations - Annex 3.

Analysis of obstacles, difficulties and problems met by women workers in vocational guidance and training of a legal and institutional nature

2.1

There are no legal obstacles to the vocational guidance and training of women workers - but there are legal obstacles to their employment in certain occupations - see 1.B.1. These are presently being reviewed.

There are institutional and structural obstacles, Some of these arise from the way in which institutions and structures have functioned and their public image which categorises them as "male" or "female". For example, training organisations, other than those which are specifically for females only, are normally administered (except for routine office work) almost entirely, or in some cases entirely, by males.

Male training schools/colleges/centres (particularly residential) would have to be adapted for a co-educational intake and managers may be reluctant to adapt in anticipation.

Existing occupational and training structures which are male oriented or for males only are not easily changed, particularly as change could result in a shift in economic and political power.

2.2

of a psychological and sociological nature

European attitudes to women have historically been influenced by the Graeco/Roman idea of women, children and slaves being kept in the private spheres and of the public and political spheres being confined to men. In the past the social structure in parts of rural Ireland have been such that women did not take part in activities of a public or political nature. Coupled with these historical influences there is in Ireland a strong religious influence which associates woman's main role with child-care and home-making. The conception of what is "right" or "wrong" for a woman affects both the woman's self-conception and the attitudes of others towards her, these attitudes being re-inforced by the experience of single sex education.

However, concurrent with these basic attitudes and probably as a result of economic imperatives combined with external influences, is the general expectation that unmarried women

should go out of the home to work, and should support themselves and where applicable, their dependants. Husbands are expected to be the "breadwinners" for their wives and dependent children.

Attitudes to vocational training for women cannot be separated from attitudes to employment. Even in Ireland to-day most people, men and women seem to believe that a married man should be paid more than a single person and this, probably more than any belief about women's abilities or characteristics, decides that it is "right" that men (who are actual or potential family "breadwinners") should be selected for the higher level and hence better paid jobs.

Current research also suggests that male workers do not object to women workers as such - single women and widows are acceptable - but married women whose husbands are employed are seen as taking up jobs which could go to a presently unemployed married man.

### 2.2.3 of an economic nature

Due to the high unemployment rate among males in Ireland, there is social pressure for priority to be given to effective measures to easing this situation.

Because of this there are difficulties in adopting measures to improve the situation for women immediately.

Total out of work registered at employment exchanges as at weeks ending 12/9/75 and 12/9/74.

	1975	1974	% increase
Male	83,335	56,096	48.6
Female	19,185	13,087	46.6

Unemployment in most sectors of the economy means that competition for jobs and AnCO training places is intense. Classification of occupational areas by sex reduces competition in some areas and can be used as an administrative convenience to control the number of applicants.

Traditional female industries (textiles and food) have been particularly badly hit in the current economic crisis. The OECD, in its Review of Manpower Policy in Ireland published in March, 1973 stated:

"More training of female labour is likely to become an especially important need as female redundancies in traditional industry are likely to become an increasing problem."

and

"Every effort should be made by the vocational educational authorities and AnCO to investigate ways in which mature women could be trained to undertake skilled or semi-skilled employment and to make such training available".

### 2.2.4 of a practical nature

Difficulties of a practical nature relate largely to the existing patterns of social organisation which provide few supports for married women who wish to take employment outside their homes.

The vocational education committees provide an extensive network of secretarial and commercial courses which are availed of almost entirely by girls. They also provide evening and adult classes which are widely used by women.

Apart from these provisions, women and girls have not been the recipients of much of the vocational training provided by public funds. Investment in women's training is largely an individual or family matter.

There is no evidence that Irish families (except possibly in some areas of Dublin) are less reluctant to educate females than males. The contrary is often true in the case of rural families, boys being expected to find work in manual areas for which it is believed no education is necessary, girls to have to depend on their brains! This attitude is modified by the existing job structure when it comes to vocational training or third level education. As girls are not expected to find work in "men's occupations" and as many of these require long and elaborate training - girls are less likely than boys to be encouraged to take professional training in universities or colleges of technology. The main family/individual obstacles to the training of girls are financial and lack of opportunity rather than a reluctance to train girls. In the case of married women there is also the question of lack of flexibility of hours - many courses being run at times not compatible with "home duties".

### 3.1. Measures taken or planned

Legislation designed to prevent discrimination by sex in employment is due to come into force in 1976. In anticipation of this some organisations have restructured their recruiting, training and promotion programmes.

All the main training organisations admit women and girls to all courses in principle, though in practice there may not be any female applicants. Some special courses have been put on which are aimed specifically at women and these attract a good response. A working party on girl apprentices was set up by AnCO last year and reported in March this year. Most of its recommendations were in the field of publicity. The Council of AnCO has decided to experiment with a pilot scheme for girl apprentices. A special effort is to be made this coming year to recruit a number of girls for first year apprenticeship courses in the AnCO training centres.

However, even if girl apprentices are given first year training by AnCO, they have to be absorbed into the workforce subsequently. Here both the attitudes of employers and the existing workforce will be crucial.

## 3.2

Desirable measures - prospects proposals

Prospects: Present demographic trends indicate a growing population and this, coupled with a cessation of emigration outlets, could create a difficult job situation. As-married women are regarded as a reserve work force, it could be particularly difficult to integrate them into the main work force and there would probably be widespread opposition to their taking up places in publicly maintained training schemes. If, however, new employment opportunities are opened up, the training of women for traditionally male spheres of work is likely to meet less opposition.

Pressure, particularly from younger women and women trade unionists, is likely to increase because of the contraction of industries which traditionally gave female employment, an increase in potential working women in the population, increased educational levels and shifts in attitudes.

There has been a certain amount of publicity about women in work and training, particularly from women journalists during the year, and lectures and conferences on the subject have been organised. Trade unions have organised special courses to encourage women to play an active role in trade unions.

The Department of Labour has a women's section and an anti-discrimination section. A women's representative committee (with advisory status), with representation from employers, trade unions, the council for the status of women and the Economic and Social Research Council has been established by the Minister for Labour. Research projects on various aspects of women in training and/or in employment are currently being carried out under the aegis of university colleges, AnCO, the Department of Labour, the Department of Education, the Economic and Social Research Council and the Institute of Public Administration.

The Departments of Education and Labour have also launched in schools throughout the country, a competition on various aspects of the women's role which should have the effect of making young people and their schools examine the present situation.

The National Economic and Social Council in its comments on the OECD report on Manpower Policy in Ireland published in July, 1975, states:

"To move from the present situation in which women are discriminated against will require a period in which women receive especially favourable treatment".

While this is a logical conclusion, doubts have been expressed to me that in the present economic situation in Ireland, it would be acceptable.

ANNEX 1

Occupational tables showing female  
participation in labour force

1971 Census

Percentage females employed in each occupational group

<u>Occupational Group</u>	<u>Percentage females employed</u>
	%
Telephone, telegraph and radio operators	75
Religious, teachers and nurses	68
Textile and clothing workers	67
Clerical workers	65
Service workers	63
Leather and leather substitute workers	41
Warehousemen, storekeepers, packers and bottlers	35
Commerce, insurance and finance	33
Paper and printing workers	30
Food, beverage and tobacco workers	26
Workers in other products	22
Professional and technical workers (other than religious, teachers and nurses)	17
Electrical and electronic workers	14
Agricultural and forestry workers and fishermen	9
Foremen and supervisors of manual workers	8
Administrative, executive and managerial worker	5
Engineering and related trades	3
Painters and decorators	2
Labourers and unskilled workers	.9
Woodworkers	.7
Transport and Communications workers (other than telephone, telegraph and radio operators)	.5
Armed forces	.1
Building and construction	.025
Mining, quarrying and turf workers	0
Operators of cranes, stationary engines and excavators	0

1971 Census

Occupations in which no female was employed

<u>Occupation</u>	<u>Number of employees</u>
Mining, quarrying and turf workers	5,116
Operators of cranes, stationary engines, excavators	7,517
Forestry and forestry labourers	4,552
Telephone installers and repairmen	3,324
Linesmen and cable jointers	1,543
Electricians and electrical fitters	10,508
Radio and television mechanics	1,337
<u>Fitters and mechanics in:</u>	
Manufacture of metals, metal products, machinery	3,636
Manufacture of transport equipment	1,360
In other manufacturing industries	4,336
In transport, communication and storage	1,178
In other activities	4,245
Plumbers and gas fitters	4,902
Structural metal and metal plate workers	1,765
Bricklayers	2,567
Masons and stone cutters	1,717
Plasters	3,844
<u>Labourers and unskilled workers in:</u>	
Local authority building and construction	13,715
Office of Public Works, electrical wiring and contracting, painting, plumbing	1,830
Electricity gas and water supply	3,645
Recreational services	411
Foremen and supervisors of manual workers in electricity gas and water supply	632
<u>Transport and Communication Workers</u>	
Inspectors and supervisors	1,421
Aircraft pilots, navigators and flight engineers	340
Railway engine drivers	734
Porters and ticket collectors	1,765
Ships Officers	685
Sailors	1,607
Dock labourers	3,068

Occupations in which less than .5% of the workforce was female

<u>Occupation</u>	<u>Number of employees</u>	<u>% female</u>
Fitters and mechanics	25,274	.01
Vehicle builders and assemblers	3,588	.08
Sheet metal workers	2,517	.04
Welders and cutters	2,867	.24
Precision instrument and watch and clock makers	1,218	.33
Carpenters, joiners and cabinet makers	18,919	.005
Boot and shoe makers and repairers (not factory)	940	.42
Millers	1,596	.06
Fishermen	2,790	.11
Bus conductors	2,072	.43
Drivers of road goods vehicles	24,621	.10
Postmen and post office sorters	6,228	.14
Roundsmen	3,979	.15
Garda sergeants and lower ranks	6,089	.46
Engineers	3,985	.07
Armed forces	8,797	.1



(EXTRACT FROM E.S.R.I. SURVEY 1971)

Among single women, the proportion not in the labour force nor at school is fairly high. This is shown in Table 3: only 60% of single women aged 14-14 were 'gainfully occupied' in 1971, and 15% were in 'home duties' or 'not yet at work'. The overall impression conveyed by these figures is one of a relatively low level of economic activity among Irish women, especially married women.

TABLE 3  
WOMEN AGED 14-64 CLASSIFIED BY LABOUR FORCE STATUS 1966 & 1971.  
(PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION)

	<u>Single</u>		<u>Married</u>		<u>Widowed</u>		<u>Total</u>	
	<u>1966</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1966</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1966</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1966</u>	<u>1971</u>
Gainfully occupied	61.9	59.7	5.5	8.0	37.5	35.3	31.4	30.5
At school, student	19.1	25.5	-	-	-	-	8.2	10.4
Home duties, not yet at work etc.	19.0	14.8	94.5	92.0	62.4	64.7	60.5	59.1
Total:	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Census of Population 1966, 1971.

These data are derived solely from Census of Population sources. In a survey of the Irish female population conducted in 1971, in which a more inclusive definition of 'economic activity' was used, it was found that a significant proportion of married women were engaged in part-time employment that would tend to be excluded from the Census definition of 'gainfully occupied'. This survey yielded the following activity rates:

(Economically active as a percentage of population aged 15-64)

	<u>Single</u>	<u>Married</u>	<u>Widowed</u>	<u>Total</u>
Full-time participation	65.3	5.7	18.3	24.3
Part-time participation	9.2	9.6	33.4	10.0
Total 'economically active'	74.5	15.3	51.7	34.3

The survey yielded rates of 'full-time participation' similar to the Census data, but revealed that almost twice as many married women were working part-time as were working full-time. This under-statement of married women's activity in the Census must be borne in mind in evaluating the evidence discussed above.

(1) Level and Structure of Employment: Out of a total Irish work force of 1.1 million in 1971, there were 288,000 working women. Just over 39,000 of these women were married, and another 25,000 widowed. As Table 1 makes clear, women are not a high percentage of either the total or the non-agricultural labour force; nor is their share of the total rising very significantly. Moreover, according to these Census data, less than 14% of the female labour force consisted of married women. The fact that only 3.5% of the total Irish labour force consists of married women is the most striking feature of Table 1.

TABLE 1

WOMEN IN THE LABOUR FORCE

	<u>1961</u>	<u>1966</u>	<u>1971</u>
<u>Women as a percentage of the labour force:</u>			
(a) Total labour force	25.9	25.9	25.7
(b) Non-agricultural labour force	34.2	33.2	31.6
<u>Married Women as a percentage of the labour force:</u>			
(a) Total labour force	1.9	2.1	3.5
(b) Non-agricultural labour force	2.9	3.0	n.a.
<u>Percentage distribution of gainfully occupied women by marital status:</u>			
(a) Total gainfully occupied:			
Single	80.0	81.4	77.7
Married	8.5	8.9	13.6
Widowed	11.5	9.7	8.7
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>
(b) Non-agricultural gainfully occupied:			
Single	86.5	86.2	n.a.
Married	8.6	9.0	n.a.
Widowed	6.0	4.8	n.a.
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	

Source: Census of Population 1961, 1966 and 1971  
n.a. = not available.

In Table 2 it is shown that the proportion of women who are neither in the labour force, nor at school, is high. This is, in the first place, a reflection of the fact that the activity rate among married women is very low - only 8% were gainfully occupied in 1971.

TABLE 2  
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION  
BY LABOUR FORCE  
STATUS

	<u>Females</u>		<u>Males</u>	
	<u>1966</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1966</u>	<u>1971</u>
<u>Aged 14 years of age &amp; over:</u>				
At work	19.6	18.8	54.2	51.9
Out of work	0.5	0.6	3.0	3.7
Gainfully occupied	20.1	19.4	57.2	55.6
At school + student, higher education	4.8	6.1	5.1	6.4
Not in labour force or educational system	46.2	45.7	7.9	8.2
<u>Aged under 14 years:</u>				
Total population	28.9	28.8	29.8	29.8
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table showing the percentage of the higher administrative labour force which is female in industrial firms, by region.  
(AnCO survey of industrial firms, 1974)

Region	Managerial/Supervisory % female	Professional/technical % female
North-west	14	9
North-east	7	5
West	11	4
Midlands	8	11
Mid west	7	10
East	11	7
South west	5	6
South east	5	1
National	9	7

(Census - 1971)	<u>Public Service</u>	% female
Senior officials - civil service and local authorities		6
Clerks - civil service and local authorities		56
Typists in public administration and defence		99

(Census 1971)	<u>Insurance, banking, finance</u>	% female
Administrative, Executive, Managerial		3
Clerks		54
Typists		99

(Census 1971)	<u>Commerce</u>	% female
Proprietors and Managers in wholesale or retail		25%
Clerks		67%
Typists		100%

(Census 1971)	<u>Professional</u>	% female
Professional and technical		49%
Clerks		70%
Typists		99%

Numbers gainfully employed in Ireland by  
socio-economic grouping (census 1971) and % female in each  
group

	(a)	(b)
	<u>Total No. gainfully</u> <u>employed</u>	<u>% (a) female</u>
1. Agriculture	288,753	8.8
2. Higher Professional	42,807	35.3
3. Lr. Professional	58,142	61.0
4. Employers and Managers	42,259	13.2
5. Salaried employees	17,688	2.3
6. Intermediate Non-manual	190,099	52.7
7. Other non-manual	124,387	35.4
8. Skilled manual	173,475	7.4
9. Semi-skilled	88,333	52.1
10. Unskilled	88,840	0.9

ANNEX 2

Educational systems and vocational training and  
guidance in the educational systems.

## Educational Systems

The Department (Ministry) of Education is the State Department which is responsible for the administration of public education primary, secondary, vocational and special schools. Attendance at school is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 15.

Primary (1st level) schools. These are the commonly called 'national schools' which are attended by 95% of the primary school population. The other 5% attend private junior schools. National schools are parochially managed but financed mainly by the Department of Education. These are normally 8-year schools, and attendance before the age of 6 is voluntary.

### 2nd Level

Secondary academic schools are private schools owned and run largely by religious orders. Their running costs and some capital costs are paid by the Department of Education.

Vocational schools. These are run by vocational/committees of education which there are 37. The V.E.C.'s are sub-committees of local authorities and consist of elected members of the local authority concerned and co-opted members. They provide secondary and general continuation education, 2nd level technical and vocational training, apprentice day release and block release courses, regional technical colleges, colleges of technology, and a network of adult and evening classes throughout the country. They are financed mainly by the Department of Education with a contribution from the appropriate rating authority.

Other 2nd level schools. A small proportion of pupils attend other types of 2nd level schools - maintained comprehensive or community, recognised secondary/vocational classes of national schools, non-recognised private secondary schools, secondary level classes in regional technical colleges, a preparatory college for the C. of E. teacher training college.

For numbers of students at each type of school - see table attached.

### EXAMINATIONS

Primary: There is no examination in 1st level. There is no official entrance examination to second level, but some secondary academic schools have their own tests.

Group Certificate. Originally only taken by vocational schools - now taken in some other schools as well. A two year second level course in which subjects are "grouped". Run and administered by Department of Education.

Intermediate Certificate. Originally taken only by secondary academic schools, now taken by most vocational schools as well. Three year course leading to examination run by Department of Education.

Leaving Certificate. Final secondary examination taken by secondary academic and some vocational schools. Two year senior secondary course. Matriculation, university grants system, entrance to certain occupations based on Leaving Certificate.

### Third level educational/training institutions

Universities - autonomous but aided by Department of Education.  
Teacher Training (primary) Colleges - run by religious orders but maintained by Department of Education.

Specialised teacher training colleges - maintained by Department of Education.

Regional Technical Colleges - maintained by V.E.C.'s.

Colleges of Technology - maintained by V.E.C.'s.

National College of Higher Education - maintained by Department of Education.

College of Physical Education - maintained by Department of Education.

The Department (Ministry) of Agriculture and Fisheries also maintains 5 senior second level colleges of agriculture and aids 6 private colleges. It also aids/maintains some other specialised training centres, runs winter evening courses/lectures in agriculture and maintains a fisheries school for boys aged 16/17, and gives agriculture scholarships to universities.

The Department (Ministry) of Defence maintains a variety of training courses for forces personnel and maintains a training college for cadets (officer recruits).

The Department (Ministry) of Justice maintains a training centre for gardai (police) recruits.

Numbers in full-time vocational training courses (excluding apprentices) in February, 1974.

Institution	Residential/ Day	Number of students	
		Male	Female
Maintained/Aided:			
Vocational Schools:			
(a) Secretarial	D.	36	3,961
(b) Technical	D.	213	140
Reg. Technical Col. (secretarial)	D.		44
Domestic Economy	R.		168
Dept. of Defence college (cadets)	R.	102	
Dept. of Agriculture colleges	R.	768	331
Nautical College	R.	47	
		<u>1,166</u>	<u>4,644</u>
Non-aided:			
Commercial	R/D	19	1,719
Religious	R.	20	
Radio Schools	D.	<u>272</u>	
Total:		311	1,719

3rd level (18-21) (Excluding Universities)

Numbers in Vocational Training (other than those in universities or university colleges), February 1974.

Institution	Residential/ Day	Number of students	
		Male	Female
Aided/Maintained			
Teacher training			
(a) National (primary)	R.	586	1,261
(b) Vocational (practical)	R.	234	14
(c) Domestic Science	R.	-	173
(d) Physical Education	R.	91	103
Vocational school/college (technological)	D.	2,156	751
Reg. Technical College	D.	1,248	352
Colleges of Art	D.	39	75
Department of Defence	R.	147	
College of Pharmacy	D.	15	99
Nat. Inst. of Higher Ed.	D.	144	67
		<u>4,660</u>	<u>2,895</u>
Non-Aided:			
Teacher training	R/D		232
Religious	R.	<u>786</u>	
Total:		5,446	3,127

Number of years training varies according to course.  
Secretarial courses 1 year, teacher training 3 years.



SCHOOL GUIDANCE SERVICE 1974/1975

Pupils in Guidance

Pupils at boys' schools	42,564
Pupils at girls' schools	45,510
Pupils at co-educational schools	35,164
	<hr/>
	123,238

% of 2nd level pupils attending 2nd level schools in  
which there is a guidance teacher employed 51%

No. of Guidance Teachers:

Male	169
Female	167
	<hr/>
Total No of Guidance teachers	336

Total no. of schools with at least one guidance teacher - 333

A N N E X 3

Vocational Training Organisations:

ANCO

CERT Ltd.

I.E.I.

I.P.A.

Others

## Training Organisations

### AnCO

#### AnCO

The Industrial Training Act (1967) established an Industrial Training Authority called An Chomhairle Oiliuma or AnCO with responsibility for training at all levels in industry and commerce up to and including top management. AnCO receives an annual grant from the Department of Labour and also raises money by means of levies on industry and latterly has been getting grants from the EEC Social Fund.

It supervises and registers apprentices in "designated" trades (skilled crafts in industry), "takes on" itself about 600 1st year apprentices and trains them in its centres, advises and helps firms to establish in-job training courses and maintains and runs 12 training centres throughout the country. It also uses spare training facilities in some other institutions.

At its training centres AnCO puts on a variety of courses for adults - mainly training courses in industrial skills for unemployed and redundant workers. It also runs management courses, courses for training officers and instructors, and it may subsidise workers attending courses at the Irish Management Institute or the College of Industrial Relations.

The Chairman and Members of the Board and the Chief Executive of AnCO are appointed by the Minister for Labour. Of the thirteen Board Members, five are nominees of the Irish Congress of Trade Unions, five are nominees of employers' organisations; one is nominated by the Minister for Education and two are representatives of the Minister for Labour. At present none is a woman. Industrial Training Committees for different industrial sectors have been established to advise AnCO in achieving its objectives.

Table showing number of AnCO registered/trained first year apprentices and adult trainees broken down by sex for 1975 to 1st September, 1974. Apl. to December and 1973/73 Apl. 1973 to Apl. 1974.

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Year	1975 (9 months)		1974 (9 months)		1973/74	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1st yr. apprentices registered	2,506	3	2,815	-	2,183	5
1st yr. apprentices, AnCO training centres	773	2	516	-	450	-
Adults at training centres	To July 3,642 N.A.	N.A.	2,756	494	2,430	18
	1975		1974(9 months)		1973/74	
Grant from Government	5.9		2,783		3.	} £m.
EEC Social Fund	4.0		2,136		1.186	
Net levy/grant contribution	,35(E)		.160		.350	
Contribution from fees	£ 786		£ 1,623		£ 2,122	
Other	£23,184		£43,897		£13,429	

Average cost per place for apprentices in AnCO training centre as at July, 1975

£1900 pa

Average cost block release during 5 yr. apprenticeship

£540 (Total)

CERT Ltd.

The members of the Council for Education, Recruitment and Training for the Hotel Industry are appointed by the Minister for Labour and it receives from the Department of Labour an annual grant which covers approximately 82% of its expenditure. As its name implies, it recruits personnel for the catering industry, arranges for training courses, usually in hotel or V.E.C. schools, and gives scholarships to attend these craft level courses to trainees/apprentices.

	<u>1974/75</u>		<u>1973/74</u>		<u>1972/73</u>	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
Craft level	118	238	115	199	151	173
Leaving Cert. Level (total)		27		48		39
Managerial		n.a.		133		144

<u>Finance</u>	<u>1974(9 months)</u>	<u>1973/74</u>	<u>1972/73</u>
Grant from Department of Labour	190,000	225,000	225,000
Grant from Bord Failte	-	-	10,000
Registered Hotels and Guest Houses	12,888	18,888	18,150
European Social Fund	105,087	99,040	21,005
	<hr/> 307,975	<hr/> 341,928	<hr/> 274,155
Average cost per trainee apprentice	£383 (9 months)	£429	£325

Apprentices/Learners

Table showing 1st year apprentices/learners (15/16 years, craft level) for years 1973, 1974, 1975.

	<u>1975 ( to Sept.)</u>		<u>1974</u>		<u>1973</u>	
	<u>M.</u>	<u>F.</u>	<u>M.</u>	<u>F.</u>	<u>M.</u>	<u>F.</u>
Registered with AnCO	2506	3	2815	-	2183	3
In AnCO training centres	773	2	516	-	450	-
Apprentices in "designated" trades	3279	5	3331	-	2633	3
CERT Ltd. (scholarships)	118	238	115	119	151	173
Department of Agriculture	50	-	50	1	50	-
Estimated no. of apprentices/learners in "non-designated" trades. (estimate based on Labour Court figures)	450	2550	500	2600	500	2600

1975

Estimated total number of 1st year apprentices/learners showing in brackets number aided/sponsored by AnCO/CERT Ltd./ Department of Agriculture.

<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
4,000 (3,400)	2,800 (250)

## Main Training Organisations

Percentage of higher administrative staff (administrative class) female+

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<u>Organisation</u>	<u>Percentage Female</u>
	<u>%</u>
Department (Ministry) of Education	5
Department (Ministry) of Agriculture and Fisheries	8
AnCO	-
Irish Management Institute	5
Institute of Public Administration (Training Section)	50
CERT Ltd.	7

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+ Excluding inspectoral, professional and technical staff

Numbers of members elected/co-opted/nominated governing/  
advisory bodies of training organisations.

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	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Vocational Education Committees	550	30
AnCO (Council)	15	-
AnCO (industrial training committees)	156	5
Irish Management Institute (Council)	27	-
Institute of Public Administration (President and Vice-Presidents)	18	-
Institute of Public Administration (Council)	60	1
CERT Ltd. (Council)	14	2

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## Irish Management Institute

The IMI is an independent body of business men and firms controlled by a Council elected annually from amongst its members and representative of all sections of Irish industrial and commercial life. Its objective is to raise the standard of management in Ireland and it conducts courses on all aspects of industrial and commercial management. The Institute receives a State grant from the Department of Labour accounting for approximately 25% of its total expenditure. Attendance at management courses is also encouraged by a scheme of State grants.

	<u>1975</u>	
	Male	Female
Members of IMI	1482	25
Attended courses Jan. to July, 1975	2239	135

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	Finance	
	1974 (9 months)	1973/74
Membership subscriptions	45,568	45,000
Membership services	83,368	79,403
Management Development Programmes	270,878	394,111
	<u>£ 399,814</u>	<u>£ 518,514</u>
European Social Fund	185,353	282,826
State Grant	225,000	300,000
	<u>£ 810,167</u>	<u>£ 1,101,340</u>

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## The Institute of Public Administration

This is a voluntary body which, since 1963, has been a company limited by guarantee. Individual membership is open to persons employed or formerly employed in the public service and to persons interested in public administration. Corporate membership is open to public service associations, government departments, local authorities, statutory bodies etc.

The Institute provides a variety of services, educational, publishing, training, research etc. It awards a Diploma in Administrative Science after a four year course.

It also provides a number of short courses, mainly in public administration and management for its members. Usually employees are sponsored on these courses by their employing body. No separate figures are available for male/female participation in courses, but the impression of the organisers is that with the exception of courses for health and hospital services, only a small number of females participate in courses at management or higher level.

(Cont.)



Institute of Public Administration (cont.)

	<u>Finance</u> <u>1973/74</u>
State Grant	175,000
Publications	106,000
Service fees	211,000
Members' subscriptions	36,000
	<u>£528,000</u>

TRAINING STATISTICS

The Institute's training activities commenced 1961/62. An indication of the continued upward trend of these activities is revealed by the following statistics which relate to every third year from the inception of Institute training to 1970/71 and also indicate those for the year under review and the previous year.

	1961/62	1964/65	1967/68	1970/71	1972/73	1973/74
Courses	13	48	89	155	189	219
Course weeks	13	55	109	177	240	247
Man Course days	1388	3034	5004	6474	9546	9899
Participants (total)	245	766	1361	2083	2668	3211
Civil Service	38	142	270	702	746	699
Local Authorities	141	390	620	821	1013	1432
Health Boards	—	—	—	—	446	456
Hospital Boards	—	—	—	—	2	—
Voluntary Hospitals	24	13	29	82	41	70
State-sponsored Bodies	36	131	328	350	253	303
Others	6	53	52	36	92	220
Overseas		37	30	53	38	—
School			19	22	27	20
Staff			13	17	10	11

Note: With the setting up of Health Boards, staffs of local authorities, who had been engaged in health services, were transferred to them. The total number of participants shown in 1972-73 and 1973-74 with the headings both of 'local authorities' and 'health boards' are therefore comparable with the totals shown in previous years under 'local authorities'.

## Other Training Organisations

### National Rehabilitation Board

This was established by the Minister for Health in 1967 to co-ordinate the work of the voluntary organisations in the field of rehabilitation of the disabled. Occupational therapy and training are carried out at special medical institutions. The Board provides an assessment, guidance and placement service for disabled persons. At present it employs nine guidance officers (and is hoping to expand to 20) who work mainly with young people and in special schools. The Board is financed by the Health Authorities and receives a grant from the European Social Fund.

Men and women are trained - mainly for semi-skilled work - in approximately equal numbers.

1974/75

Number of male trainees ..... 252  
Number of female trainees ..... 204

Number of male directors ..... 16  
Number of female directors ..... 4

### College of Industrial Relations

This is a college owned and run by the Order of the Society of Jesus (Jesuits). It is aimed specifically at "workers" and works in conjunction with and puts on courses for the trade unions. Because its courses are designed for individuals and lower paid workers, it has a policy of keeping fees as low as possible and of arranging courses in evenings and in flexible modules. It runs courses for foremen, supervisors, managers and personnel staff. The college has two panels of lay sponsors. Individual trainees may be sponsored by trade unions or AnCO.

	<u>1974/75</u>	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Trainees on trade unions/supervisor/ personnel management courses	260	60
Trainees on management courses	64	4
Number of sponsors (trade union courses)	7	1
Number of sponsors (management courses)	8	-

### Finance

	<u>1974/75</u>
Grant from Department of Education	£ 9,400
Fees and other receipts	£10,600
Notional contribution from Jesuits - salaries, administration, accommodation (as presented to me by college principal, but I think it is an underestimate and should be about £80,000)	£40,000

### Trade Union Courses

The Irish Congress of Trade Unions has an education, training and advisory service. It runs a series of one week courses in various aspects of industrial and trade union activities the participants of which are sponsored by their unions or given technical assistance grants by AnCO. Most of these courses are not strictly speaking vocational training - but they are concerned with the work situation.

Slightly more than one fifth of trade union membership in Ireland is female. Out of 144 full-time trade union officials, 4 are female. The Education Officer of the ICTU is female.

### An Bord Altranais (Nursing Council)

This is a state sponsored body whose functions include the examination and registration of nurses, approval of hospitals as Training Hospitals, and the provision of post-basic nursing courses.

	<u>1974/75</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Members of Board		12	13

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Orig. : F

EUROPEAN SEMINAR  
ON  
VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND TRAINING FOR WOMEN WORKERS

Phase A

Situation, achievements and problems in vocational guidance and training for women workers in Luxembourg.

Rapporteur: Mr Nicolas ESTGEN, professeur-attaché to the Ministry for National Education

PRELIMINARY COMMENT

Strictly speaking, from the legal standpoint, no distinction is made in Luxembourg between young people and young women, in either vocational guidance or vocational training.

1. General outline of vocational guidance and training for women workers

1.A. Vocational guidance for women workers

1.A.1. The legal framework

Vocational guidance is defined in Articles 4c, 15 and 16 of the Grand-Ducal Decree of 30 June 1945 setting up the National Labour Office. The legal basis of the departments in question is laid down in the following provisions:

- Grand-Ducal Decree of 10 October 1945 amending the Law of 5 January 1929 on apprenticeship;

- Law of 12 March 1969 reorganizing the management and executive of the National Labour Office.

1.A.2. Institutions, structures and methods of vocational guidance

(1) Basic principles and concepts

The vocational guidance department of the National Labour Office is responsible for:

(1) carrying out the duties of placing and guidance allocated to the National Labour Office pursuant to the legislation on apprenticeship;

(2) carrying out a study of Luxembourg occupations and advising young persons on occupations corresponding to their aptitudes, the latter having previously been examined by scientific procedures and on the basis of school and medical reports;

(3) examining the aptitudes of applicants to occupations defined either at the request of an employer or at their own or their parent's request;

(4) studying and observing the labour market, particularly in the sector of the young and the future labour force and guiding the young in keeping with probable future developments in the labour market.

VG should furthermore regularly publish a Bulletin of occupations in the Grand-Duchy and maintain good relations with vocational organizations, schools and administrations and set up contacts with vocational guidance bodies in foreign countries.

Apart from the tasks incumbent on the Vocational Guidance Office, the users are also subject to certain obligations. Candidates for vocational training in crafts, business or industry must first apply to Vocational Guidance, i.e., before apprenticeship. Vocational guidance is therefore compulsory for this category of young persons. As regards the employer, the law requires him to apply to the VG department which supplies him with a list of apprentice-candidates previously examined as to their aptitudes. The fact that candidates for apprenticeship must apply to the VG department in no way affects their freedom to choose an occupation.

The characteristics of our guidance system are therefore on the one hand its integration in the National Labour Office and, on the other, the obligation for candidates for normal vocational training to apply to VG which, in giving suitable advice, also ensures that they are apprenticed.

The legal provisions concerning our VG do not however neglect the personality of the consulter, as they emphasize the aptitudes in question which, in the widest sense, means tastes, interests, talents or lacks.

It was even acknowledged that VG is a continuous process involving team work, constant contact with schools and the utilization of educational and medical data.

Lastly, the importance of documentation, vocational data and the development of vocational data at the international scientific level is reflected in the legislative texts.

Although applicants for vocational training constitute the majority of those consulting the VG department, the latter is at the service of everybody, regardless of training or studies.

## (2) Organization of vocational guidance departments.

The administrative and technical apparatus comprises :

the:

- Luxembourg centre
- Esch-sur-Alzette centre
- Diekirch centre

The Luxembourg and Esch centres operate full time. The Diekirch centre is open to the public on Mondays, Wednesdays and Thursday mornings. All three centres are equipped with a psycho-technical laboratory.

There are also seven other centres spread throughout the country, visited one day a week by a travelling guidance counsellor which enables the rural areas to be reached as well. These centres are also equipped with testing equipment.

The VG department is a public institution which receives appropriations made available by the State budget.

There is no private VG in Luxembourg.

### (3) Vocational guidance staff

Staff regulations: staff comprising 8 units have the status of state officials and employees.

Training and titles: The executive inspector must have a diploma from a vocational guidance or applied psychology school attesting that a course of at least two years has been fully completed.

Similar training is required of certificated counsellors. No special training is required of counsellors. Their further training consists of courses in guidance centres in France, Belgium and Germany.

### (4) Content and presentation of information

Since information is of prime importance, in the sense that one must be informed to be in a position to guide, our vocational guidance department is responsible for obtaining this essential data. It has two facets: collective and individual. The best procedure is where the two kinds of data are consecutive.

Collective information was organized for over 10 years solely by the vocational guidance departments of the National Labour Office in the form of vocational information evenings. The evenings were held every school year from May to October in the principal towns of the country. Their aim

was to provide initial information on vocations and careers, using audio-visual methods, to pupils of the last primary class, additional classes and, in general, all adolescents, their parents, teachers and educators.

Lectures cover the organization of vocational guidance, its usefulness and services, the importance of choosing an occupation and the need to adapt to the rapidly changing structures of industrial society with the help of good general and vocational training.

Colour slides show an extract from the wide selection of vocations. Each slide is accompanied by a short commentary on the job, its demands, length of training, future prospects, etc.

A film on vocational life and the importance of carefully choosing a vocation completes the information.

A brochure is distributed containing advice, a list of the principal vocations and careers, training required and other useful and essential information. The evening ends with a question and answer period and general discussion.

These information evenings were organized for a number of years by the vocational guidance departments alone. Since the last school year, however, these collective information departments are held jointly with the vocational guidance departments of the National Labour Office and the Ministry of National Education.

For the past twenty years, the Vocational Guidance Centre has been responsible for an office of the regional centre of the University Statistical Office and the Educational and Vocational Documentation Office of the Academy of Nancy, i.e., the BUS which in 1970 became the National Office for Information on Education and Occupations (ONISEP). This office regularly sends us a considerable amount of documentation on problems concerning teaching and occupations, which is of particular interest to students taking higher training courses. The Regional Centre of the Nancy Academy, in collaboration with Vocational Guidance, organizes an annual public conference on a current problem, either in training or in an occupation or group of occupations.



The information which was given in a collective form outside the guidance centres takes on an individual aspect in the centres themselves when the consultants actually visit the vocational guidance centres.

(5) Guidance content

(a) Collective action in schools (including information)

Although guidance is not automatically given in schools, relations between Vocational Guidance and the teaching world are fairly profitable. A number of teachers personally take their pupils to the VG centres. Teaching staff are present at vocational information evenings. Lastly, several teachers call in vocational counsellors for vocational information and guidance sessions in school.

VG also takes part, by means of written tests in entry examinations of the Ecole des Arts et Métiers, the hotel training school, apprentice centres in the iron and steel industry, rail roads and the Master Printers Association.

(b) Individual consultations

The counsellor helps young people seeking aid either in the choosing of a school section or of an occupation. His task is to collect family, school and medical data on the subject. He holds lengthy consultations with the person concerned and often with the latter's parents. He listens, and checks where necessary by means of tests. After this personal interview, the counsellor is then able to define the possibilities open to the applicant: he may change his opinion if the experience proves unfavourable or if new factors crop up concerning the adolescent or his family.

Vocational guidance is in effect only a beginning, since the exchange between the counsellor and the young person is aimed at making the latter sufficiently lucid and free to assimilate, by reflection and self-searching, the objective and open information on himself and the working world.

If the consultant is an apprentice, the counsellor himself has the authority to fill vacant posts and, knowing the working environment, is able to place the apprentice in an undertaking best suited to his personality.

(c) Number of utilizers of guidance services broken down into:

(i) characteristics of those concerned:

80% are candidates for apprenticeship to the craft trades, business or industry (vocational school or undertaking);

15% concern various categories of young people, particularly pupils in the lower classes of general secondary and medium schools;

5% are young persons going on to higher studies.

(ii) total number of consulters:

from 3,000 to 3,500 a year.

(iii) percentage of pupils using the services on completion of schooling:

About 30% of the school population, i.e. almost all the pupils in vocational education.

(6) Recent and planned developments

In order for vocational guidance to improve its efficacy, both at the level of the individual to "facilitate the development of each person's potential", and at the collective level by determining the needs of society and the duties of the individual, it must necessarily widen its scope of action.

The first essential task will be to institute increasingly close cooperation with the authorities responsible for the education and training of the young and their adjustment to adult life.

A major step in this direction was the setting-up by Ministerial Decree of a committee of representatives of the Ministry for National Education, educational guidance department, and representatives of the National Labour Office, vocational guidance department. Its task is to examine a number of aspects, e.g., 'coordinate documentation, information and guidance and harmonize the working methods of both departments.'

A first example of this cooperation was the joint organizing of educational and vocational information sessions for young people and their parents. Educational guidance provides information on schools and training

systems whilst vocational guidance deals with problems in the working environment.

As regards cooperation in other fields, provision has been made for the following:

1. Documentation. The educational guidance department will send to the vocational guidance department all information on general, technical and vocational education that is likely to affect advice on vocational guidance.

The vocational guidance department will send to the educational guidance department all information available on the labour market situation, both as regards adults and the young, on apprenticing and on the trend in occupations.

With a view to maximum efficiency in this exchange of information and documentation, it will be necessary to forward the data within the shortest possible time, i.e., as soon as available.

Direct and continuous contact between the officials of both departments has also been established.

2. Individual guidance. Cooperation between educational guidance and vocational guidance will take place as follows:

(a) The bodies responsible for educational guidance in the various educational fields will recommend pupils with vocational problems and those under 16 years leaving school to apply to vocational guidance for professional advice or re-guidance to a new vocation.

(b) Vocational guidance will cooperate with educational guidance, particularly the educational psychology and guidance centre provided for by the Law of 16 August 1965, in each individual case requiring an opinion on matters of vocational information and guidance.

3. Harmonization of working methods. At a future stage the two departments propose to cooperate closely in research work on fields of guidance:- methodology; prospects; planning; tests (preparation and standardization); analysis of occupations, vocational monographs; information for teachers; training of information officers etc.

2.1. Comment on and analysis of labour market and trend in occupations

see Annexes

2.2. Information and documentation

see Annexes

2.3. Vocational guidance

see Annexe

1.A.3. How they function

See Annual Report for 1973 in Annex

3.4. Costs and financing of vocational guidance

+ FL Lux 350.000

1.B. Vocational training for women workers

1.B.1. Laws, regulations and agreements

In the Grand-Duchy of Luxembourg, vocational training comes under the Ministry for National Education.

Vocational training for women is governed simply by the laws on vocational training, i.e. :

Law of 18 July 1924 on the setting-up of a vocational school in Esch-sur-Alzette;

Grand Ducal Decree (Law-Decree) of 10 October 1945 amending the Law of 5 January 1929 on apprenticeship;

Law of 2 July 1935 on rules governing the obtaining of a master's certificate in pursuit of a trade;

Law of 1 December 1953 setting up vocational training centres for apprentices in the craft trades, business and industry;

Law of 3 August 1958 setting up a Technical Education Institute;

Law of 16 August 1965 setting up medium education;

Law of 23 November 1966 setting up preparatory education for para-medical occupations;

Law of 18 November 1968 on rules governing certain paramedical occupations;

Law of 21 August 1969 setting up chemistry sections in technical and vocational education establishments;

Law of 12 November 1971 setting up an Agricultural Training Institute.

(see full list in Annex)

Thus there are no specific regulations on training for women, young persons or adults.

There is, however, one exception: vocational training for rural housewives: Law of 9 January 1963 setting up a training centre for rural housewives.

There are no legal provisions which discriminate against women.

In Luxembourg, there is as yet no legislation on training for adults. This is organized in keeping with demand (in principle, for all training systems for the young) by Ministerial ruling.

The structure of vocational education: see Annexes.

1.B.2. Institutions, structures and methods of vocational training

2.1. of the school type (public)

For adult women there are the following training possibilities:

paramedical training

engineer-technician training

training of skilled workers for all craft industries

of the school type (private)

secretarial training

typing training

shorthand-typist training

assistant accountant training

2.2. of the non-school type (public)

training for waitressing, cafeteria work, cabaret work

of the non-school type (private)

making-up of garments

dressmaking classes, hairdressing, art trades

2.21. training institutions or bodies

Ministry for National Education

(Vocational schools)

Chamber of Commerce

Chamber of Industry

2.22 organizations or undertakings

Luxembourg office for the increase of productivity

Association of Travellers and Employees of Trade and Industry

Society of Accountants

Federation of Craftsmen

2.3. Different types of training

Vocational training courses for adults comprise either

Initial training: nurses

paramedical personnel

training for qualifications:

various craft trades

promotion: skill in all craft trades

1.B.3. How they function

3.1. Conditions of access for women workers to vocational training.

There are no restrictive clauses to initial training.

As regards training for qualification and promotion, the normal conditions of access to training for the young are also required of adults (e.g., CAP required for access to courses preparatory to a "skilled" certificate).

3.2. Present training possibilities

see under 2.3.

3.3. Number of trainees

1971/1972	1.733 men
	2.212 women (53.53%)
1972/73	1.886 men
	2.546 women (57.44%)

Breakdown: see Annexes

3.4. Procedures and machinery for adjusting training resources to demand

3.5. Results

(see Annexes)

3.6. Costs and financing of vocational training

There are no data available on training for women workers since there is no specific training for women.

The table below gives an overall picture of the cost of vocational training for adults compared with the total cost of vocational training, total expenditure of the Ministry for National Education and total State expenditure.

Budget	1973		1974		1975	
	curr. exp.	capit. exp.	curr. exp.	capit. exp.	curr. exp.	capit. exp.
Vocational education	279.792.122	59.470.785	361.006.650	94.772.000	425.920.576	235.746.000
Agricultural education	24.079.611	285.749	28.942.965	385.000	28.379.378	442.000
Vocational training for adults	5.315.411		6.350.000		7.000.000	
Total Ministry for National Education	2.025.175.719	639.701.190	2457.432.277	576.664.000	2.920.489.177	615.587.000
Total - State	14.393.135.518	5.331.441.523	17004.266.000	3330.165.000	20364.528.000	4.936.435.000

2. Analysis of obstacles, difficulties and problems encountered by women workers in vocational guidance and training

2.1. relating to laws, regulations and institutions:

none, with the exception however of the armed forces and occupations, involving basic military training: customs officer, foresters, etc.

2.2. of a psychological and sociological nature. Women are actively dissuaded from undertaking certain occupations or are not encouraged to take an interest in them. In many instances, the nature of the job itself discourages them, e.g., butcher, panel beaters etc.

3. Solutions and prospects

In order to dispel inveterate prejudices, every means should be used to improve information and guidance: press, radio, TV, etc. European directives and national provisions are also needed to remove the practical barriers and, more especially, better to convince economic circles.

In this Woman's Year, the government, i.e., the Ministry for National Education organized a week on vocational guidance for women with

- round-table discussions, conferences, exhibitions
- radio and television programmes

All these efforts are aimed at improving guidance, further guidance and vocational guidance for women workers, either with a view to a first job, or to a change in the job, or to a return on the labour market after a period of absence.

The government is also making a considerable effort to "feminize" the employment situation or to make it possible for women to break into all sectors of activity, not only the so-called feminine occupations. The aim is also to afford access for women to all the levels of qualification.



EUROPEAN SEMINAR  
ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND TRAINING FOR WOMEN WORKERS

Phase A -- Situation, achievements and problems of vocational guidance and training for women workers in Italy

Rapporteur: Mr Giovanni Conti

I. OUTLINE OF THE GENERAL BACKGROUND OF  
VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND TRAINING FOR  
WOMEN WORKERS

A. Vocational training for women workers

A.1 - Laws and regulations

As far as laws and regulations in this field are concerned, some general information should first of all be given about existing constitutional law on the subject of women's work.

With the entry into force of the Constitution of the Republic (1 January 1948), full recognition was given to the equality of the legal status of men and women in Italy. Under Article 3 of the Constitution, all citizens are equal before the law "without distinction of sex, race, language, religion, political opinions, personal and social circumstances". The wording of this law admits no exceptions and therefore excludes all discriminatory treatment on the basis of sex.

As far as women workers in particular are concerned, two basic laws should be borne in mind, i.e. Articles 37 and 51 of the Constitution.

Article 37 stipulates that women workers have the same rights as men and are entitled to equal pay for the same job. However, it also provides that in all cases women's working conditions should permit them to fulfil their basic functions within the family.

Article 51 abolishes any discrimination with regard to access to public office.

It should be added, in this respect, that in fact the access of women to public, administrative and political office has been achieved only after a prolonged and difficult legal struggle. From admission to the office of lay assessor to that of magistrate, or to a career in the diplomatic service or the prefecturate, the path has been extremely laborious and the intervention of the Court of Appeal has often proved necessary. In fact, the turning point with regard to the complete recognition of Article 51 occurred some 15 years after the Constitution entered into force; Law No 66 of 9 February 1963 finally admitted women to all careers, professions and public offices without restriction, except for the usual requirements laid down by law.

The law makes no special provision for the vocational training of women. All legislation, in keeping with the principles expressed above, refers simply to the worker; the vocational guidance services, therefore, make no distinction between men and women.

The regional decentralization implemented by Decree No 10 of 15 January 1972 represents a very important step with regard to the body of legislation on vocational guidance and training.

The provisions of Decree No 10 entered into force on 1 April 1972, in implementation of Articles 17 and 18 of Law No 281 of 16 May 1970, giving the Government power to issue, within two years, decrees having the force of law governing the transfer to the Regions without special status of the tasks entrusted to them by Article 117 of the Constitution.

As far as the specific subject of vocational training is concerned, and contrary to the provisions of (g) of Decree No 10, by which the Regions are made responsible only for vocational guidance and training for

disabled and handicapped persons, it can be seen that up to now the Central Government, i.e. the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, has retained full jurisdiction in this sector and also continues to carry out its tasks as regards vocational guidance for apprentices and young persons attending vocational training courses. This is confirmed by Ministerial Circular No 6 of 25 March 1972.

Lastly, reference should be made to the recently issued Law No 382 of 22 July 1975, containing regulations on regional planning and the organization of public administration. Pursuant to (c) of this Law the Government is authorized to issue (within 12 months) regulations concerning the devolution of administrative tasks to the Regions, as laid down by Article 118, second sub-paragraph, of the Constitution, as may be necessary for the consistent exercise, by the Regions themselves, of powers already transferred or delegated.

Clearly, the whole sector is at present going through a transitional phase and the final outcome cannot be foreseen with any certainty.

#### A.2 - Institutions, vocational guidance structures and methods

##### 2.1 - Observations and analysis concerning the labour market and the changing trends in the trades and professions

To fully understand current problems and trends in the labour market and in particular their repercussions on the employment of women, some details

concerning the present economic situation in Italy must be given.

This situation should, first of all, be seen in the more general context of the economic crisis currently affecting all Western Europe - and especially Italy.

The first result of this is an employment situation combining few job openings with a surplus of labour. At a time of economic stagnation, falling demand for capital goods and a considerable reduction in investment, the economic structure is attempting to adapt itself to an overall drop in the index of productivity by trimming off those elements in the labour force whose cost is increasing proportionately.

It is not difficult to understand why those most affected - and the first to pay the price of the crisis - are inevitably the so-called "forze bianche", i.e. the less skilled, less adaptable, less readily retrainable workers: young people looking for their first job, old people, immigrants from rural areas and women. These are all categories which already experience difficulty in integrating into the working world and even greater difficulty in finding stable employment, frequently being compelled to fall back on forms of underemployment (a striking example is the so-called intellectual unemployment of young persons with diplomas or degrees, who are often forced to accept jobs not at all in keeping with their educational qualifications) such as part-time work, seasonal migration and, of course, with regard to women, work at home. By farming out work to be done at home, employers, who are concerned with minimizing production costs, can avoid the various social security charges, generally compulsory, which would arise if the same women were employed in the factory.

In point of fact, women constitute the most important element in this marginal labour market. It was to a large extent women who, in the early '50s, bore the consequences of the massive emigration from the land;

today they are feeling the backwash of the economic recession - and, therefore, of the employment crisis.

As far as the development of job classification is concerned, it should be pointed out that the existing register of trades and professions in Italy should, for the most part, be regarded as obsolete. However, in other countries technological progress is showing some hesitation, mainly due to the difficulty often involved in large-scale industrial reconversion. Lastly, it should be stressed that Italy is following the prospects opened up by the SEDOC system with great interest.

## 2.2 Information and documentation

See contents of Annex

## 2.3 Vocational guidance

With regard to vocational guidance for women workers, the observations made in (A.1) above on the lack of a vocational guidance service devoted entirely to women should be recalled.

The general administration of vocational guidance services is operated on behalf of the State by the National Organization for the Prevention of Misfortune (ENPI, Ente Nazionale per la Prevenzione degli Infortuni), with which the State and the Ministry of Labour have signed an agreement which is renewed each year, with the approval of the Council of State. The last renewal covered the period 1 July 1974 to 30 June 1975.

By virtue of this agreement the ENPI, through the structures and teams of technical experts and specialists available to it, helps to clarify and resolve problems concerning choice of work and advancement, by means of guidance activities which may be medical or psycho-social in nature.

Through medical examinations and psychological aptitude tests, the Ente aims to pinpoint the aptitudes and special inclinations of each individual with a view to orienting him or her towards the profession or trade most suited to his/her abilities and personality.

The following are beneficiaries of the service:

- (a) workers (whether or not unemployed) requiring suitable special courses;
- (b) young workers requiring standard training courses;
- (c) apprentices about to start work;
- (d) migrant workers.

The following operations are carried out:

1. an initial medical examination and subsequent checks;
2. an initial psycho-social examination for information purposes; subsequent examinations may be carried out if the need arises in specific situations throughout the entire period of training and apprenticeship.

All the guidance activities carried out by the ENPI are subject to inspection and control by the Ministry of Labour.

Other agreements exist with the Centro Nazionale Opere Salesiane (CNOS) and the Ente Nazionale Acli Istruzione Professionale (ENAIIP). However, in terms of quantity, the vocational guidance work carried out by the ENPI centres accounts for more than 95% of all activities.

### A.3 How they function

3.1 - 3.2 In view of the particular structures and machinery of Italian vocational guidance services, detailed replies cannot be given to the questions under 3.1 and 3.2.

However, the following is a review of vocational guidance activities over the four years 1971-74.

In general outline, the measures were programmed jointly by the Ministry of Labour and the ENPI as regards methodology, duration and supervision, and organized from the operational point of view by the local branches of the ENPI together with the provincial Employment Exchanges and Inspectorates of Labour.

The beneficiaries of the services are persons listed on employment exchange books (apprentices and unemployed workers) and persons enrolled in vocational training course in general. As regards the last category, since 1972 activities have been partly coordinated (although much remains to be done in this direction) with the regional bodies, in accordance with the transfer of powers introduced by Decree No 10.

Vocational guidance operations are carried out in two basic spheres: guidance for young people and guidance for adults.

With regard to young people the following distinctions should be made:

(a) Apprenticeship - vocational guidance is carried out in two stages: an initial stage, covering all apprentices and a further (optional) stage concentrating on individuals.

The instruments through which assistance is provided consist of group discussions, individual interviews, tests, questionnaires, etc., in addition to medical examinations and psychological aptitude tests.

(b) Those attending vocational training courses - Here, too, two stages may be identified: an initial general stage, directed towards clarifying the functions of the training structure, and a further stage designed to ensure the subject's integration into the structure.



For adults, assistance is provided within the context of vocational training activities and is aimed primarily at unemployed persons (who may be interested in vocational training and/or retraining) and handicapped persons (the physically and mentally disabled).

It should be added that during the four-year period (1971-74) in question, all the vocational guidance services experienced a considerable reduction in the volume of their activity, as shown by the figures below:

	1971	1972	1973	1974
Apprentices	138 913	132 165	137 262	126 526
Persons attending vocational training courses	42 949	42 616	35 934	29 108
Unemployed adults	7 656	10 212	5 284	1 768

The reasons for this general decline (with the exception of 1972) are many, but may especially be found in the inadequacy of existing structures to satisfy the demand for jobs by unemployed persons and young persons looking for their first job.

### 3.3 Results

#### 3.3.1 Number of personnel and number of women workers receiving vocational guidance.

For reasons already given, no figures are at present available for the number or percentage of women workers receiving vocational guidance.

In any case, vocational guidance certainly cannot be regarded as forming part of overall employment policy; this state of affairs makes it particularly difficult to organize an efficient operation to adapt the structures of the training system to the real needs of both workers and the production structure.

Italian working women suffer from a serious lack of training and vocational guidance, to the extent that it is still almost impossible to escape from the identification of female labour with "domestic" work.

For a more detailed explanation of the situation in Italy see also B 3.

3.3.2 Relationship between labour market - vocational role of women workers - educational and vocational guidance - vocational training - employment

In this context it is not easy to establish a satisfactory organic relationship between labour market, guidance, vocational training and employment, for reasons already given. The theme is a valid one in general terms but takes on a special significance in relation to women.

Moreover, the threat of the "cassa integrazione" (supplementary pay for redundant workers) and dismissal (which has unfortunately become a reality for thousands of workers) already give a clear idea of the problems and difficulties involved in planning with regard to the labour market.

In reality, neither schools nor the vocational training system have succeeded in guaranteeing jobs, which become daily more difficult to obtain.

Parliament took an important step in passing Law No 300 of 20 May 1970 (known as the Workers' Statute) in view of its provisions regarding the placing of job seekers. In accordance with this law, job offers (except in the case of highly skilled workers) must be made through

employment registers, in which every worker in search of employment must be recorded, on a purely numerical basis. It is made compulsory for the employer to use the employment exchange system when recruiting workers, submitting a "numerical" request for the workers needed, who cannot be taken on directly.

As already stated, for a number of reasons women have suffered worst from the negative effects of the employment crisis. However, the overall figures for women in employment recorded over the last few years clearly show an increase in the number - and above all the quality - of women workers, representing a vital factor in their emancipation and acquisition of an essential role in contemporary society. Society today can no longer exclude women from factories, offices, schools and the professions.

A general outline is given here (accompanied by some figures), to better illustrate the real significance of the phenomenon of the working woman.

With regard to the figures, some discrepancy will be noted between the available statistics (in particular, the census results) and the findings of the quarterly manpower surveys.

1961 Census	
Men in employment	14 727 921
Women in employment	4 864 131
Total	19 592 052

1971 Census

Men in employment	13 747 839
Women in employment	5 083 288
Total	18 831 127

A comparison between the 1961 and 1971 results seems to show a distinct upward trend in the number of women in employment, although the increase was not much more than 200 000 units.

It should, however, be remembered that according to the quarterly ISTAT surveys, also for 1961 (the date of the first census), over 6 million women were in employment. According to this source, then, a drop of about 1 million units occurred during the decade 1961-71.

For the years following 1971, the employment trend for women can be studied exclusively on the basis of the quarterly surveys referred to.

Year	Number of men in employment	Number of women in employment	Total
1972	13 450 000	4 881 000	18 331 000
1973	13 482 000	5 018 000	18 500 000
1974	13 676 000	5 222 000	18 898 000

Taking these figures as a whole - and they undoubtedly reflect all the negative effects of the serious employment crisis (account should be taken of the considerable - and continuing - population growth) - it can be seen that the ratio between men and women workers is changing appreciably in favour of the latter.

This observation is even more significant when it is considered that the slight increase in the total number of persons in employment between 1972

and 1974 corresponds almost entirely to the increase in the number of women workers.

Besides this numerical increase, a qualitative change is also taking place in the work done by women.

The decline in the number of women engaged in agriculture is of note: from 1 498 800 to 943 311. This drastic reduction chiefly involves family workers, i.e., workers without an exact occupational status, who fell in number from 706 009 to 240 272. On the other hand, the number of women operating farms in their own right has increased (from 546 to 828), besides the number of supervisors, salary earners (from 4 090 to 5 709) and hired workers proper (from 190 949 to 263 146).

The figures given above refer to the period between the two censuses (1961 and 1971) and do not, therefore, reflect the recent economic crisis. However, it may be deduced that in agriculture, women are turning in reasingly to more highly skilled activities.

In other fields, workers tend towards the tertiary sector. In this sector, not only has the number of women employed increased in absolute terms, but the ratio between men and women is changing appreciably in favour of the latter.

In trade, the total number of women employed rose from 607 510 (1961) to 905 286 (1971).

In the service industries substantially more women than men are employed (more than 150 000); this may be explained primarily by the number of women teachers.

As far as the industrial sector is concerned:

the number of women employed in industry (mining and quarrying or manufacturing) rose from 1 491 533 in 1961 to 1 624 083 in 1971;

in 1972, according to the ISTAT yearly averages, the number has increased

to 1 570 000, while for 1973 the figure was 1 600 000.

Looking further than the mere figures, it is obvious that women's activities in industry raise very acute social problems. The complete integration of women into industry would presuppose a complex network of basic social infrastructures which either do not yet exist or are still far from satisfactory.

Women tend to work in factories only if obliged to by pressing economic needs and scarcely ever from choice; this in itself results in a lack of adequate basic training, which in turn prevents them from reaching higher levels of skill.

Lastly, reference should be made to the presence of women in the professions. An analysis of statistics by age group reveals an interesting fact: the entry of women into the professions has increased (very understandably) in the younger age groups (below forty) by about 20-25%. Nowadays the presence of women in institutes of higher education and universities clearly points to mass participation and entry into certain faculties (especially science) traditionally reserved almost exclusively for men.

#### 3.4 Costs and financing of vocational guidance

A sum of about 2 000 000 000 lire is set aside each year for running vocational guidance services. This money comes from the Fondo Addestramento Professionale dei Lavoratori (FAPL) (Fund for the vocational training of workers) which is administered, according to law, by the Ministry of Labour.

In keeping with agreements between the Ministry of Labour and the ENPI, the services are financed as follows:

- (a) a fixed sum of Lit 10 000 per capita for each recipient of guidance services;
- (b) a fixed sum for specific services (medical and psychological aptitude tests) to be reimbursed according to duly approved cost estimates after presentation of the required supporting document;
- (c) a sum, to be fixed on the basis of relevant estimates and according to the finances available, for setting up new vocational guidance centres, carrying out research and studies and preparing pilot schemes.

An account is sent every six months to the Ministry of Labour, which authorize payment of the sums in question by its own decree for items concerning apprentices and by interministerial decree in conjunction with the Minister for the Treasury in other cases.

B. Vocational training for women workers

B.1 The legislative background

The comments already made with regard to guidance also apply to vocational training, that is, that no specific regulations exist concerning vocational training for women.

As far as general legislation on the subject is concerned, pursuant to Decree No 10 of 15 January 1972 constitutional provisions have been put into effect with regard to the transfer to the Regions without special status of competence in the matter of "training for crafts, trades and professions", previously the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour with regard to all aspects of the organization and financing of vocational training courses and supplementary training courses for apprentices.

By Ministerial Decree of 8 June 1972 the tasks of the three public bodies which previously supervised vocational training, that is, l'Istituto Nazionale per l'Addestramento Professionale dei Lavoratori dell'Industria (INAPLI), l'Ente Nazionale per l'Addestramento dei Lavoratori del Commercio (ENALC), and the Istituto Nazionale per l'Addestramento nel Settore Artigiano (INIASA), were transferred to the Regions with one special status. By the same decree, provision was made for the winding-up of the three organizations in respect of all activities carried out in the Regions without special status.

For the Regions with special status, except Trentino-Alto Adige, which has already adopted regulations implementing the statute in this sector, the three organizations are continuing to operate provisionally through a special administration, working in conjunction with the authorities responsible for the winding-up; this latter will be discontinued when these Regions have issued the relevant laws (as is at present taking place in Sardinia).



The tasks referred to in Articles 7 and 8 of DPR No 10, however, still remain within the competence of the Central Government, i.e., the Ministry of Labour:

- (a) rules governing the award of diplomas or certificates with a view to placement in jobs;
- (b) the enforcement of social legislation;
- (c) rules governing the status of the apprentice;
- (d) international relations and agreements and the coordination of applications for assistance from the European Social Fund;
- (e) vocational training for Italian workers abroad;
- (f) granting assistance to appropriate regions for vocational training and retraining in cases of reconversion, closures, or new industrial installations of national importance, or when artistic or highly specialized activities are involved;
- (g) training and refresher courses for vocational training instructors.

Lastly, the Istituto per lo Sviluppo della Formazione Professionale dei Lavoratori (ISFOL), a body governed by public law with its headquarters in Rome and having administrative and financial autonomy, set up recently by DPR No 478 of 30 June 1973 in implementation of the last subparagraph of Article 17 of DPR No 10, should be mentioned.

This important body, intended by the legislators to give new impetus to the entire employment policy sector, in line with the relevant directives, the requests by the Ministry of Labour, and in accordance with Article 1 of Decree No 478, provides for the following:

1. study of and research to lead to the programming and coordination of the entire sector at national level;
2. studies and forecasts with regard to vocational training requirements;
3. the drawing up of proposals and the provision of the necessary technical assistance for vocational training and retraining courses still within the competence of the Central Government (see Article 7(f) of DPR No 10);

4. provision of adequate technical assistance for the Regions;
5. any other study and research activities entrusted to it by the Ministry of Labour;
6. the drawing up of proposals and the development of training and refresher courses for instructors, if necessary through experimental pilot schemes.

The Ministry of Labour has issued a directive on the implementation of these programmes, with which the activities of the ISFOL will have to be brought into line. The directive stresses the importance of research activities, which will be a vital part of the Institute's programmes and will constitute its basic cultural and technical instrument; the importance of suitable and effective training for the teaching staff of the vocational training centres is stressed: particular note is taken of the leading role which the institute will play in providing technical assistance to the Regions, particularly in preparing programmes to be financed with assistance from the European Social Fund.

## B.2 Vocational training: institutions, structures and methods

### 2.1 At school

With the introduction of the unified (and compulsory) lower secondary school, technical institutes have disappeared in Italy. Vocational training within the school system is, therefore, only carried out through the State vocational training institutes, dependent on the Ministry of Education. They cover all trades.

### 2.2 Other than at school

- (f) The principal bodies in the vocational training sector to have been entrusted with the administration of the training activities referred to above, and which receive subsidies from the FAPL, are - in

addition to those already mentioned - the following:

Public bodies

INAPLI - ENALC - INIASA - Special Administration for the Regions with Special Statute

Trade union bodies

ECAP-CGIL	IAL-CISL
ENFAF-UIL	CIPA-(Farm Workers' Association)
INIPA-(Owner-farmers)	CENASCA-CISL
IFATA-(Federation of Labourers)	CULBS 3P-(Owner-farmers)
ANAPIA-(Union of Italian Farmers)	ENAIIP-ACLI
ANCIFAP-(INTERSIND)	ENFAPI-CONFINDUSTRIA

Legally recognized bodies

CNOS - CIFAP - CIAPI - CIOFS - ANAP - CAPAC - ENIPMI - ORAFOS - EFA

De facto national bodies

ENAP - UNCI - OSFIN - ITCA - EPAL - CIRU - ELIS - ISM

Others of an exclusively local nature.

3.2 Present training facilities

The following outline, giving the classification of current vocational training courses, covers items 3.2.1, 3.2.2 and 3.2.3.

The courses may be divided into the following groups:

- (a) courses for unskilled workers wishing to acquire a given occupational skill;
- (b) retraining courses for workers wishing to acquire skills other than those they already possess;
- (c) specialization courses to provide specialized training for those already in possession of the prerequisite diploma or certificate (however obtained) or equivalent experience - to be ascertained by a suitable examination in the latter case;

- (d) refresher and advanced training courses, including theoretical studies, designed to broaden workers' technical, occupational and cultural skills in harmony with practical requirements, for their adaptation to special working methods or developments in production techniques, and their adjustment to job environment;
- (e) special courses for particular categories of workers as described in paragraph 10 below.

No rigid distinction is made between training and retraining courses insofar as workers who meet the requirements of the latter may be admitted to the former and vice-versa.

The abovementioned courses cover all occupations, both manual and otherwise.

At the request of the administrative bodies, the courses may also take place in the evening, providing three hours of tuition daily. On the authorization of the competent Labour Inspectorate, the evening timetable may be extended by half an hour.

The level of training provided by evening courses must, however, be equivalent to that of the day-time courses - even if the total number of teaching hours is less than normal - considering that the cultural and professional background of the students in question may be such as to justify a shorter training period.

To obtain an exact assessment of the various factors determining the length of training cycles, employment exchanges will have to include the following elements in proposals for evening courses, those referred to under (d) and all other courses for which the number of hours of tuition or the teaching programme differs from that laid down by the Ministry in question:

- type of course (certificate or diploma, specialization, etc.);
- basic level of training which students are assumed to possess, as a result of attendance at previous courses or on the basis of general education etc.;

- teaching programme;
- teaching system (crash course or other special training system).

Lastly, it can be confirmed that apprentices are not excluded from attendance at evening courses. However, this point will be re-examined from time to time by the competent Employment Exchanges.

### 3.3 Present number of trainees

There are no figures available with regard to the number of women at present attending vocational training centres.

Broadly speaking the figures given under A.3.3.2 may be taken as an indication of the relative number of male and female trainees.

### 3.4 Procedures and machinery for adjustment

For the reasons stated no quantitative and qualitative figures can be given. See the following comments.

### 3.5 Results

Obviously, the crisis throughout the sector, which is based on a system still tied to traditional types of vocational training (i.e., linked to public assistance) cannot but influence the rather modest results so far achieved.

As regards the certificates and diplomas distributed at the end of vocational training courses, Article 1 of Law No 1146 of 14 November 1967 stipulates that for contractual purposes the validity of the certificate is subject to the result of a trial period by the worker in a job corresponding to the qualifications obtained.

Thus, in the final analysis, the employer still has the power, recognized by Law, to validate diplomas or certificates by his assessment during the probation period.

The worker, therefore, in effect only becomes a carpenter, turner, electrician, etc. after being employed in that capacity by a firm in the appropriate field, on completion of the requisite probation period.

### 3.6 Costs and financing of vocational training

Financing, both for the activities carried out by the Regions and those still the responsibility of the Central Governments, is provided by the FAPL.

Pursuant to Article 17 of Decree No 10, this Fund is allocated annually on the following basis: 75% for the Regions and 25% for the Central Government. Article 17 also fixes the variables on the basis of which the funds are divided between the individual Regions. The Regions with Special Status will continue to be included until such time as regulations for implementing the various statutes are adopted with regard to vocational training.

Only the Trentino-Alto Adige region, as will be recalled, ceased to qualify for FAPL funds with effect from the 1974-75 financial year pursuant to Decree No 689 of 1 November 1973, issuing implementing regulations for the statute, and delegating legislative and administrative powers to the Regions with regard to vocational guidance and training.

As an approximately figure, a total of about 150 000 million lire is allocated for vocational guidance and training.

II. ANALYSIS OF OBSTACLES, DIFFICULTIES AND PROBLEMS MET BY WOMEN WORKERS  
IN VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND TRAINING

II.1 Of a legal and institutional nature

As regards general legislation currently in force with respect to women workers, it must unfortunately be observed that the existing situation arises from a historical, sociological and cultural background in which women as workers have traditionally been equalled with minors.

This has been supported by a corresponding tendency in jurisprudence, even fairly recently, to treat the subject of "women and children (fanciulli)" at work as a single entity. It was not until 1967 (Law No 977 of 17 October) that separate provisions were introduced for minors.

Consequently, even today legislation does not go much beyond the provision of a sort of protective system, based on the need to defend women workers (as mothers and as physically weaker persons, etc), conceived in basically the same way as the need to protect minors; i.e., by debarring them from particularly heavy, harmful or dangerous work.

The following are the principal laws in force on this subject:

Law No 653 of 26 April 1934 (governing the labour of women and children);  
Royal Decree No 1720 of 7 August 1936 (which lists work forbidden to women);  
Ministerial Decree of 8 June 1938 (which lists the activities for which women are obliged to undergo a regular medical examination);

Decree No 164 of 7 January 1956 (in particular Article 34, by which women are forbidden to work on suspension bridges);

Decree No 321 of 20 March 1956 (in particular Article 33, by which women are forbidden to work in pressurized caissons or in medical units attached to decompression chambers).

Another series of laws is concerned with the woman worker in relation to the family: Law No 860 of 26 August 1950 (on the physical and economic protection of working mothers);

Law No 394 of 23 March 1951 (amendments to Article 6 of Law No 860);

Law No 1904 of 15 November 1952 (amendments to Article 24 of Law No 860);

Decree No 568 of 21 May 1953 (implementing Law No 860);

Law No 7 of 9 January 1963 (prohibiting dismissal on marriage, amending Articles 17, 22 and 23 of Law No 860 and repealing the last subparagraph of Articles 26 and 33 of Decree No 568);

Law No 1204 of 30 December 1971 (also concerned with the protection of working mothers).

As may easily be seen, all this protective legislation, which refers to a period in which physical effort was regarded as the determining factor in work, is completely out of date.

Nowadays, women reject this viewpoint and are calling for a thorough overhaul, especially in relation to those restrictions which, with the intention of protecting them, in fact exclude them from most forms of productive activity.



II.2 Obstacles of a psychological and sociological nature

Italian women are still strongly influenced by family and social situations and customs which largely condition their access to work outside the home. Their employment level is particularly affected by marriage and childbirth, which influence not only their integration into the labour market, but also the quality of the jobs open to them.

Moreover, marriage and childbirth still play a very important part in the cultural tradition of Italian women, particularly in the South, where these matters are generally regarded as immutable principles symbolizing womanhood.

Article 37 of the Constitution regards women's role within the family as immutable and subordinates the provisions governing their working conditions to their ability to fulfil their domestic functions.

As was pointed out, in all general legislation (whether introduced before or after the entry into force of the Constitutional Charter) this principle is seen almost exclusively from the protectionist point of view.

The cultural background for such attitudes is largely based on the concept, not yet entirely superseded, by which marriage, the family and maternity are regarded as essential stages in women's development, whilst men are considered as fulfilling themselves through intellectual or manual work.

In point of fact, society meets women's demand for work not only by denying them the necessary support which would enable them to reconcile work with their role within the family, but often by obliging them to work in the so-called "feminine" sectors, in which a lower standard of vocational training is required and which are traditionally closer to domestic-type work, i.e. the textile, food, or pharmaceutical industries,

education, nursing, etc.

The real aim of this way of thinking, which attempts to "feminize" certain sectors by imposing pseudo psycho-sociological values, is to maintain reserves of cheap unskilled labour. The insistent extolling of women's primary role as wives and mothers is in fact, a way of compelling them to do two jobs - one in the factory, the other at home - and making them provide, free of charge, a whole range of services for which society as a whole should be responsible.

II.3 - II.4.

II.3: see comments under A.2.1.

II.4: see comments under II.2.

### III. SOLUTIONS AND PROSPECTS

#### III.1 Measures taken or planned to improve vocational guidance and training for women workers

This is a particularly broad and complex topic. If an exclusively efficiency-oriented restructuring were to be carried out, a general solution involving the reorganization, not only of the vocational guidance and training sector, but of the entire machinery for harmonizing supply and demand on the labour market would first be necessary.

As may be imagined, policy measures involving economic planning and the creation of structures are vital if the labour market is to be expanded. Discussions along these lines are currently being held between the government, the trade union organizations and the employers. The objective of setting up vocational guidance and training services aligned on the real requirements of the labour market and of production certainly cannot be achieved in the short term.

The reorganization of vocational guidance and training services to gear them to employers' actual requirements constitutes an important first step; in other words, the vocational training of workers should correspond to the requirements actually stipulated for the development of a given activity in a particular sector. In this way employers will no longer have reason to doubt the technical knowledge and ability of the worker who shows him a certificate or diploma acquired at a vocational training centre.

Only in this way - which, of course, presupposes a whole series of measures to restructure the vocational training system, its teaching methods and programmes, will it be possible to reach the stage at which certificates and diplomas actually correspond to the training acquired.

Much will also depend on the degree of effectiveness with which the Regions tackle these problems and the scope of the jurisdiction, at the level of general policy and coordination, retained by Central Government. In fact, it is hoped in many quarters that an outline law will be adopted, ending uncertainty about jurisdiction and providing the entire sector with a permanent structure.

This is the only reasonable and responsible solution to the present employment situation, and also the only valid basis for a reappraisal of the question of women at work, where the fundamental problem lies in the almost total lack of vocational training, which in turn becomes yet another reason for discrimination based on sex.

Women must acquire the right to vocational training in all fields, as they have largely won the right to study.

III.2 Desirable measures - prospects - proposals

In conclusion it may be said that both old and new problems have to be faced, and neither can be solved quickly. To be conscious of the fact that women are daily acquiring the right to a free and dignified existence, both as workers and as women, is, therefore, of the greatest importance.

Italian women, in 30 years of democratic life, have made considerable progress; however, much still remains to be achieved. The intervention of the State and the public authorities is vital in converting the principles laid down in the Constitution into reality. The primary task of the Republic is to remove the economic and social obstacles which, by restricting freedom and equality, prevent all workers from participating fully in the political, economic and social life of the country. This principle, known in constitutional law as the principle of essential equality, is specifically enunciated in Article 3(2).

General awareness of the problem of training for working women must also take into account the fact that women, precisely because they are exposed to a greater extent to the economic and structural contradictions of our society, need valid support from the public authorities in the gradual process of emancipation.

Obviously, this legitimate claim cannot be met by merely specifying the jobs particularly suitable for women. This was done in RD No 898 of 29 June 1939, which listed those activities in considerable detail (typist, telephonist, stenographer, statistician, filing clerk, librarian, secretary, etc.). The only practical result achieved by this was to exclude women from the majority of administrative careers in groups A and B, with very rare exceptions.

In view of all this, an attempt must be made, with the means available, to avoid crystallizing women's work into specific sectors and services which do not correspond to a specific bio-morphological need, and at the same time to challenge the employers' supremacy in both individual and collective bargaining.

Swift action should, therefore, be taken (to avoid an excessively long implementation period), and all actions aimed at providing a basic, polyvalent training outside the school system should be promoted as far as possible.

With this aim in mind, future action should be taken, either directly or by issuing suitable directives to the local authorities, so that in this International Women's Year, the problem of making productive use of the female labour force may be more effectively tackled, helping to give expression to those persistent signs of female emancipation which are being felt so intensely in Italian society; vast numbers of women are keenly and continuously engaged - as they were in the difficult and dreadful years of the resistance - in the political struggle for those civil rights, which form the basis of our Republican Constitution.

The problem of efficiency still remains, of course; in concrete terms, plenty of opportunity exists for discrimination on the basis of the greater ability shown in a particular activity by one sex rather than the other. Employers often turn mainly to women in specific sectors of activity because of their higher productivity (for example, shop assistants and "secretaries"), thereby creating and encouraging the phenomenon of segregation.

But this question cannot be dealt with by laws and regulations; there is nothing wrong with the law on this point, since women are employed precisely because they are more efficient. This is the most difficult obstacle in achieving complete emancipation.

A valid solution can only come from suitable vocational training for women which by its own weight will break down the barriers of the traditional women's occupations, guaranteeing an efficiency equal to that of men working under the same conditions, even in those fields which are still closed.

It is to be hoped that the International Women's Year will stimulate a greater awareness of the basic role of women in society and give rise to a series of structural changes which eventually will overcome the remaining obstacles to the complete participation by women in the social, cultural, political and productive life of the country.

IV. ANNEX

The following is a list of the annexes to this report available in Italian:

Annex 1 - Text of Article 117 of the Constitution;

- " 2 - Text of Decree No 10 of 15 January 1972 (on the transfer of administrative powers to the Regions without special Statute);
- " 3 - Text of Ministerial Circular No 6 of 25 March 1972 (Directive to the Employment Exchanges and Inspectorates pursuant to Decree No 10);
- " 4 - Text of Decree No 478 of 30 June 1973 (on the setting up of ISFOL);
- " 5 - Text of Law No 382 of 22 July 1975 (rules on regional planning and the organization of public administration);
- " 6 - Annotated text of Articles 33 and 34 of Law No 300 of 20 May 1970 (Workers' Statute), with regard to job placing;
- " 7 - Situation of women at work and in society; trade-union action - Extract from Gazette of the National Federation of State Employees (CGIL);
- " 8 - A modular structure for vocational training (Giovanni Abete).

Difficulty in obtaining material has made it impossible to attach further documentation, i.e., data, statistics, graphs, etc., to this report.





**Analyses of the situation:-**

**1.1 The characteristic elements of the context:-**

The years between 1950 and 1975 in Ireland were marked by a growing commitment on the part of government, national institutions and the people to improve the level of employment available to the people. During this period several important steps were taken which led to an intensification of the effort to industrialise e.g. (i) three government reports were published on Economic Growth - the third one of these reports covering Economic and Social Planning (ii) the O.E.C.D. report on Investment in Education appeared in 1963 and showed where the deficiencies and strengths of the Education and Training system were. (iii) National budgets showed huge increases in money allocated to the Industrial Development Authority.

In the 1960's, two important steps forward in Education and Training took place viz. (i) the building of nine Regional Technical Colleges commenced - all of these are now operative including a National Institute of Higher Education in Limerick. (ii) The establishment of AnCO - the National Industrial Training Authority. This developed from a National Apprenticeship Authority, which had been founded in 1959, but the foundation of AnCO entailed a considerable broadening of function to include all levels of Industrial Training, including management training. AnCO have proceeded to build training centres at industrial growth points throughout the country. This intensification of effort at industrialisation and at improving the availability of education and training were accompanied by

other important changes. Ireland, in common with other countries, was experiencing the drift from the land but, whereas, before 1965, many young people would be emigrating, now with improved employment prospects at home, emigration was declining for the first time in a century, so that, by the early 1970's, it was not only stopped, but, a drift back to Ireland from abroad had commenced.

TABLE 1

Annual average net number of emigrants, male, female and total in the intercensal period 1951 - 61 and 1961 - 71.

INTERCENSAL PERIOD	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL (in thousands)
1951 - 61	21.8	19.1	40.9
1961 - 71	6.3	7.2	13.5

"Net" in title means emigrants less immigrants.

Also in 1967, a " free scheme" of education was introduced to post primary education and a school transport system inaugurated. This resulted in a huge increase in the number of children attending school as may be seen from the following table:-

TABLE 2

Enrolment in Post Primary or Second Level Education (full-time)

YEAR	NUMBER (rounded to the nearest 1000)
1924/5	23,000
1933/4	42,000
1945/6	56,000

1953/4	74,000
1963/4	120,000
1973/4	229,000

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This table shows almost a doubling of enrolment between 1963/4 and 1973/4. Appendix 1 shows the pattern of participation in school in Ireland over the five year period to Leaving Certificate. It should be noted that in any one year of age in Ireland, there are 59,000 children (approximately).

The movement of this population out of second level education into employment, into third level education, into industrial training etc. will be shown later in section 1.3 of this report.

Reference should be made to section 1.B Vocational Training for Women Workers of the National Report for further elaboration of the economic and social context in Ireland.

(1.2) The Legal and Institutional Context:-

Responsibility for vocational guidance and training of workers including women workers, falls on three departments of state viz. Department of Education, Department of Labour and Department of Agriculture. It is through these three departments that money is voted to finance various schemes.

The Department of Education has responsibility for guidance and education and training programmes in schools, colleges and universities. Guidance services in Ireland for young people are essentially school based and are supervised and monitored by a team of psychologists employed by the Department of Education.

The Department of Labour has responsibility for vocational guidance services for adults. It also is the source of finance for AnCO - the Industrial Training Authority and so it finances the training centres operated by this authority. Similarly, it finances the operation of the National Manpower Services. This service is distributed across the whole country and is a Placement Service for job seekers and is a Recruitment Service for employers with job vacancies. Further reference will be made later to the Vocational Guidance function of the service.

The hotel and catering industry has its own recruitment and training authority. This authority is referred to as the Committee for Recruitment and Training to the Hotel and Catering industry. It operates its own training centres and provides courses in the Regional Technical Colleges for all levels of skill within this industry. It also operates a job information service as part of its recruitment programme.

The Department of Agriculture and Fisheries is responsible for training in agriculture and through the medium of County Committees of Agriculture, scholarship schemes are available which promote attendance at three state Colleges of Agriculture and a number of private colleges which have adopted the Department's training programme. The department also has responsibility for the training of fishermen and schemes of training are available. General guidance on careers in agriculture and horticulture is provided for students at the Agricultural Colleges. Professional training in Agriculture is provided at the Universities including Dairy Science, Horticulture, Agriculture and Creamery Management.

The tables used in section 1.3 of this report will show the breakdown on a sex basis of attendance at many of the training programmes mentioned. Females have participated in great numbers in some traditional areas e.g. teaching, nursing, commercial training and medically related employments, but their participation in other areas e.g. technical training, is low. There are many factors which have influenced this, but, the factor which has exercised considerable weight is the belief that "womens' place is in the home" and this belief is written into the country's constitution.

### 1.3 The Population Concerned:-

Appendix 1 shows the passage of an age cohort through the educational system. It shows the number of children who leave school at a particular age and at a particular stage of education.

A report on the Standards of and Qualifications in Formal Education among adults living in the greater Dublin area 1972/1973 which was published in 1974<sup>3</sup> gives an interesting breakdown of participation in and level achieved at time of opting out of education both on a sex and socio economic basis. The preface to the report states that " the information was collected in a survey carried out during the second half of 1972 and early in 1973. This report is by no means exhaustive but, it is hoped, it will be adequate to give the reader a fairly comprehensive profile of the educational standard and achievement of the over twenty one year old members of the Dublin and urban and suburban community. Because of the size of the random sample (3,000), selected for the survey, the findings are considered to be representative of the population". Table 3 gives the breakdown of the educational history and standard reached by respondents according to sex.

TABLE 3 EDUCATION BY SEX

CATEGORY	MALE		FEMALE	
	Actual %	Cumulative %	Actual %	Cumulative %
(a) Age left School				
Under 14 yrs	8.7	8.7	4.8	4.8
At 14 "	33.2	41.9	34.3	39.1
" 15 "	12.4	54.3	12.0	51.1
" 16 "	14.8	69.1	14.2	65.3
" 17 "	8.0	77.1	13.6	78.9
" 18 "	10.0	87.1	13.4	92.3
" 19/20 "	4.0	91.1	3.3	95.6
" 21 yrs +	9.0	100.1	4.3	99.9
Totals	N=1,010	-	1261	-
(b) <u>General Standard Reached</u>				
National School only	50.8	50.8	50.6	50.6
Voc. or 1/4 yrs Secondary	24.3	75.1	24.9	75.5
Finished Secondary	14.9	90.0	19.7	95.2
Some/All University	10.0	100.0	4.8	100.0
Totals	N=1017	-	1264	-

McGrail comments upon this table as follows:-

"The main difference between males and females is in the sample profile i.e. males have higher percentages leaving school under 14 years and continuing after 18 years while female have higher percentages leaving at 17 and 18 years.

Appendix 2 shows the areas of male and female variation. This variation is probably determined by the occupational opportunities or aspirations of males and females as well as by the expectations of society with regard to males and females education.

Intermediate and Leaving Certificate have been suitable qualifications for popular female occupations e.g. secretarial, clerical and nursing. This may explain the high concentration of secondary attendance by females. The relatively low percentage of females who have reached university or continued beyond 19 years of age (4.3% as compared to 9.0% for males) is probably a residue of the former mostly male make-up of university student bodies and the practical exclusion of females from professions demanding degree qualifications i.e. medicine, law and engineering which largely dominated universities until quite recently. McGrail proceeds to state that "the pattern of inter sex differences with regard to respondents education, repeats that, of their parents i.e. the female advantage at secondary balancing male advantage at university level. This pattern is maintained despite an obvious improvement in the frequency of those with secondary and higher education among respondents when compared with their parents.

With regard to actual educational degrees and certificates received, Table 4 shows the comparative position:-



TABLE 4:        TERMINAL DEGREES AND CERTIFICATES BY SEX

Qualifications	Male %	Female %	Male/Female Differencies %
None	36.4	40.7	+ 4.3
Primary Certificate	26.0	20.9	- 4.1
Intermediate Certificate	9.4	12.3	+ 3.9
Group Certificate	4.8	1.7	- 3.1
Leaving Certificate	16.1	20.1	+ 4.0
University - B.A.	16.1	2.8	- 3.3
"      M.A.	1.7	0.5	- 1.2
"      Ph.D.	0.5	0.2	- 0.3
Totals	N= 1010	1261	

The occupational significance of this table lies in the fact that the Intermediate and Leaving Certificate afforded females their greatest occupational opportunities.

Tables 5 and 6 show the numbers in Vocational Training (other than Department of Labour founded schemes) at 2nd Level and at 3rd Level Education in February 1974.

TABLE 5NUMBERS IN VOCATIONAL TRAINING FEBRUARY 1974

Maintained 2nd Level	Males	Females
Secretarial (Voc. Schools)	36	3961
Secretarial (R.T.C.'s.)		44
Technical (Voc. Schools)	213	140
Domestic Economy (Res)		168
Dept. of Agriculture (Res)	768	331
Dept. of Defence (Res)	102	
Nautical College (Res)	47	
<b>Totals</b>	<b>1166</b>	<b>4644</b>
<u>Non-Aided</u>		
Commercial	19	1719
Religious	20	
Radio Schools	272	
<b>Totals</b>	<b>311</b>	<b>1719</b>

TABLE 6

NUMBERS IN VOCATIONAL TRAINING FEBRUARY 1974

3rd Level

<u>Aided/Maintained</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Teacher Training		
National (Primary)	586	1261
Vocational (practical)	234	14
Domestic Science		173
Physical Education	91	103
Technological Voc.	2156	751
Regional Tech. College	1218	352
Colleges of Art	39	75
Department of Defence	147	
College of Pharmacy	15	99
Nat. Institute of Higher Ed.	144	67
<u>Totals</u>	<u>4660</u>	<u>2895</u>
Universities	12,675	7685
College of Surgeons (Med.)	556	155
<u>Totals</u>	<u>13,331</u>	<u>7840</u>
<u>Non-aided</u>		
Teacher Training		232
Religious	786	

Female training at second level is dominated by Secretarial/Commercial training. Other than in this area, male opportunity is greater.

At third level, the dominance of male in all areas other than Teacher Training is pronounced. Table 7 is again taken from McGrail's work as is his comment upon it because the comment is equally apt in the national situation shown in Tables 5 and 6.

TABLE 7

Diplomas and Certificates (other than those shown in Table 4) by Sex

Diploma or Certificate	Male %	Female %	Difference %
1. None	84.8	92.1	+ 7.3
2. Professional e.g. N.T.. Military Commission	4.9	5.3	+ 0.4
3. Technical Diplomas	7.7	0.4	- 7.3
4. University Post Graduate Diploma	1.7	1.2	- 0.5
5. Diploma in Music etc.	0.9	1.0	+ 0.1
Totals	N = 1016	1265	

"The relative deprivation of females in Table 7 is in the areas of Technical and university post graduate diplomas. The case of technical diplomas is most interesting in that it reflects the almost total absence of females in skilled manual occupations at this time in Dublin. With the trend towards industrialisation and the increase in females in the factory labour force on the skilled and supervisory levels in the coming decades, this situation of female deprivation will be resolved or greatly improved. If the figures in Table 7 accurately reflect the industrial situation, the ratio between males and females in the skilled industrial trades is 20 to 1. The ratio between males and females in the case of professional diplomas (3rd level) at 4.9% to 5.3% is much more equitable than in the case of university degree at 8.3% to 3.5%. The awarding of degree status to other 3rd level professional diplomas (e.g. National Teachers) will contribute towards the reduction of female relative deprivation at degree level". It is also interesting to note from McGrail's work that 5.1% of the total sample possessed 3rd level professional diplomas while 5.6% had university degrees.

It is important now to proceed to an examination of training schemes organised by AnCO - the Industrial Training Authority.

At the level of apprenticeship to a skilled craft, the following description of the present position is taken from a Report and Recommendations of the Working Party on Girl Apprentices (March 1975) -

PRESENT POSITION:

Apprentices in the designated trades are registered by AnCO after they have been recruited by employers. The average annual intake in all trades is about about 3,000 per year and this number is determined by the aggregate of the recruitment decisions made by individual employers. The total number of apprentices registered with AnCO averages about 15,000 and of these 8 are girls 6 of whom are in the upholstery trade and 2 in toolmaking. AnCO at present employs 459 apprentices in its training centres and of these 2 are girls who are apprentice toolmakers. These AnCO employed apprentices were recruited through the National Manpower Service, through the local schools or by direct application and when they have completed their first year training they must be placed with employers to continue their apprenticeships in the normal way.

Young persons who are over 15 years of age and who have achieved certain grades in subjects in either the Group or Intermediate Certificate examinations are eligible to apply for apprenticeships in the designated trades but exemptions from the educational qualifications may be granted by AnCO in certain circumstances. About 28,000 of the 60,000 school-going age cohort will have left full time education prior to or having completed the Group or Intermediate Certificate examinations. Approximately 16,000 of this 28,000 will have taken the Group or Intermediate Certificate examinations and thus could be eligible to apply for apprenticeships. Of this 16,000, 11,000 approximately are boys and 5,000 are girls. In addition to these, about 3,000 girls take secretarial courses on completion of their Group or Intermediate Certificate examinations.

In summary, therefore, for the 3,000 apprenticeships which are available annually, there could be up to 16,000 young persons who are eligible to apply and of this number 11,000 could be boys and 5,000 could be girls.

A further 12,000 young persons who left school prior to taking the Group or Intermediate Examinations would not be eligible to apply unless they were granted exemption. To become an apprentice in a designated trade a young person must in the first instance, apply for and secure a job with a suitable employer prior to being registered with AnCO, or alternatively, obtain an apprenticeship in an AnCO Training Centre. In this latter case it is still necessary to secure a job at the end of the course in order to complete the apprenticeship.

At other levels of skill, the following picture emerges. All of AnCO's courses are open to men and women. Direct training has been receiving an increasing number of applications from women for training and this is evidenced by an increase of 0.3% of total adult applications in 1973 to about 10% in early 1975. AnCO's target is to train more than 600 women in 1975. AnCO plan to train some 300 women on a Summer Programme in the Regional Technical Colleges. There are 175 women in training at present. See Table 8.

TABLE 8

WOMEN IN TRAINING IN AnCO TRAINING CENTRES

CENTRE	COURSE	March '75.	August '75.	NUMBER ACCEPTED FOR TRAINING
		NUMBER IN TRAINING	NUMBER IN TRAINING	
Cork	Introduction to Industry	9	4	-
	Clerical - Office Procedure	11	12	60+
	Sewing Machine Operating	17	10	-
	Basic Electronics	- (37)	3(30)	2
Dublin	Sewing Machine Operating	6	8	-
	Clerical - Office Procedure	9	8	16+
	Junior Management	5	5	-
	Hairdressing	3	5 *	23
	Painting/Decorating	-	2	2
	Instructor Training	16 (39)	12 (40)	Industry's Decision
Dundalk	Office Procedure	-	12*	-
	Toolmaking	2	2	-
	Light Electric Assembly	- (2)	12 (26)	12
Galway	Junior Management	1	1	-
	Basic Electronics	12	-	-
	RTV Servicing	2	4	-
	Machine Mechanic	- (15)	2 (7)	-
Gweedore	Clerical-Office Procedure	20 (20)	8 (8)	12
Shannon	Machine Operating	-	1	-
	Introduction to Industry	1	-	-
	Sewing Machine Operating	8	13	30+
	Junior Management	1 (10)	-	-
	Clerical Office Procedure	-	1	-
	Basic Engineering	-	40 (55)	-
Waterford	Engineering	1 (1)	-	-
Athlone	Electronic Assembly	-	1	1
	Light Assembly	-	8 (9)	4
Total		(124)	(175)	

\* Pilot craft apprenticeship training in '75/'76 only

+ Two more girl painting/decorating apprentices were taken on in Sept. '75



The picture of training for women changes more rapidly compared to that for men.

The larger groups in training are generally being provided with courses more closely related to local industry.

Craft apprenticeship training attracts few girls, less than 25 in total so far in 1975 and of those who do apply for apprenticeships, more than half fail to follow through by attending for interview and assessment. Girls who do present, must compete equally with boys. These factors account partially for the very low number of girls in apprenticeship. Only a very determined girl will have an interest in training for a traditionally male skill such as engineering or RTV servicing. Girls who do wish to train in a male traditional skill tend to seek a skill which is home related and of potential use domestically rather than industrially.

This point will be returned to later in section 2.1 in dealing with an analysis of difficulties. See Appendix 3 for Educational Qualifications for Entry to a Craft Apprenticeship.

To complete the description of the population concerned it is important to refer to Appendix 8 which shows the pattern of female involvement in employment in Ireland.

#### 1.4 Structures, Methods and Resources:-

Vocational Guidance of school goers is a function of the Department of Education, while the Department of Labour is responsible for the guidance of adults.

Guidance, in terms of a formal system of vocational guidance was initiated in Ireland by the City of Dublin Vocational Education Committee in 1960.

The Department of Education initiated a national service with the expansion of education which took place in the 1960's. The introduction of free education in 1967 and the raising of the school leaving age in 1972 heightened the already well felt need for such services.

At present, some 70/90 vocational guidance teachers are qualified per annum and if all of these could find employment in vocational guidance, the service would extend to most schools in about six years.

In September 1974, there were 287 Guidance Teachers working in First Primary Schools as Follows:-

TABLE 9

TOTAL	Secondary/Academic Schools	Secondary/Vocational Schools	Comprehensive/Community Schools
287	197	69	21

It is estimated by the Department of Education that the schools referred to above, enrol pupils as follows:-

TABLE 10

Boys	42,564
Girls	45,510
Co-Educational	35,164
Total	123,238

This total is approximately 51% of pupils in second level education. Authoritative opinion would also suggest that girls' schools were better served in their guidance function than boys' schools.

Schools of more than 250 pupils may employ a guidance teacher "ex quota" that is in addition to the normally allowed quota of teachers in the school. These schools may also second on full salary, a teacher for training if they have difficulty in recruiting a trained guidance teacher. Guidance Teachers spend twelve hours a week on guidance work and three of these hours are spent on group guidance work.

### Co-Ordination of Guidance Services

The work of the guidance teachers in the schools is monitored and co-ordinated by 20 psychologists working in the Department of Education (a ratio of 1 psychologist to 13 teachers) and by 4 psychologists working under the City of Dublin Vocational Education Committee. (A ratio of 1 psychologist to 6 teachers.) All schools are expected to provide a guidance suite and all new schools being built include such a suite. Schools are refunded approximately 75% of the cost of purchasing test materials.

### Methods Used in Guidance

(i) Observation and Record Keeping:

This is the core of any effective pupil guidance system. Co-operation and involvement of all teachers is essential for the effective gathering of pupil records, and many guidance teachers use the opportunity for feedback to teachers of information about pupils as a valuable means of establishing support and involvement in guidance work.

(ii) Testing:

Psychological and other tests have a valuable part to play in providing information to pupils about themselves. Irish norms on

foreign standardised tests are being devised and used increasingly.

(iii) Counselling:

This is the key intervention skill. The current approach would best be described as eclectic, though training tends to be in the formal counselling disciplines. The use of groups in counselling is growing also and the general movement would seem to be away from the old image of the guidance teacher or counsellor, on his own, counselling the individual, towards a more participatory role using a variety of techniques and drawing more on the resources of the rest of the staff and pupils. The emphasis is both on causing the school to provide the kind of experience which will help the pupil and on helping the pupil to behave so as to evoke informative response from the school.

(iv) Career Education:

This, currently fashionable, term includes job information, career literature and the traditional information-giving aspects of the Guidance Teachers' role. However, these activities are only part of the broader, more activist, concept of career education which attempts to prepare the pupil for work and adulthood through a variety of learning techniques, such as small group activity, role playing and industrial visitation as well as classroom learning.

(v) Liaison with other members of staff:

As has been mentioned earlier, the work of record keeping implies that other teachers would work with the guidance teacher to make information available about their experience with pupils. Other aspects of the school's provision would also require the cooperation of many members of staff, including the guidance teacher. Foremost

amongst these would be the special needs of disadvantaged pupils, slow learners and poorly motivated students. The guidance teacher, working closely with the remedial teacher, has a particular role to play in suggesting reality based programmes and in closely monitoring each individual's progress through the school.

#### Resources:

In addition to the resources of personnel (psychologists and guidance teachers) and of physical accommodation for the guidance function, there are two institutes which offer training facilities for guidance teachers viz University College Dublin which initiated a one year post graduate Diploma in Career Guidance in 1967 and which trains about 50 teachers per annum and the Mater Dei Institute which in 1972 began its Diploma in Guidance and Counselling. This is a one year course for serving teachers and it qualifies up to 40 teachers per annum. In addition, the Department of Education has organised in-service training courses for teachers to supplement the numbers qualifying through the wholetime courses.

The Department of Labour has developed through the National Manpower Service, a Placement Service which will have an increasing guidance function and already, six qualified guidance officers have been recruited to launch the service. The professional guidance work of these officers will be monitored by psychologists, employed by the Department of Labour. It is intended that this service will be available to adults seeking new employment who find it difficult to make a choice of satisfying work.

One estimate of the financial resources required to mount a guidance

service to school goers was made by an Advisory Committee on Pupil Guidance which reported in 1971. Its estimates are given in Appendix 4 based on 1970 costs.

### 1.5 Achievements and Results

It is difficult to review an activity which started in the 1960's at this stage. Vocational guidance and training have longer term results and it is difficult to point to immediate results. This can, however, be done in terms of structures, resources, techniques and climate for change.

Structures: There are now training resources which have been referred to. Staff have been recruited and expertise is being developed and concentrated. Research has been launched which will in time enrich both the training and the field work. People involved in guidance and training now see developing career patterns and are motivated to remain in the fields. People who started in the two services of guidance and training have been promoted both within education and industrial training. Consequently, they can influence decisions which will expedite further growth and development.

Resources: Physical resources have been provided and are being expanded. This gives an identifiable location to the two functions.

Techniques: Instruments are being developed such as tests suitable for use in Ireland. Such basic work is fundamental and will improve confidence in the services.

Climate: The climate is one of greater acceptance. This is partially because people see some success but it is also being helped by reports etc. such as The Report on the Status of Women. This is being used as a charter for change.

Other results are caused by a multiplicity of social, technological and

economic factors and can be seen in patterns of employment as shown in Appendix 5.

2. Analysis of Difficulties, Obstacles and Problems:

2.1 and 2.2 Difficulties and the causes.

Some of the anomalies inherent in the description of the organisation of both guidance and training of women workers arise out of attitudes, some out of structures, perhaps shaped by the attitudes and some are simply deficiencies. In relation to deficiencies the question is not satisfactorily answered as yet as to what is a viable case load for a trainer, for a vocational guidance officer, for a placement officer or for a psychologist. Also research has not as yet given us an entirely satisfactory answer to the type of background from which a vocational guidance officer should be recruited? A teacher's background is good in educational guidance. Is it best for vocational guidance?

Should the same conditions prevail in a training situation as prevail in industry? Some will answer yes but some will say that such conditions are not in the best interest of inducing habits of accuracy and concern for quality. This leads to a wider question about the extent to which school experience should reflect real life situations. How related are our school and training programmes to life in industry?

In Ireland there has always been a high level of unemployment.

Unemployment ran at 7% even when job opportunities were best in the early '70's. How meaningful is vocational guidance in such a context? How meaningful is a very specific training programme which fails to give a versatility to the trained.

In relation to institutional difficulties is the work of the various

services well co-ordinated e.g. placement and guidance, inter-departmental co-ordination is often lacking e.g. are school programmes influenced by what the Department of Labour knows about the requirements of of industry.

Attitudes create more difficulties than training or training deficiencies, The belief that woman's place is in the home influences the school programme. Perceptions of "female inability" at mathematics also colours her education. Such perceptions limit her exposure to science as a subject. The old view of the female female, could not allow her to take metalwork or woodwork as a subject at school while the patterns of employment shown in Appendix 5 show a great bias against factory employment. These attitudes run deep in Irish society and deepest in the homes which exercise the major influence.

### 3. Solutions and Proposals:-

#### 3.1 Solutions and Tried Results:-

The vocational guidance given by the teachers must be influenced by the value system of the teachers. Teachers to-date in Ireland have been mainly recruited from middle and higher income groups. When teachers have been recruited into vocational guidance, who have been trained under the university grants scheme, there will be a greater liklihood of more positive attitudes towards the full spectrum of employment possibilities and this will influence attitudes to school subjects and to jobs.

Also, teachers opting into guidance should be asked as a necessary part of their training to work in industry or people in industry should be recruited into teaching. Unless either of these alternatives operate, it is difficult to see an adequate image of industrial life being given



to the prospective worker. Teachers recruited from industry were more successful in giving an image of industry.

### 3.2 Possible and Desirable Solutions:

After a certain age, maybe 16/17 years, is it wise that all attendance at school should be wholetime attendance.

Is there a case for statutory entitlement to day release for a specified number of days over a special number of years, which would enable further education to be acquired, together with work experience upon which a more valid choice of career could be made.

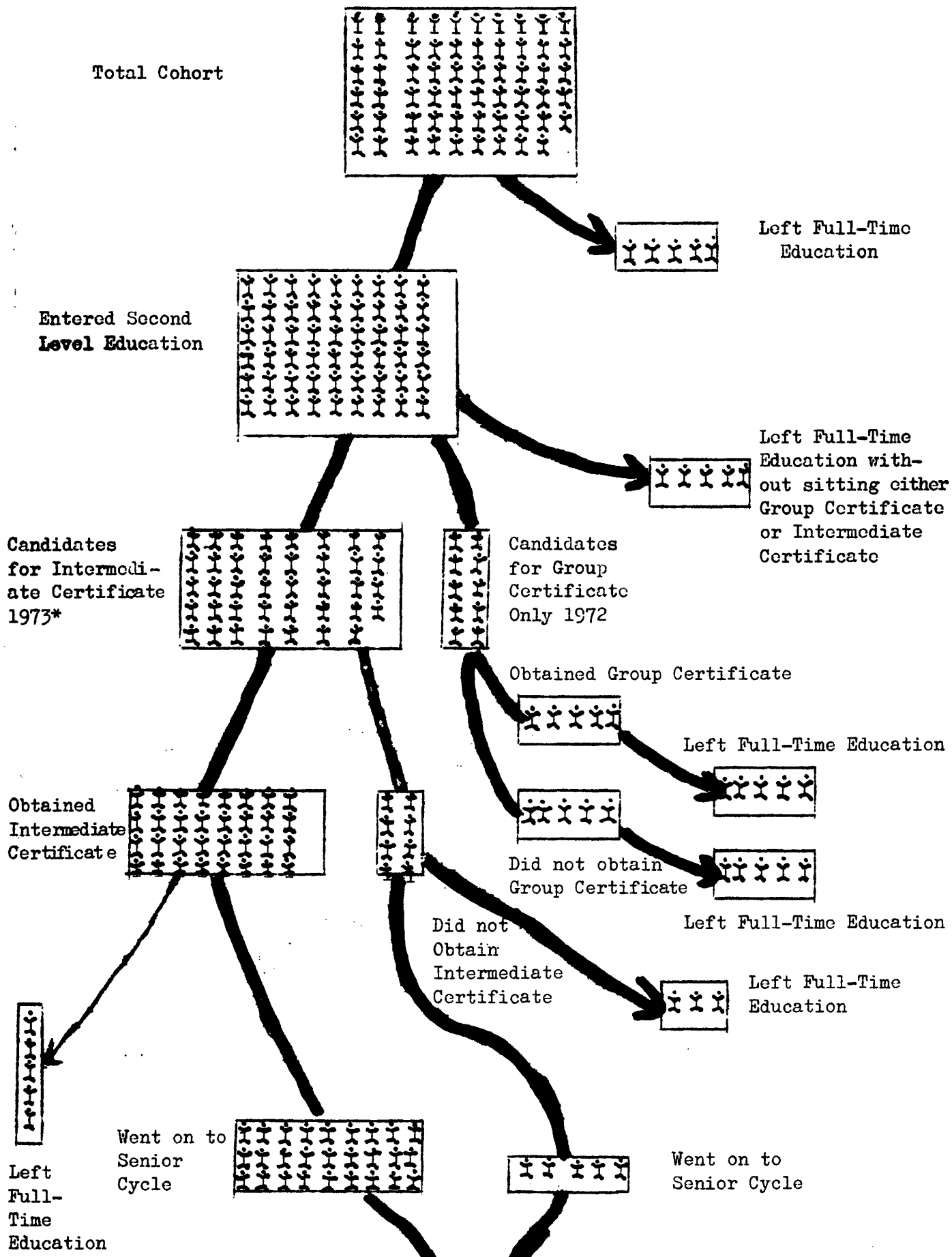
### 3.3 Prospects and Proposals:

It is suggested that any further extension of a statutory requirement to attend school on the part of all youth will create more difficulties than it will solve.

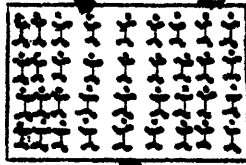
Let a youth decide after a certain age to attend as a wholetime, or part-time student if this is what motivates. The work experience will give a reality to the whole experience.

APPENDIX I

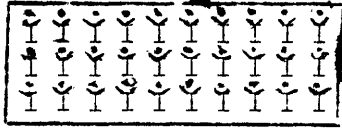
COHORT ANALYSIS - 1972 GROUP CERT. - 1973 INTER. CERT.



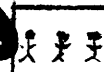
Total who  
went on to  
Senior Cycle



\*Includes Approximately  
8,000 Students who were  
also Candidates for Group  
Certificate 1972



Expected  
to sit  
Leaving Certificate



Expected to leave  
Full-Time Educ-  
ation without  
sitting Leaving  
Certificate

★ = 1,000 Students

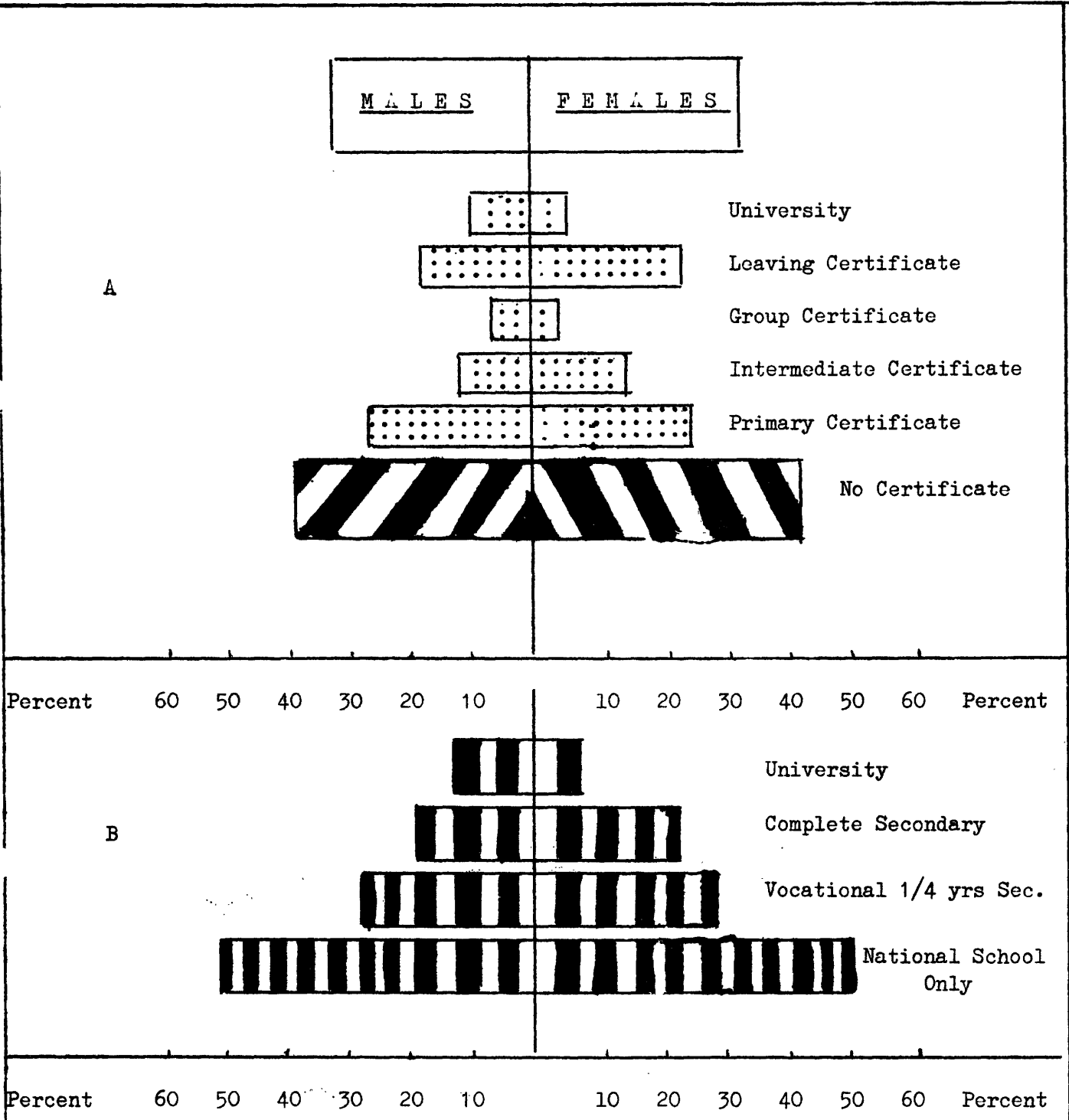


Figure 3: Education by Sex

A = Highest Educational Award Received

B = Highest Educational Level Reached

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APPENDIX III

EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS FOR ENTRY TO CRAFT APPRENTICESHIP

DAY GROUP CERTIFICATES

The minimum standard required is Grade D in all subjects, with the exception of Woodwork and Metalwork for which Grade C is required.

---

ENGINEERING AND ELECTRICAL

Four subjects

1. Woodwork or Metalwork
  2. Mechanical Drawing
  3. Irish and English
  4. Mathematics or Art or Rural Science
- 

FURNITURE

Three subjects one of which shall be Woodwork or Metalwork and one Mechanical Drawing or Art.

---

MOTOR

Four subjects

1. Woodwork or Metalwork
  2. Mechanical Drawing or Art
  3. Irish or English
  4. Mathematics or Rural Science
-

BUILDING

CARPENTER AND JOINER, SLATER AND ROOFER

Three subjects

1. Woodwork or Metalwork
2. Irish or English
3. Mathematics or Mechanical Drawing

BRICK AND STONELAYER

Three subjects

1. Woodwork or Metalwork
2. Irish or English
3. Mathematics or Mechanical Drawing

GLAZIER, PAINTER AND DECORATOR, PLASTERER, STONECUTTER

Three subjects

1. Woodwork or Metalwork
2. Irish or English
3. Mathematics or Mechanical Drawing or Art

PLUMBER

Three subjects

1. Woodwork or Metalwork
2. Irish or English
3. Mathematics or Rural Science or Mechanical Drawing

WOOD MACHINIST

Three subjects one of which shall be Woodwork or Metalwork and  
one Mechanical Drawing or Art

---

---

PRINTING

COMPOSITOR

Four subjects one of which shall be Irish, one English and one Mathematics or a Science subject.

TRADES OTHER THAN COMPOSITOR

Four subjects one of which shall be Irish or English and one Mathematics or a Science subject.

---

DENTAL CRAFTSMAN

Four subjects

1. Irish or English
2. Mathematics or Rural Science
3. Mechanical Drawing or Art
4. Woodwork or Metalwork

---

INTERMEDIATE CERTIFICATE

The minimum standard required is Grade D in all subjects

---

ENGINEERING AND ELECTRICAL

Three subjects

1. Mathematics
  2. Irish or English
  3. Science (syllabus A or B)
-

FURNITURE

Three subjects of which one shall be Mathematics and one Irish or English

---

MOTOR

Four subjects

1. Mathematics
  2. Irish or English
  3. Science (Syllabus A or B) or Agricultural Science
  4. Art or Drawing
- 

BUILDING

CARPENTER AND JOINER, SLATER AND ROOFTILER

Three subjects of which one shall be Irish or English and one Mathematics or Drawing or Manual Training or Science

BRICK AND STONELAYER

Three subjects of which one shall be Irish or English and one Mathematics or Drawing or Manual Training or Science.

GLAZIER, PAINTER AND DECORATOR, PLASTERER, STONECUTTER

Three subjects of which one shall be Irish or English and one Mathematics or Drawing or Manual Training or Science

PLUMBER

Three subjects of which one shall be Irish or English and one Mathematics or Drawing or Manual Training or Science



WOOD MACHINIST

Three subjects one of which shall be Irish or English and  
one Mathematics

---

PRINTING

COMPOSITOR

Four subjects one of which shall be Irish, one English and  
one Mathematics or Science (Syllabus A or B)

TRADES OTHER THAN COMPOSITOR

Four subjects one of which shall be Irish or English and  
one Mathematics or Science (Syllabus A or B)

---

DENTAL CRAFTSMAN

Four subjects one of which shall be Irish or English and  
one Mathematics or Science or Agricultural Science

---

THE COST OF A PUPIL GUIDANCE SERVICE +

The cost\* of the service can best be considered under two headings:

(a) Cost of personnel and (b) Cost of training.

(a) Cost of Personnel

(The Committee recommends that schools of over 400 pupils should employ a full-time guidance counsellor and that counsellors in all other schools should spend at least half of their time on pupil guidance). The cost of the loss of teaching power may be estimated as;

$$\begin{array}{r} \times 100 \times 1,500 = \text{£}150,000 \\ + 800 \times 1,000 = \text{£}800,000 \\ \hline \text{£}950,000 \end{array}$$

It should be noted that this sum of c. £1m. assumes full replacement of teaching power by qualified, experienced teachers. It is unlikely that schools would wish to replace the teaching power loss in all cases, or that the Department would approve. Even taking 20% replacement, it will be seen that the replacement cost is of the order of £200,000.

NOTE: Costs of psychological and other support services are not included, nor are the administrative costs.

(b) Cost of Training

Following on the Committee's recommendations, two alternative teacher training schemes are examined:

(i) Full-time training, (ii) part-time in-service training.

While these are alternative methods of training, it will be recalled that both are advocated by the Committee, the former as a long term aim and the latter as a short term solution to the demands for personnel.

\*These estimates are based on 1970 costings

<sup>x</sup>100 represents approximate number of schools with 400 or more pupils.

£1,500 represents average cost per counsellor.

<sup>+</sup>800 represents approximate number of schools with less than 400 pupils.

£1,000 represents average cost per counsellor assuming an average time allocation to guidance of 2/3 teaching time.

(i) 1 Year Course

Training (ex. board) approx.	£ 350/student
Board	£ 120/student
Replacement cost <sup>+</sup>	£1, 000/student
	<hr/>
	£1, 470/student
	<hr/>
Cost of training 100 teachers	£147,000

(ii) Part-Time Training (In-Service)

Costs depend on length of programme.

Maximum economies are obtained with 3 x 1 term training.

(I) 3 x 1 term 2 day release

Training	£350/student
Board	£ 60/student
	<hr/>
	£410/student
	<hr/>

Cost of training 100 teachers £41,000

(3 x 1 terms)

(II) 1 Term Training 2 Day Release

Training*	£200/student
Board	£ 20/student
	<hr/>
	£220/student
	<hr/>

Cost of training 100 teachers £22,000 (1 term)

It will be seen from above that lengthening the training programme, provided the teacher remains in service, does not cause cost to rise proportionately.

It will also be seen that, if replacement costs are not included in case (i), (1 year full-time training), the difference between it and (ii) (1), (3 x 1 term in-service training), is only

(a) 1 year full-time training (exc. replacement)	£ 470 x 100
(b) 3 x 1 term 2 day release	£ 410 x 100
	<hr/>
	£6,000
	<hr/>

It might well be argued that the educational advantages would outweigh this relatively small saving.

<sup>†</sup>Teacher is out of the school for a year

Assume replacement by newly qualified teacher.

\*Assume faculty retained full time and 1st, 2nd and

3rd term Courses running.

+ From Advisory Committee on Pupil Guidance Report 1971.

## Women at Work

The tables that follow giving statistical data on women at work in the Republic have been taken or derived from various reports of the five-yearly Census of Population compiled by the Central Statistics Office.

The number of women in gainful employment as returned at the 1971 Census of Population was 278,300, of whom 65,100 or 23% were engaged in manufacturing industries, 46,400 or 16½% in distribution, 25,500 or 9% in agriculture and 13,900 or 5% in domestic service. The remaining 127,400 working women were engaged in the various professions and in other services.

Over the forty-five years 1926 to 1971, there were major changes in the distribution of women at work in the main sectors. The number of women engaged in agriculture dropped by 96,600, or by about four-fifths, while the numbers employed in domestic service fell by 61,700, or by more than four-fifths.

### 1. Women at work in main sectors 1926 and 1971

	1926	1971	Change	%
Agriculture	122,100	25,500	-96,600	-79
Manufacturing	31,400	65,100	+33,700	+107
Distribution	39,800	46,400	+6,600	+17
Domestic service	75,600	13,900	-61,700	-82
Other services, etc.	60,500	127,400	+66,900	+111
<b>Total</b>	<b>329,400</b>	<b>278,300</b>	<b>-51,100</b>	<b>-16</b>

On the other hand, the number of women employed in manufacturing industries rose by 33,700 to 65,100 in 1971 which was more than double the number in 1926. The number employed in services (other than distribution and private domestic service) increased by 66,900 to 127,400, which was also more than double the 1926 level. Overall, there was a drop of 16% in the number of women at work over this quarter of a century.

### 2. Women at work classified by employment status 1951 and 1971

	1951		1971	
		%		%
Employers and self-employed	57,800	18	32,000	15
Assisting relative	34,500	11	8,100	3
Employees	222,600	71	238,300	86
Private domestic service	48,400	15	13,900	5
Others	174,200	55	224,400	81
<b>Total at work</b>	<b>314,900</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>278,300</b>	<b>100</b>

April-June, 1975

The vast majority of women (86%) in gainful employment in 1971 were employees. Over the twenty years 1951 to 1971, the number of self-employed women and women who were assisting relatives (mainly in farming) fell from 29% of the total number of women at work, to 18%. Domestic servants represented 15% of women at work in 1951 and 5% in 1971. Accordingly, the number of women employees other than domestic servants rose from 55% of the total in 1951 to 81% in 1971.

The main occupational groups in which women were working in 1971 are set out in Table 3. It will be seen that the biggest numbers of women (67,100 or 23% of the total) were employed as clerical workers. A further 50,700 or 18% were employed as professional and technical workers and 50,300 or 17% as service workers. The number of women at work in the production or making of goods, 44,400, represented 15% of the total while women distributive workers numbered 35,600 or 12% of the total.

### 3. Women (14 years and over) classified by occupational group 1971

		%
Clerical workers	67,100	23
Professional and technical workers	50,700	18
Service workers	50,300	17
Producers, makers	44,400	15
Distributive workers	35,600	12
Agricultural workers	25,300	9
Other gainfully occupied workers	14,400	5
<b>Total gainfully occupied</b>	<b>287,900</b>	<b>100</b>

Thus, roughly speaking, about one in four women workers was in a clerical occupation, about one in five was a professional or technical worker, one in six was a service worker, one in seven was engaged in production and one in eight was a distributive worker.

Table 4 shows in more detail the occupations in which women were working in 1961 and 1971. The main changes over this ten-year period were the relatively big increases in the number of women clerks (+51%), typists (+32%), teachers (+32%) and nurses (+28%). There were relatively large decreases in the number of women agricultural workers (-40%) and maids (-36%) between 1961 and 1971. Overall, there was only a marginal rise in the number of women at work over this period.

4. Women classified by occupations 1961 and 1971

	1961	1971	Change	%
Clerical workers	46,300	67,100	+20,800	+ 45
Clerks	31,900	48,100	+16,200	+ 51
Typists	14,400	19,000	+ 4,600	+ 32
Professional workers	42,100	51,600	+9,500	+ 23
Medical workers	14,700	18,800	+ 4,100	+ 28
Teachers	11,300	14,900	+ 3,600	+ 32
Nuns	13,300	13,100	- 200	- 2
Service workers	60,900	50,300	-10,600	- 17
Maids	32,000	20,500	-11,500	- 36
Waitresses	4,800	5,600	+ 800	+ 17
Housekeepers	6,000	5,000	-1,000	- 17
Hairdressers	3,400	4,200	+ 800	+ 24
Office cleaners	3,300	4,200	+ 900	+ 27
Producers, makers	39,600	44,400	+ 4,800	+ 12
Distributive workers	38,700	35,600	- 3,100	- 8
Shop assistants	26,200	25,900	- 300	- 1
Proprietors	12,200	9,200	- 3,000	- 25
Agricultural workers	42,100	25,300	-16,800	- 40
Farmers	29,100	18,600	-10,500	- 26
Farmers' relatives	12,400	5,900	- 6,500	- 52
Other workers	16,900	13,700	- 3,200	- 19
Packers	8,600	8,000	- 600	- 7
<b>Total</b>	<b>286,600</b>	<b>287,900</b>	<b>+ 1,300</b>	<b>+0</b>

Well over four-fifths of working women in 1971 were in the eleven broad occupational groups listed in Table 5. It will be seen that the five main occupations were clerks (48,100), industrial occupations (44,400), shop assistants (25,900), maids (20,500), typists (19,000)—these five occupations covered over half (55%) of all women at work. (Clerks and typists account for about one in four women at work).

5. Main occupations of women 1971

		%
Clerks	48,100	17
Industrial occupations	44,400	15
Shop assistants	25,900	9
Maids	20,500	7
Typists	19,000	7
Medical workers	18,800	7
Farmers	18,600	6
Teachers	14,900	5
Nuns	13,100	5
Shop proprietors	9,200	3
Packers	8,000	3
<b>Total above occupations</b>	<b>240,500</b>	<b>84</b>
Other occupations	47,400	16
<b>Total</b>	<b>287,900</b>	<b>100</b>

The distribution of women at work in 1961 and 1971 classified by the industry in which they were engaged is shown in Table 6. The main

features of the table are the reductions in the number of women at work in agriculture (-39%) and in personal services (-24%) between 1961 and 1971 and the increases in the number of women at work in professional services, i.e. education and hospitals (+26%), public administration, banking and insurance.

6. Women at work classified by industry 1961 and 1971

	1961	1971	Change	%
Agriculture	42,100	25,500	-16,600	-39
Manufacturing industries	60,000	65,100	+ 5,100	+ 9
Textiles, clothing, footwear	31,800	30,900	- 900	- 3
Food, drink, tobacco	12,800	13,300	+ 500	+ 4
Electrical appliances, etc.	3,500	6,400	+ 2,900	+ 83
Paper, printing	5,300	5,100	- 200	- 4
Other manufacturing	6,600	9,300	+ 2,700	+ 41
Professional services	51,000	64,500	+13,500	+ 26
Hospitals	21,700	28,300	+ 6,600	+ 30
Education	18,400	23,300	+ 4,900	+ 27
Distribution	47,800	46,400	- 1,400	- 3
Personal services	49,500	37,700	-11,800	- 24
Domestic service	28,900	13,900	-15,000	- 52
Hotels, restaurants	10,600	13,800	+ 3,200	+ 30
Public administration	7,900	11,500	+ 3,600	+ 46
Banking, insurance	4,600	9,600	+ 5,000	+109
Postal, telephone services	4,400	5,500	+ 1,100	+ 25
Other industries	10,700	12,500	+1,800	+ 17
<b>Total at work</b>	<b>278,000</b>	<b>278,300</b>	<b>+300</b>	<b>+0</b>

The number of women employed in industry (whether in industrial or clerical occupations) grew slowly over the period by only 9% while the numbers engaged in the distributive trades fell slightly by 3%.

Of the 65,100 women working in manufacturing industry in 1971, 30,900 or 47% were in the textiles, clothing and footwear industries while a further 13,300 or 20% were in the food, drink and tobacco industries. There was thus a very high concentration of women in a limited number of industries in the manufacturing sector.

Table 7 gives the socio-economic classification of women gainfully occupied in 1971. Separate figures are shown for single women and for married and widowed women.

Under the classification used for census purposes, women in professional occupations in 1971 numbered 50,500 or 17% of the total.

April-June, 1975

Other non-manual women workers totalled 150,900 or 52% of the total. Only a minority of women workers were classified as being in manual occupations—61,800 or 21% of the total: about one in five of these were in skilled occupations and practically all the remainder in semi-skilled occupations.

7. Women gainfully occupied classified by socio-economic group 1971

	Single	Married and widowed	Total	%
Farmers, farmers' relatives	9,700	14,900	24,600	9
Higher professional	14,200	900	15,100	5
Lower professional	24,200	11,200	35,400	12
Employers, managers	1,200	2,300	3,400	1
Intermediate non-manual workers	86,400	15,800	102,200	35
Other non-manual workers	37,800	7,500	45,300	16
Skilled manual workers	10,700	2,100	12,800	4
Semi-skilled manual workers	37,600	9,100	46,000	16
Others	2,500	400	3,000	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>223,700</b>	<b>64,200</b>	<b>287,900</b>	<b>100</b>

The great preponderance of women who were gainfully employed in 1971 was in the younger age-groups. Details by age groups and by marital status are given in Table 8.

8. Women gainfully occupied classified by age group and marital status 1971

	Single	Married and widowed	Total	%
14-19	61,200	300	61,500	21
20-24	63,400	5,000	68,400	24
25-29	23,300	6,200	29,500	10
30-34	11,600	4,500	16,100	6
35-39	9,500	4,500	13,900	5
40-44	9,500	5,200	14,700	5
45-49	9,800	6,400	16,200	6
50-54	9,500	7,500	17,000	6
55-59	8,700	7,900	16,600	6
60-64	7,200	6,400	13,600	5
65 and over	10,000	10,200	20,300	7
<b>Total</b>	<b>223,700</b>	<b>64,200</b>	<b>287,900</b>	<b>100</b>

Of the 287,900 women at work, 129,900 or 45% were under 25 years of age. Only 30% were over 45 years of age. In the case of married and widowed women at work, however, the majority are in the older age groups: 38,400 out of 64,200 or 60%.

Table 9 shows for certain occupational groups

April-June, 1975

the numbers of women who were under 25 years of age. Two out of three textile and clothing workers were under 25 years, three out of five clerical workers, almost one in two distributive workers, two out of five service workers.

9. Women under 25 years in certain occupational groups 1971

	A under 25 years	B Total women	A as % of B
Clerical workers	39,700	67,100	59
Professional workers	14,300	50,700	28
Service workers	20,000	50,300	40
Distributive workers	16,700	35,600	47
Textile and clothing workers	16,400	24,600	67

The numbers of married women and widows gainfully occupied in 1961, 1966 and 1971 are given in Table 10. Between 1961 and 1966 there was a slight increase in the numbers of married women at work and a decrease in the number of widows (mainly in agriculture). Between 1966 and 1971, however, the number of married women working rose sharply by 52% from 25,800 to 39,200. The number of widows working again declined in this inter-censal period.

10. Married and widowed women gainfully occupied 1961, 1966 and 1971

	1961	1966	1971
Married	24,300	25,800	39,200
Widowed	33,100	27,900	25,000
<b>Total</b>	<b>57,400</b>	<b>53,700</b>	<b>64,200</b>

The numbers of married and widowed women gainfully occupied outside of agriculture was 45,600 in 1971.

There were only 2,600 women gainfully occupied in 1971 who had a scientific or technological qualification. Of these, 1,600 had qualifications in medical and related sciences, 900 in the natural sciences and 200 in the agricultural sciences, engineering and technology.

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Phase B - Problems on vocational guidance and training for women workers.

Topic: Initial training and basic vocational training.

(Rapporteurs: Mrs. Karen Dahlerup, Advisory officer,  
Mr. Palle Eisenhardt, Deputy Head of Section).

1. Analysis of the Situation.

1.1 The characteristic elements of the context.

The problems raised by the position of women in the educational system, their choice and pursuit of an education are aspects of the general complex of problems associated with the equality of the sexes. But they constitute such an important area within this complex that, - at any rate in the Scandinavian countries - educational policy is regarded as an important tool in the efforts to achieve equality; it is recognized that measures taken in this field are not sufficient in themselves, but it is felt that in any case they could be of great significance for the equality of the sexes in other areas of social activity (see the statement made by the Nordic Council of Ministers on this subject, below under 3.3).

In the Scandinavian countries, the equality of the sexes is just as much a question of living conditions for the man as for the woman, and is just as much a question of opportunities as of rights. In these countries both sexes enjoy equal rights before the law in nearly all spheres; in reality, however, the position of women in society does not fully correspond to their legal status. The role assigned to women in society in relation to the male role, cannot be said to line up to the demand that individuals should not be treated differently because of their sex. The information of the sexual role is not just determined by the formal regulations in the form of laws and rules governing members of society. The demand for actual and not just formal equality must be considered in the light of the fact that these regulations are by and large formulated in such a way that women and men have the same rights and obligations. The inequality is therefore principally to be found in the informal



demands and expectations made on women and men, and which collectively create the differences between the roles of the two sexes.

It was in the light of the above in 1965 the Danish Prime Minister appointed the Commission on the Position of Women in Society, which has submitted a number of reports over the last few years including the Report on Womens' Educational Problems (1968). Furthermore, on the recommendation of the Scandinavian ministers of culture and education, the Nordic Cultural Commission appointed a working party in 1969, which submitted the report "Könsroller och Utbildning (Sex roles and Education) in 1972. These reports are discussed in greater detail below under 3.3.

## 1.2 The legal and institutional context.

The laws and other regulations which govern education in Denmark, do not include special rules for women (or for men); in principle the sexes enjoy equal status.

### a. Initial training.

Initial training in Denmark comprises the Primary School, the Gymnasium and HF (the higher preparatory courses). Opportunities for initial training are also offered through the youth and leisure-time educational facilities.

There are 9 years compulsory education, which is usually catered for in the primary school, which has 10, and sometimes 11, class levels. In 1975 the Danish Parliament passed a new Act concerning the primary school, which comes into force in August 1976. In a number of subjects, the pupils will be able to choose between two courses for each subject, each with a different content, namely, a basic course and an extended course. The individual schools may however be granted permission not to undertake this division of courses.

After the 9th class the pupils can prepare themselves for the Primary School Leaving Examination in each individual subject, and after the 10th class, they can either prepare themselves for this examination or for an extended examination in the various subjects.

The parents' committee may allow a pupil to carry out his compulsory education by participation in some form of vocational training or employment, if special reasons demonstrate that this would be best for the pupil. This regulation applies from 1st August 1975.

The aim of the Gymnasium is to provide the pupil with an all-round education and a basis for further education. 20% of a class continue their school career after the primary school in a Gymnasium, about 60% coming after the 9th school year and the rest after the 10th year.

The Act concerning Gymnasium schools was passed in 1958; the latest revision of the law was made in 1970.

The Gymnasium offers a 3-year course in 2 streams, a mathematical and a linguistic stream. For the final two years these streams are further subdivided into 4 and 3 branches respectively, which however retain a number of subjects common to all branches of the stream.

At the end of the gymnasium course, a higher school-leaving examination called the "Studentereksamen" is taken, giving the right of admission to all higher education.

HF (the Higher Preparatory Diploma) was instituted by law in 1967. It is possible to take the HF by self-study, and to read up the material with guidance from one of the courses, but this is very demanding, and the examination requirements for some subjects are much more extensive than for students attending a course. The vast majority of HF students therefore choose to pursue their studies by participating in one of the 2-year HF courses run by the majority of gymnasium schools and some primary school teacher training colleges.

The purpose of the HF is to provide the students with the background of knowledge and appropriate study methods required for higher education.

HF is not really designed for young people coming straight from primary school, but is far more an offer to those who wish to return to the educational system after several years away.

By and large, HF gives access to the same forms of higher education as the "Studentereksamen".

Youth and leisure-time instruction includes continuation schools, local authority youth schools and preparatory courses for adults, which by and large all offer the same opportunity for preparatory education for examinations as the primary schools, but whose structure is different. In addition, the Folk High School must be mentioned. This is an old, independent type of Danish school. A folk high school is a boarding school, which offers adult students an all-round education. There are, at present, about 80 folk high schools in Denmark. The length of the courses may vary from a single week to a whole year, but in general, the courses tend to last 16 - 20 weeks. There can also be considerable age differences amongst the students, but they must be at least 17½ years old when the course begins. Some of the schools have set higher age limits e.g. 19, 20 or 21 years of age.

b. Basic Vocational Training.

The educational and school types described above under (a) all have one thing in common, that they are "all-round". Knowledge and skills

which are necessary or useful for further education are supplied, but they do not prepare the pupils for a specific trade.

Until recently, there was a sharp dividing line between general education and vocational training. Today, efforts are being made on all fronts to reduce this difference. More and more general subjects (languages, mathematics, social studies etc.) are being introduced in vocational training, and foundation or basic training courses are being introduced which are commonly applicable for a broader occupational field. All to prevent young people from getting boxed-in educationally too quickly. One should be able to delay specialization, and it should be possible to change directions or to take some form of further education without having to start from the beginning again.

The most comprehensive areas of basic vocational training are the apprenticeships and the EFG (the basic vocational training courses). There are also some important basic training facilities outside these fields, see more below.

The training of apprentices, also called "mesterlære" (master apprenticeship) is an old, traditional type of training, still utilized by many young people. A written agreement, known as articles of apprenticeship, is drawn up between the apprentice and his master. The Apprenticeship Act provides rules for the contents of these articles. The training may take between 2 and 4 years, and is carried out partially in companies and partially at technical or commercial schools. Many trades begin with a period at one of these schools. The training of apprentices falls into two main groups: trade and industry - shops, commerce and office.

The theoretical part of the training in the trade and industry group is carried out at the technical schools, and at the commercial schools for the shops, commerce and office branch, whose apprentices have to pass the commercial assistant exam as part of their training; it is not always easy to get an apprenticeship, and this applies in particular to the sphere of office work, and many employers prefer apprentices who have taken the commercial exam before they are apprenticed.

The commercial examination can be taken after one year at a number of commercial schools. There is a choice of 4 branches; general, book-keeping, languages, and shop-keeping.

The completion of an apprenticeship gives the right of admission to a number of further education courses.

EFG (the Basic Vocational Training Courses) are currently superseding the traditional apprenticeships. Already a few professional

training courses can only be pursued by attending the basic vocational training courses. The new training system differs from the traditional apprenticeship in several ways. The most significant of these is that the individual is not required to select his specific training straight away, since the first part consists of a foundation year which is common to all students who have chosen a particular field. Comprehensive information on all the types of training available within the chosen field is provided during the foundation year. Therefore only a broad field of interest has to be selected beforehand. Experiments are being carried out in the 7 following sectors - building and construction - the graphic industries - commercial and office work - iron and metal - agriculture - food industries - service industries.

In addition, an experiment is under preparation for a basic training course in the road transport sector, and several other sectors are being considered.

During the course of the foundation year the student selects a specialized area, and the training for this specific branch will continue and be completed in the second part of the course.

The total training period, that is, first and second part, will correspond in length to equivalent apprenticeships for these special trades. During the experimental period there may be certain "minor subjects" for which, after the foundation year, students will have to continue their chosen training as apprentices.

The first part, the foundation year, is held at a trade school, and this will normally mean a commercial or technical school. The second part will alternate between lessons at a trade school and practical experience in the field.

EFG will, just like apprenticeships, give access to a number of further education courses.

In addition to the apprentice and EFG training schemes, the following more important spheres of training can be mentioned: Short technical training courses, normally lasting 2 years (examples: laboratory assistant, technical assistant, textile technician training). Government service training within the Postal and Telecommunications Service and the State Railways; their structure reflects the apprenticeships to a certain extent. Training courses within the Health and Social Services taking 1 - 3½ years (examples: ergo and physiotherapy, nursing, welfare work and child care work). Training for teaching and informational spheres taking 3 - 4 years (examples: Kindergarten and youth-centre teaching, primary school teaching, journalism and librarianships). Training for agriculture, service at sea etc.

Finally, training schemes which are grouped under the heading of Labour Market Training must be mentioned. These include semi-skilled workers' training, retraining and further training for skilled workers. The first two types can be included in the category of basic vocational training, since they are arranged for people without prior educational qualifications in the specific area.

1.3 The population(s) concerned.

In the under 17-year old age group there are more girls than boys undergoing training; from then on the picture changes; in the 19-year old group, nearly half of all men, but only about one quarter of all *70 m. ca.* are still undergoing training. Just as many women as men take the "Studentereksamen", but considerably fewer women than men take an apprenticeship or a basic vocational training course.

The pattern of the sex roles is also reflected in type of training chosen, in that women rarely select technically biased subjects; they select mathematically, or scientifically biased subjects more frequently, but not nearly to the same extent as men; thus for example, only about 30% of the pupils in the mathematical stream of the gymnasium are women, whilst they comprise 70% of the pupils in the language stream. In initial vocational training, the majority of women are to be found in the food, beverages and tobacco industries, the textile and clothing industry, office subjects, and the social and health service.

1.4 Structures, methods and resources.

Initial training is predominantly theoretical. As mentioned above under 1.2 permission can however be given for a pupil to fulfill part of the compulsory education by participating in vocational training or employment. Furthermore, the new Primary School Act sees the introduction of a new subject called job-familiarization, which provides the pupils with the opportunity to gain practical experience in companies and institutions (during the final school years) to a far greater extent than has been possible previously.

The basic initial vocational training is both theoretical and practical.

The trend in developments is towards a delay in differentiation between training courses, thereby postponing the final and decisive choice; cf. an example of this is the foundation year in the new basic vocational training courses (see above under 1.2).

By and large all tuition is common to both sexes. Group work and methods which promote activity and independence have been introduced

in many places.

The text-books still largely bear the stamp of the traditional pattern of sex roles.

## 1.5 Results

The trend in developments, however slow, is towards greater equality of status and treatment for the sexes in the educational system. More and more women are obtaining an actual vocational training; however ideas about which direction the education of women should take and the scope they should cover (cf. above under 1.3) are hard to die.

The new basic vocational training courses (EFG) have however demonstrated that traditional patterns can be changed by education; they have contributed to a greater freedom in the choice of vocations, since the foundation year does much to neutralize the familiar patterns of selection which are determined by sex; in addition there appears to be a trend towards more girls continuing their training after the EFG than after the old apprenticeship training.

Corresponding structural alterations in other types of schools and education, more advanced teaching methods as well as the fact that the problem of the sex roles is discussed in class, all help to support the trends towards greater equality.

## 2. Analysis of the difficulties, obstacles, problems.

### 2.1 Analysis of the various points of the situation analysis (1.1 to 1.5 above).

A grave difficulty encountered when considering the problem of equality is that, despite general agreement that everybody should be equal, and also that women should be equal to men, the principle of equality does not in itself provide any directive for what concrete conditions must exist in order to ensure the equality of both sexes. Neither can it be expected that the parties involved in a particular situation will share a common experience of equality or inequality. In some areas the differences in the sex roles is in clear contradiction to any acceptable definition of justice, whilst in other areas differing interpretations can be expected to prevail.

As mentioned above under 1.1 there are no obstacles to actual equality of the sexes in laws or other official regulations on education. Such factors as special sex-conditioned expectations which can inhibit the desire of women to pursue an education, cannot however be altered by laws and directives.

A special problem affecting the progress of a woman's education is the interruption which is caused by childbirth and child-minding.

Even though the average marital age has dropped for both men and women, and both sexes stay at school longer, the narrowing of the time gap between school-leaving and marriage is more significant for girls than for young men. There are a few young men who have to interrupt an apprenticeship in order to get married - usually because they are about to become fathers - and who thus transfer to the ranks of the unskilled. For young male students, marriage and a family can become an incentive to complete their education as quickly as possible. Other norms usually apply to young girls today. A woman can contribute to the support of her family by her work in the home, and in many cases, the question of an outside job simply does not arise, in any case not during those years in which child-minding makes special demands. In other cases, the mother may wish to obtain work outside the home, but in this situation the problem of child-minding often proves difficult or impossible to solve satisfactorily.

The restricted admission for many short training courses presents a special problem for women, since fewer of them - as long as the situation remains as it is at present where they tend to select shorter training courses than men - will pursue a course of study than if there was unrestricted admission to all types of training.

Even though initial training is experiencing a slight trend in a positive direction, it must be recognized that the school still largely operates on the premisses of the society and thereby can contribute to the preservation of the prevalent interpretation of the sex roles.

## 2.2 Study and thought on the causes.

An extensive study of the significance of sex roles and the sex-determined differences in the educational system and in society as a whole has been carried out in recent years. It will not be possible to reproduce the results of the research and investigations in detail in this account. Therefore, only some of the more general features of the problem being worked on and its causes will be touched on.

In all societies, the sex-roles are determined by tradition. It is not possible to establish which areas of female and male behaviour are solely due to biological differences, since it is not possible to exclude social influence when carrying out experiments with people. But there is a close connection between the division of labour between men and women in a given society and the sex roles which men

and women are expected to live up to in that society. Even though there may be widely different behavioural variants, a generalization must tend towards the conclusion that, since childbirth limits the mobility of women more than men, at least for some periods of time, it will be part of the female role for women to substantially take on the activities connected with the care and up-bringing of children and in general to carry out duties which can take place in or near the home. Industrialization and the consequent urbanization of society affected the traditional division of labour between men and women in the partially self-sufficient family units, where each of the sexes put in their share of work in different spheres, and lived in harmony with each other, even if the man did play the principal role. Industrialization and the ensuing economy of money slowly changed the role of woman from being largely producers to being largely consumers and this has brought about a change in the balance of power, and an intensification in the difference between the male and female roles. The continuing increase in industrialization and urbanisation in our time, and the subsequent increase in the use of the manpower reserve in married women, has caused an approximation of the sex roles.

The fact that the norms of society have laid greater emphasis on the education of boys and men than of girls and women, is probably related to the fact that the justice or equality point of view could not make itself felt in a society in which the economic conditions set very narrow limits for the number of children who could receive an education. One clung to the idea that apparently less advantage could be derived from the education of girls, who often gave up their jobs when they got married. There is still a widespread belief that the education of girls is far less important than that of boys, and boys are therefore more often encouraged to qualify themselves professionally. It is easier to pursue a course of study when one encounters sympathy and understanding than if one comes up against the belief that one's education is a luxury and at worst, a waste of time.



### 3. Solutions and proposals

#### 3.1 Solutions tried - results

It has emerged from the above that the problems associated with girls' and womens' choice and accomplishment of an education are by no means solved, and only very limited concrete results can be demonstrated.

However, certain possible solutions and results have been indicated under 1.5 above, which are reflected in the statistics on female participation in and completion of training.

#### 3.2 Possible and desirable solutions

The desired goal has been clearly formulated by the Minister of Education, Ritt Bjerregaard: "Real equal educational opportunities for both sexes must be created in all types of schools and of all levels." (The Education Journal, no. 5a/1975). This implies that neither the direction nor the scope of education should be sex-determined.

Despite a widespread agreement in principle with this point of view, it would hardly be realistic to expect that this philosophy will be translated into action in its entirety straight away. It is however probable that the development will be accelerated by the fact that both men and women are currently being made aware of these problems. The first step has been taken by really becoming aware of the problems and investigating them from every angle in order to find ways of solving them.

#### 3.3 Prospects and proposals

As mentioned above under 1.1, in 1965 the prime minister appointed the Commission on the Position of Women in Society, which has submitted a number of reports over the last few years, including one of the educational problems for women (1968). The most important sections, opinions and recommendations contained in these reports have been summarized in the Commission's final report, The Report on the Position of Women in Society (1974), which also reproduces the comments made by the authorities and others to whom the proposals have been submitted. The length of this present account precludes a detailed discussion of the many proposals and recommendations made in the report, and it is therefore enclosed as an annex.

The Könscroller och Utbildning report (Sex-roles and Education) likewise mentioned under 1.1, contains 70 recommendations, all aiming at the promotion of sexual equality in education. Taking this

report as its point of departure the Nordic Council of Ministers (ministers of education and culture) made the following statement in 1974, on the significance of educational policy for equality between women and men:

Equal rights, equal status.

The general goal for all educational policy should include an aspiration towards equal rights and equal status. By this is meant equal rights and obligations, and equal opportunities to make a contribution in the working world, in the family and in society as a whole.

Freedom of choice.

The Scandinavian should take measures at all levels of the educational system, which will make it increasingly more possible for people to choose an education, job or adult role, which is not limited by sexually conditioned expectations.

The authorities should harmonize laws and other regulations with the declared goal of equality, through the evaluation of resources, priorities etc, dimensional and localizational plans etc, the form and content of school and college curricula, the presentation of tuition and teaching aids, and the various types of financial support for students etc.

Co-education

One of the prerequisites for a freedom to choose is that all schools are open to both male and female students, and that there is co-education in all subjects.

Joint effort

The curricula in all types of schools and at all levels of education should stress that successful human interaction in the job situation, the social circle, the family, in political bodies etc, is a question of the joint effort of men and women as equal partners. This means that the social studies are very important subjects in all branches of education and training.

Study and vocational guidance

Study and vocational guidance, other tuition and social scholastic activity should actively work for a break with notions and habits which cause an imbalance between men and women in terms of social conditions, professions and working life. In its contacts with the business community and the administration, study and vocational

guidance should also work for a reduction in the tradition-bound choice of employment or practical training by young people. The importance of a good vocational training for both sexes should be emphasized. The trade organisations also have a great responsibility.

#### Variety of educational opportunities

Even where men and women formally enjoy equal access to education, there are branches and courses which have traditionally always had exclusively or almost exclusively male or female participants. In view of the need to create the greatest variety of educational opportunities for both men and women, and to avoid exclusively male or female dominated educational or working environments, more applicants of the sex which is represented in the minority, should be sought. During the transitional phase, measures should also be taken to increase the admissions to a training course for the minority sex. These measures must not however weaken the attention paid towards the underlying reasons behind the existing anomalies.

#### Some conditions

Adult education, whatever its functional purpose may be, should also aim at addressing its conditions to men and women equally.

It is precisely now that it is important for the adult educational field to lay emphasis on vocational training for housewives who wish to go out to work - something which could also contribute to reducing the educational gaps between the generations.

#### Teaching material

Teaching material in schools should be based on equality of the sexes. The educational authorities should provide the producers of teaching material and the censors with information and guidance on the problem of equality. It should be possible to utilize this comprehensive data through Scandinavian co-operation.

#### The education of teachers

A prerequisite for being able to carry out a programme of equalization in schools is that teachers and future teachers, as well as the principal and the social staff in schools, at all levels and for all subjects, should acquire a knowledge in this field. Special emphasis should be laid on training in methodology and other areas which help the staff to integrate the treatment of these questions in their daily work.

It would be desirable if a basic course on the problems of the sex roles were to be offered at University level, which could be used for a wider range of studies.

#### Co-operation with the parents

Various forms of information for and co-operation with the parents are just as important. The appropriate authorities in consultation with the educational authorities should arrange schemes for parents-to-be and parents of infants and other children.

It is particularly important for the parents of pre-school children, the staff of kindergarten schools and the staff of the junior classes of the compulsory school system to consult each other about how to prevent the children consolidating the traditional concepts of what is suitable for boys and girls.

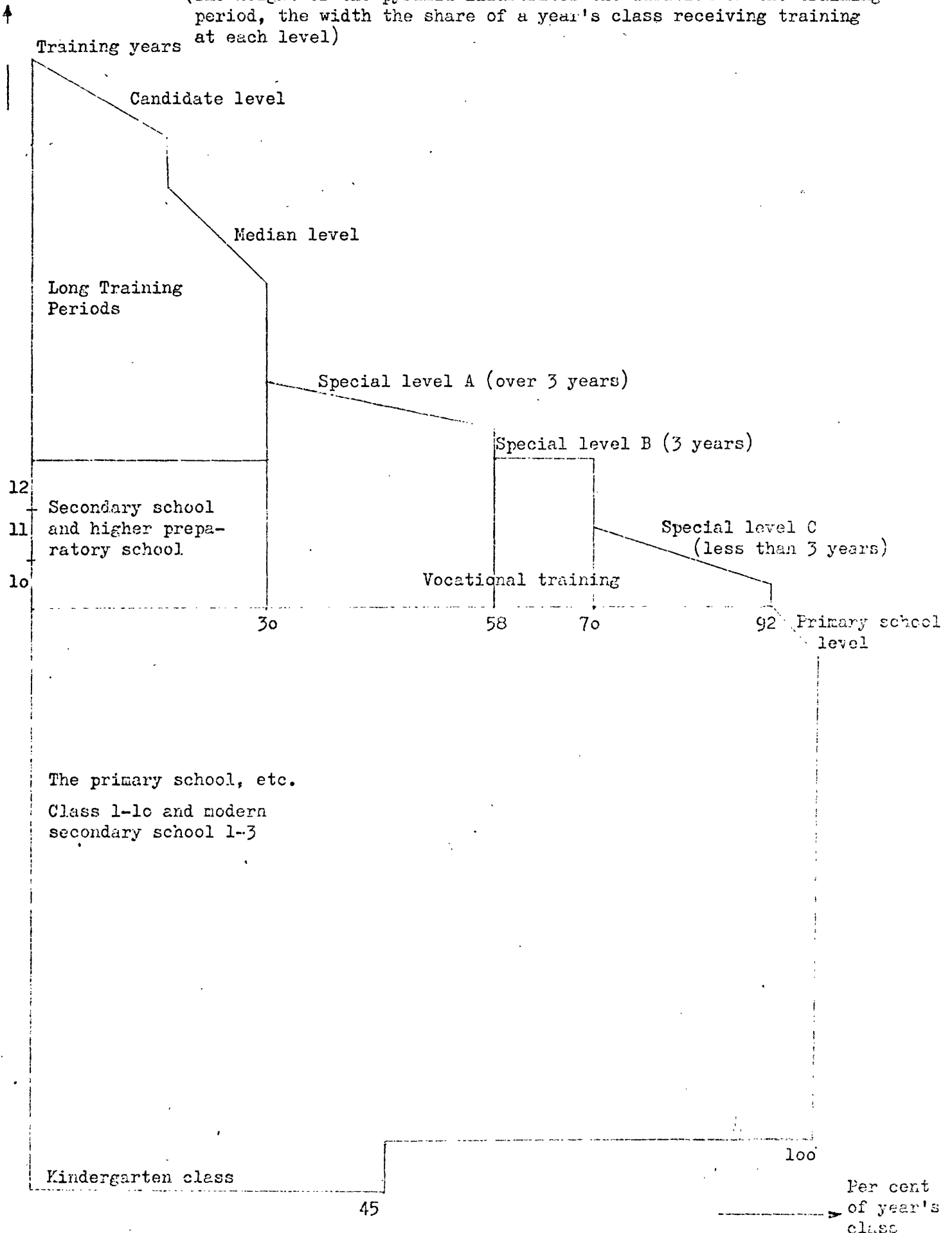
#### Problems to be solved

Finally it must be underlined that the Council of Ministers is well aware of the limited effect all these suggested measures will have if the problems of social policy as a whole, such as hours of work, the planning of housing areas in relation to the place of work, child-minding facilities, leave of absence also for fathers when children are sick etc, remain unresolved. All measures in all these areas, should aim at making it possible for everyone, regardless of sex, to participate in working life, in the care of the home and family, and in cultural, political and other social activities, to an equal extent. In this connection, education is one of the weightiest factors. A co-operation with other authorities and institutions, without whose contribution a real equality between women and men cannot be achieved, should be sought within the framework of the Scandinavian co-operation.

Finally, it must be mentioned that in September 1975, the Prime Minister's Department appointed a Council for Equality of Status to promote equality between women and men in the home, in education and training, on the labour market and in society.

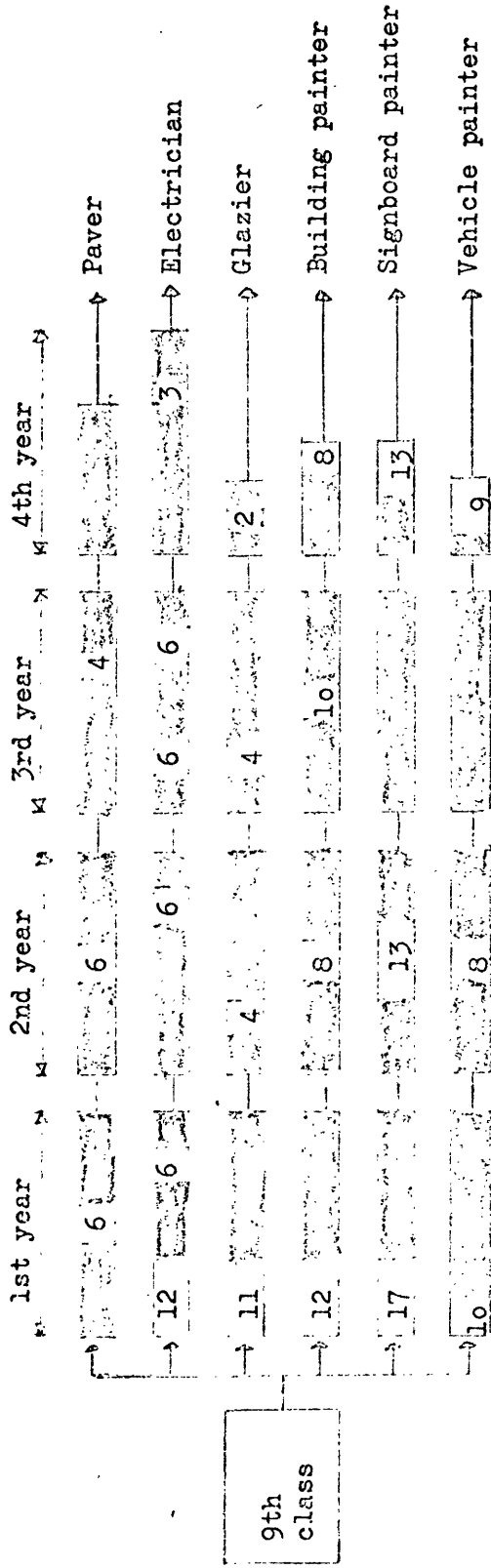
Schematic Training Pyramid (1972-73)

(The height of the pyramid illustrates the duration of the training period, the width the share of a year's class receiving training at each level)



(Source: Perspective Plan Review, 1972-1987. Copenhagen, 1973.)

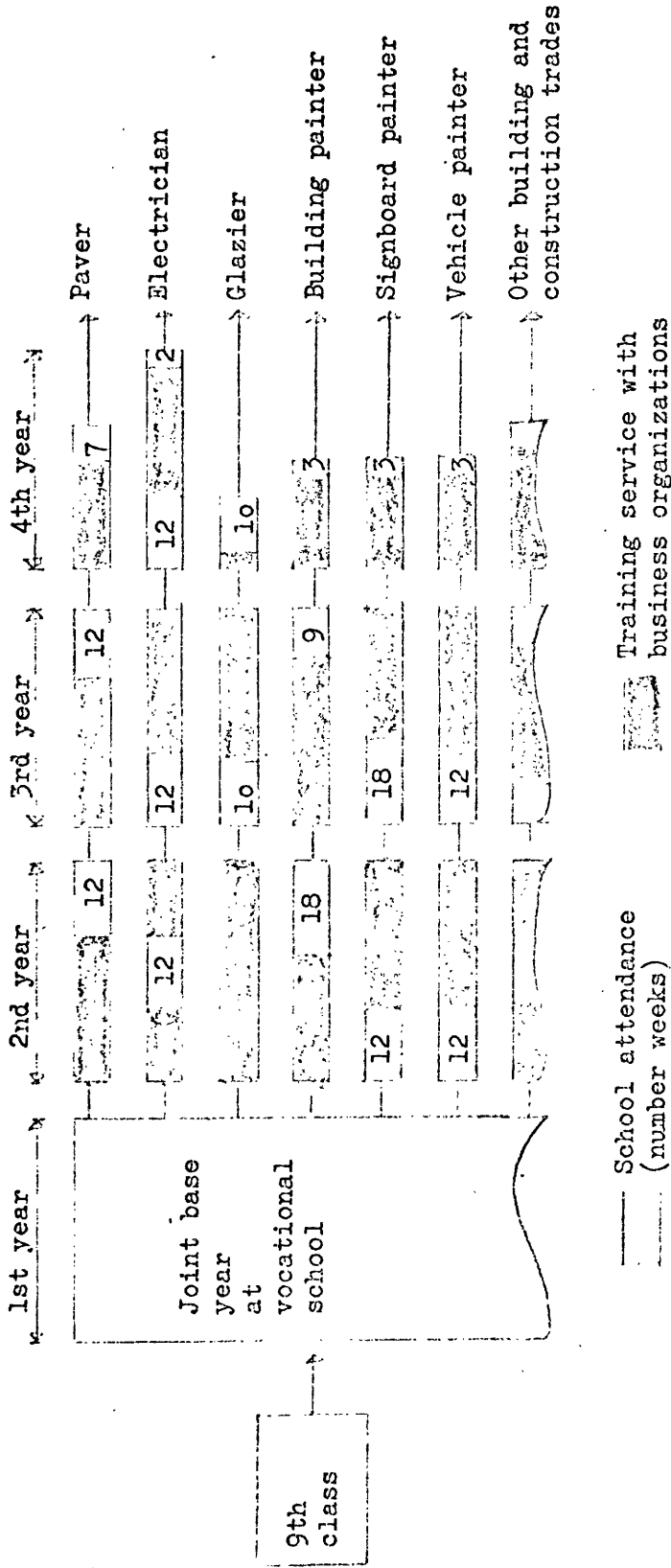
Examples of apprentice training



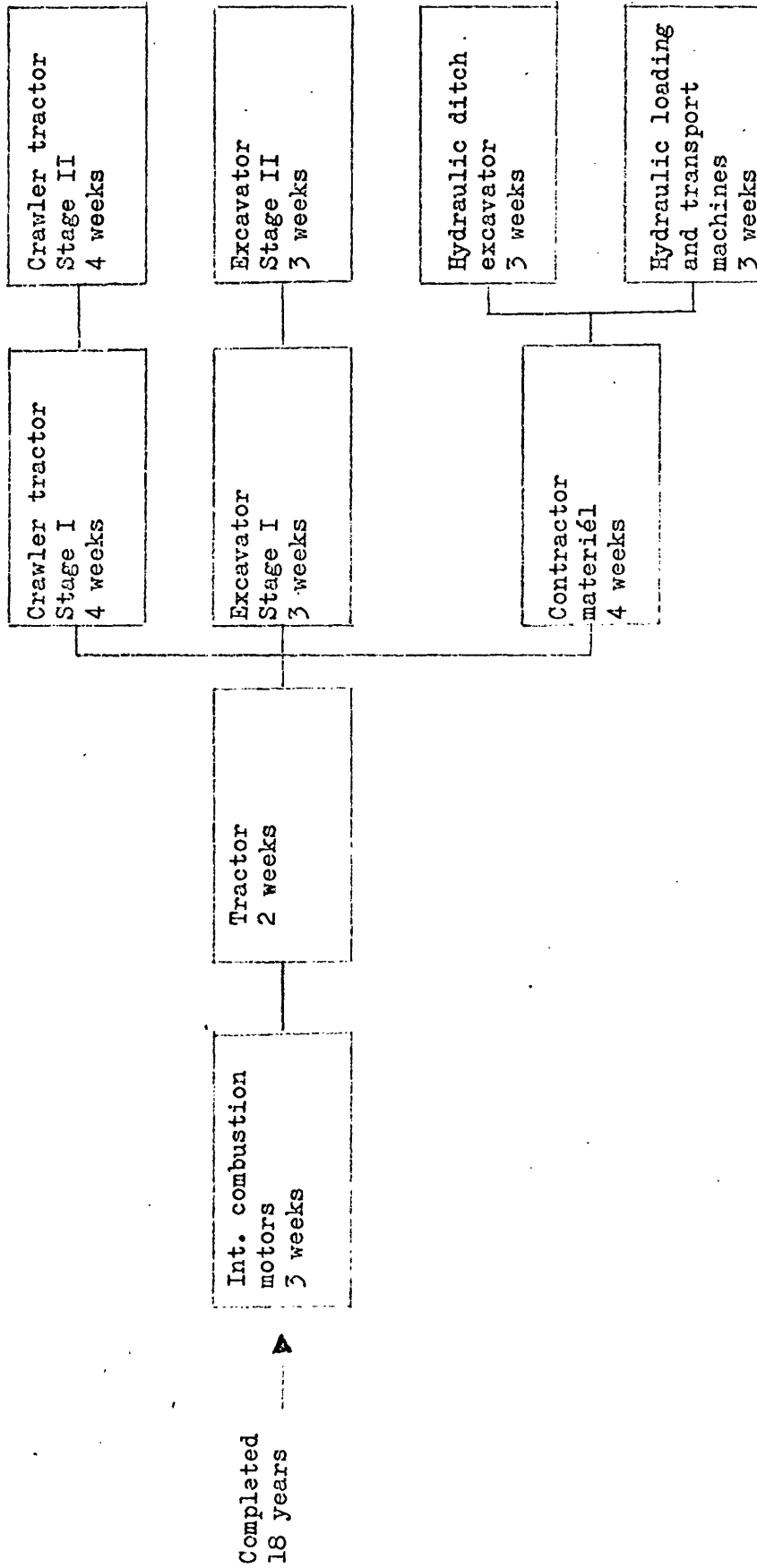
School attendance  
 (number weeks)

Practical work during  
 apprenticeship

Example of EFG-training (building and construction)



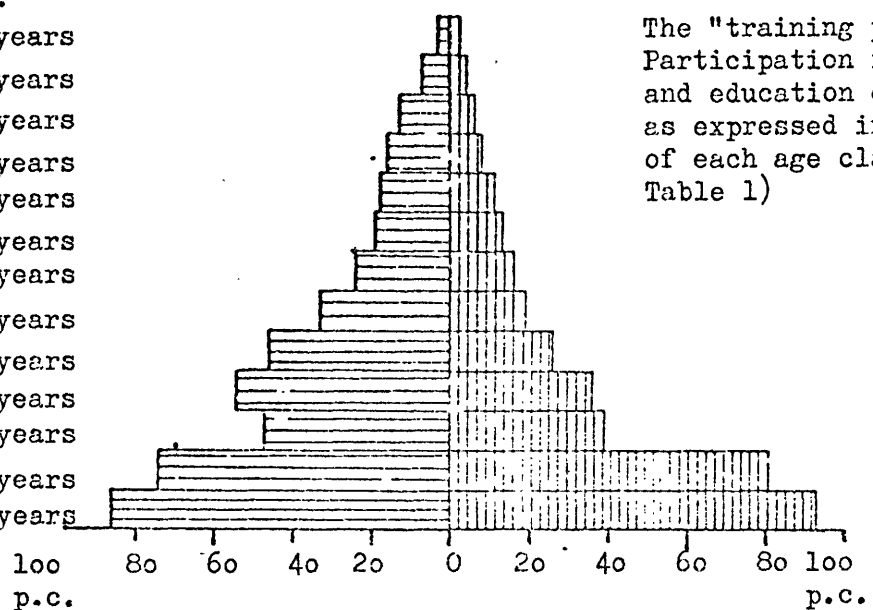
Example of specialist worker training



It is possible to combine one's training periods in accordance with interests and needs. It will often be practical to take periods of employment between individual courses.



Age:  
 27 years  
 26 years  
 25 years  
 24 years  
 23 years  
 22 years  
 21 years  
 20 years  
 19 years  
 18 years  
 17 years  
 16 years  
 15 years



The "training pyramid". Participation in training and education end of 1972, as expressed in per cent of each age class (cf. Table 1)

Age end of 1972	Men p.c.	Women p.c.
15 years	86	93
16 years	74	81
17 years	47	39
18 years	54	36
19 years	46	26
20 years	33	19
21 years	24	16
22 years	19	13
23 years	18	11
24 years	16	8
25 years	13	6
26 years	7	4
27 years	3	2

Number of trainees and students in training in per cent of annual age groups, distributed by sex.

On admission to 1st class of secondary school in 1972-73, the distribution by sex was as follows:

	Percentage distribution		
	Men	Women	Total
1st class, math.	63	32	100
1st class, languages	26	74	100
1st class, total	50	50	100

In 1972-73 the distribution of students in class 3 of secondary school according to sex, and side and line selected, was as follows:

	Men	Women	Total	
	p.c.	p.c.	absolute	p.c.
3rd cl., math.-phys.	73	27	3982	100
3rd cl., math.-nat.sci.	59	41	1680	100
3rd cl., math.-civics	67	33	357	100
3rd cl., math.- total	69	31	6019	100
3rd cl., modern lang.	25	75	4272	100
3rd cl., music lang.	24	76	193	100
3rd cl., cl. lang.	33	67	205	100
3rd cl., civics lang.	47	53	313	100
3rd cl., languages	27	73	4983	100
3rd cl., total	50	50	1102	100

Sex differences in secondary school education.

Number of students passed, with percentage distribution by sex, 1940-74

	Total		Percentage	
	Number	Per cent	Men	Women
1940	2,257	100	64	36
1945	2,807	100	59	41
1950	2,628	100	61	39
1955	3,136	100	56	44
1960	4,468	100	56	44
1965	8,958	100	55	45
1970	10,730	100	53	47
1971	11,651	100	53	47
1972	12,161	100	51	49
1973	12,556	100	50	50
1974	12,980	100	50	50

#### Trainees and students in training

Age	Women in per cent of age group for women			Men in per cent of age group for men			
	1968	1970	1972	1968	1970	1972	
15 years	87	89	93	81	84	86	
16 years	67	74	81	65	70	74	
17 years	41	37	39	56	53	47	Trainees and students who are in training as placed in relation to the relevant annual age groups. End of 1968, 1970 and 1972.
18 years	33	35	36	55	56	54	
19 years	23	26	26	44	49	46	
20 years	14	16	19	28	31	33	
21 years	11	13	16	19	23	24	
22 years	9	11	13	17	19	19	
23 years	6	8	11	15	18	18	
24 years	4	6	8	13	16	16	
25 years	3	5	6	14	13	13	
26 years	2	3	4	8	11	7	
27 years	..	..	2	..	..	3	

EFG-applicants within the individual principal trade, with percentage distribution by sex.

Sex	Principal trade						Total
	Build- ing and construc- tion	Graphic indus- tries	Trade and office	Iron and metal	Foods	Service trades	
Girls	6	32	67	2	52	63	37
Boys	94	68	33	98	48	37	63
Total p.c.	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number	431	145	1061	828	197	295	2979

Annex table 4.2.

The rate of entry into the various types of apprentice training in 1972, with percentage distribution by sex, separate for the individual principal trades.

Sex	Principal trade						Total
	Build- ing and construc- tion	Graphic indus- tries	Trade and office	Iron and metal	Foods	Service trades	
Girls	3	9	60	0	8	83	23
Boys	98	91	40	100	92	17	77
Total p.c.	101	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Fremming, Bo: A comparison between trainees at the vocational experimental training courses, apprentices, and higher preparatory examination courses, 1972-73.

Annex table 2, p. 14.

COMMISSION  
OF THE  
EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES

Directorate-General  
for  
Social Affairs

Directorate  
for  
Vocational Guidance  
and Training

EUROPEAN SEMINAR

ON THE VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND TRAINING  
OF WOMEN WORKERS

24-28 November 1975

Phase B: Continuous vocational training

Rapporteur: Emilienne Brunfaut, on behalf of the European Trade Union  
Confederation

PREAMBLE

Continuous vocational training has for several years been the subject of many studies, seminars and debates. While there is now little objection to the need for it, opinions vary on the basis on which it should be organized.

This raises several questions.

Must continuous vocational training change along with a rapidly changing society, or can it help to improve man's lot?

Must continuous vocational training be linked to a specific office, trade or profession, or should it form part of a more rewarding, coherent whole?

In fact continuous vocational training, which has not yet become part of our way of life, is already going through a crisis because it appears difficult to:

- decide which form it will take (purely utilitarian training or part of a wider scheme);
- involve those directly interested, i.e. the workers and trade unions, in the decision-making process and in the organization and management of continuous training;
- make it available to all workers, especially those who have the lowest level of training and not restrict it to management;
- have it run by the public authorities and not by private agencies, whose motives are doubtful, or by the employers, who reduce the scale of training to meet the essential needs of their own production;
- prevent the danger of workers having to work extra time in lieu when they are already suffering from an alienation increasingly recognized as such and increasingly unbearable.

The concept of continuous vocational training therefore remains ambiguous.

Some people regard it as a "brushing up" of existing knowledge, or a form of retraining, while for others it covers accelerated vocational training or further vocational training in order to hold down a job or obtain promotion.

In many cases the only aim is career advancement.

Very few people realize that continuous vocational training also permits the development of all facets of the individual, which is a basic principle of our trade union organization.

#### ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL BACKGROUND

Too often, continuous training is left in the air, in spite of high-sounding declarations, or even the drafting of laws, in spite of agreement on the need to introduce it and an increasing number of initiatives in most countries. This is because it has to fit into an economy and a society which are undergoing profound change.

The accelerated application of new techniques calls for different qualifications and job changes to suit the new economic and structural conditions. This acceleration also brings about restructuring, industrial, commercial and financial reorganization, the establishment of large-scale plants, the decline of certain branches of activity, the closing of some firms and sometimes the creation of new industries or new branches of existing industries.

This revolution cannot help but alter society, in the same way as the radical changes in individual behaviour and aspirations with regard to work and society.

This means that in order to be economically and socially worthwhile, continuous vocational training must take account not only of the changing economic circumstances but also of changing attitudes towards the acquisition of knowledge and towards work, the entire social structure and in particular the desire for a high quality of life, whether this is expressed or not.

In other words, the ideological base of continuous vocational training must be the acceptance of change in the direction of development and social progress. What we have just said applies equally to men and women.

SHOULD CONTINUOUS VOCATIONAL TRAINING BE SEEN EXCLUSIVELY IN THE LIGHT OF THE PRESENT ECONOMIC SITUATION

In this period of economic recession, so different from earlier economic crises, we are sorely tempted to seek immediate short-term solutions.

Obviously, in certain circumstances the needs of the moment must be met, and continuous vocational training, if it is well thought out and properly applied, can constitute an active element of employment policy.

However we would be failing in our duty to future generations if because of the present economic crisis we limited our interest to "job seekers", to the unemployed, and thus restricted their training to purely occupational needs, i.e. if we were to shut them up in a new occupational "ghetto".



## Women workers

Nearly 35 million women go out to work in the 9 Member States of the European Community. In most of these countries, the number of women going out to work is steadily increasing. It may even be said that nowadays, in view of the slight fall in the male labour force, only the increase in the number of women workers keeps the overall employment rate for a country at a constant level.

In addition there has been a large increase in the number of women workers in the 20-24 and 25-29 age groups; over a few years the rate of increase has ranged from 10 to 15%, depending on the country. It should also be noted that the percentage of married women increases regularly, so that in Belgium, for example, 65% of all women workers are married.

Moreover, the number of girls in higher education and as a percentage of all pupils and students at all levels of education has increased constantly, reaching in some cases absolute equality.

At this point we should stop and think.

The number of girls staying on at school, and the increase in the number of women workers can be seen as a positive development, at any rate.

It would therefore be interesting to see how far:

1. the increase in the number of women workers;
2. the tremendous increase in the number of girls at all levels of education;
3. the fact that girls have obtained equal access to most forms of higher education;
4. the indubitable increase in the standards of education for girls

have provided women with new access to continuous vocational training and to skilled posts in all fields of working life.

We are forced to conclude that these developments have had little or no effect:

- on women's economic and social status,
- on the number of women employed at middle and upper management level,
- on female representation on decision-making bodies,
- on the percentage of women in continuous vocational training centre;

Without wishing to generalize, we feel that the barriers encountered by many women workers could result:

- (a) from lack of vocational training, or from having received training unsuitable for the development and the demands of the job;
- (b) from the retention of distinctions between jobs, trades and careers;
- (c) from the survival of the patriarchal, inegalitarian society which has retained its hidebound traditions about women's role in society, and which therefore considers it useless to give her any opportunity of self-betterment.

#### UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG WOMEN

The positive elements mentioned above also fail to help women retain their jobs.

In some countries the proportion of women unemployed is higher than that of men and in others more women than men have been out of work in recent months.

This applies to my country where about 55% of all the unemployed are women<sup>1</sup>, although women form only 34.6% of the total working population.

Another disappointing feature is the considerable number of unemployed women workers under 20, under 25 and under 40 years of age.

In general, there are more young women than young men unemployed.

It is no doubt possible to ascribe the high rate of unemployment among woman workers, and in particular among young women, to the increased vulnerability of the sectors in which women are employed and to the less skilled posts they are offered.

<sup>1</sup>Office National de l'Emploi et de la Main d'Oeuvre.

However, we must also bear in mind the effect of the way in which girls are prepared for working life.

Although in most countries the percentage of wholly unemployed women workers who have received only a general primary education is very high, many of them attended various courses of secondary education, not to mention vocational training, technical education and even the higher level of technical education. In some countries in Europe, moreover, women who attended training colleges in preparation for work as kindergarten teachers, primary teachers, teachers in secondary technical schools, and women graduates from universities and other institutes of higher education are queuing for work and unemployed.

At the same time, while many unemployed women completed studies leading to a profession, many of them turned towards the branches of the economy considered "traditionally" feminine, such as the clothing industry and the service sector, having studied commercial subjects; lastly, the choice of subjects studied at university does not appear to have had any practical link with the possibility of new careers.

We are therefore faced with a lack of vocational qualifications among women and with the problem of the choice of subjects; as it is, compared with male students, girls are more restricted in their choice of subjects whether at university, secondary school, technical school or in vocational training.

In the case of technical education, it might be interesting to discover why girls prefer commercial and business studies, catering, nursing and welfare work in preparation for jobs in the tertiary sector, while they rarely follow industrial training courses which might lead to skilled or highly skilled jobs, some of which are vital for economic expansion.

We stress the fact that boys and girls have different motives in choosing a career and that girls rarely choose subjects likely to broaden the available range of skilled jobs or managerial posts because these attitudes may help to guide our research towards solutions on the question of continuous vocational training for women.

#### THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF CONTINUOUS VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Continuous vocational training, seen from a "utilitarian" point of view, is at present provided in various forms, depending on the country and region:

1. training courses:

- (a) in special centres (run by the State or by private bodies),
- (b) within the undertaking,  
either full time (residential or non-residential)  
or part-time;

2. correspondence courses;

3. radio or television broadcasts;

etc., etc. ...

Organization of continuous vocational training is extremely diversified.

Continuous vocational training is rare in the private sector where intensive automation is reducing the number of workers, but far more common in the secondary and tertiary sectors.

In most European countries continuous vocational training is governed by a Law, which is sometimes supplemented by an agreement with the trade unions.

Financing of continuous vocational training also varies. In some countries, it is financed by the employers and the public authorities, in others by the public authorities alone with a certain amount of financial support for on-the-job training provided within firms. Funds for continuous vocational training are not managed jointly in every country.

The length of the courses varies greatly, usually depending on the importance of the training and the level. A course may last anything from a few weeks to two years. The payment of trainees differs from country to country, depending on whether classes take place during the working day or one day a week after five days' work or in the evening.

Most training courses for the secondary and tertiary sectors are open to both men and women.

Moreover, the national reports are full of information on the various aspects of the organization of continuous vocational training and some of the examples quoted may be worth mentioning.

Special mention may be made of the efforts made in some countries.

In Denmark<sup>1</sup> for example a Council, on which the unions are represented, has been set up for adult training. In Germany<sup>2</sup>, the 1969 Law on the Upgrading of Employment appears to be working well and the trade union organization (DGB) has its own vocational training centre for technical trades and the tertiary sector.

In several countries initiatives have been taken in the tertiary sector, in particular:

- (a) the brushing-up of skills and knowledge acquired in the course of earlier studies;
- (b) accelerated vocational training for all types of office work, i.e. the centres responsible for this training are in general multi-purpose;
- (c) training in office work and the retail trades is usually "made to measure";

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<sup>1,2</sup>Information obtained from women trade union leaders on the ETUC Commission on Women's Work.

such training reflects the changing situation on the employment market and the aspirations of job applicants; when the trainee enters the centre, his skills and individual potential are assessed.

This system avoids the rigid forms of traditional vocational training and the loss of time which too often discourage adults. Such intensive accelerated vocational training is adapted to individual needs and based on an extremely flexible programme.

In several countries "recycling" is organized at university level or at faculty level, while open universities provide courses for people who need not have studied at university level beforehand.

Last but not least, we must mention a most laudable scheme organized in Belgium, namely the refresher courses in mental and written arithmetic (the four basic operations) and in the mother tongue (written or spoken) organized for female sales assistants in department stores. This instruction was not designed for unemployed women but for women workers, in order to serve as a basis for entry to further vocational training, and is provided during working hours.

The Office National de l'Emploi and the Fonds Social des Grands Magasins (the trade unions are represented on both bodies) have agreed to set up a training centre for women workers in the retail trade. Classes, which take place during normal working hours and are paid as such, provide instruction in the mother tongue (approx. 70 hours) and arithmetic (approx. 70 hours).

Results so far are extremely encouraging. Within a few weeks, 4 000 women applied for these classes. It should be emphasized that these classes are not purely "utilitarian" and that it would in any case be useless to envisage any sort of permanent or continuous training without filling in the gaps left in the original education.

This experiment also proves that women are interested in bettering themselves, if conditions are favourable.

OBSTACLES STILL TO BE ELIMINATED

Continuous vocational training still encounters numerous obstacles, however.

Although the law does not permit any discrimination between the sexes with regard to continuous vocational training, there is de facto discrimination and inequality of opportunity in all European countries.

Similar statements may be made for all countries:

- (a) The percentage of women undergoing training is lower than the percentage of men and also lower than the percentage of women in the working population as a whole;

In France, for example, women account for 25% of all trainees, but 38% of the total working population<sup>1</sup>, while men account for 75% of all trainees but only 62% of the working population;

In the Federal Republic of Germany, only 20% of all trainees are women<sup>2</sup>;

- (b) Although all subjects are open to both men and women the number of subjects taken by women is much lower than the number of subjects taken by men. This reflects the structure of the labour market.

In Belgium, for example, only seven of the 38 possible basic : training courses organized by the Office National de l'Emploi et de la Main d'Oeuvre are attended by women. The ratio for supplementary training was 8 to 39<sup>3</sup>;

- (c) Residential courses often raise problems which are difficult to solve for a couple or a family;
- (d) Transport is also a problem as the training centres are often a long way from the women's home, and in many cases further away from home than work;
- (e) Lack of adequate child-minding facilities restricts both the number of women workers and the attendance of women on vocational training and further training courses;

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<sup>1</sup>Mme Aribaud's report.

<sup>2</sup>Source: DGB.

<sup>3</sup>Source: ONEM.

- (f) Another serious obstacle is the fact that it is more difficult to find jobs for women trainees who have successfully completed one of these courses than it is to place men (especially in trades or professions which are not regarded as specifically female or usually carried out by women);
- (g) The inadequate basic training or initial technical training received by women is an important barrier to any continuous vocational training;
- (h) The upper age limit for accelerated vocational training, further training or retraining is usually 35 years. At this age many working women or women who have given up their jobs for a time still have twenty years or more of their working lives in front of them;
- (i) Yet another very important obstacle is constituted by the short-term courses which fail to provide any proper vocational training or any understanding of the valuable contribution which women can make to the overall production of the firm;
- (j) Moreover, since no attempt has been made to help women find their true role in society, and since women have not received any psychological encouragement to better themselves, it is only natural that they should not be attracted by continuous vocational training;
- (k) Lastly, it must also be noted that the economic crisis has slowed down numerous initiatives in the field of continuous vocational training, in particular in the sectors employing large numbers of women, which are the sectors most seriously affected.
- (l) The authorities concerned should pay greater attention to the training of counsellors and instructors.

#### EQUAL OPPORTUNITY

In International Women's Year, the United Nations Organization and its specialized institutions, together with the Commission of the European Communities, are placing special emphasis on the need to provide equal employment opportunities for women.



While it is true that the continuous vocational training of women workers cannot be considered merely as a balance to the faults of their general education, it is also true that nowadays the preparation of girls for working life must be viewed as part of a development necessitating continuous vocational training. These are the very foundations of equal opportunity.

We will start from the assumption that in a period of economic recession the highest possible vocational qualifications should be provided. Continuous training must also be seen as part of an integrated system and we must therefore examine whether the structures, openings, contents and methods of traditional education can be altered, and if so how.

Curricula must be drawn up as part of a permanent training system which is essential for each individual person and in particular for women.

This means that curricula must be constantly revised in order to form a broader basis for later developments in order to keep abreast of science and technology, i.e., to prepare the individual for the process of readjustment and permanent training which will make possible his development as a whole.

How can we ensure that girls and boys receive exactly the same education and that all schools throughout the educational system are truly co-educational, and not merely a girls' school and a boys' school side by side?

How can we effectively ensure the equality of young people of both sexes in vocational guidance and training and subsequently in job placement?

How can we ensure that both men and women are guaranteed access to all skilled posts, seeing that poor employment and promotion opportunities for women greatly restrict the educational and vocational guidance given to girls and women?

Lastly we would like to emphasize the importance of full employment for girls' view of the future, and the effect that a social infrastructure (including facilities such as nurseries) has on the choice of study, trade or profession and career.

#### PRIORITIES AND PERSPECTIVES

The problem before us, namely the continuous vocational training of women workers, is extremely important, especially in this time of rapid change in the production and distribution processes and in view of the growing unemployment.

All the initiatives which we have mentioned and which have been taken as part of a rapid adaptation process in order to meet a vital need, must of course be taken, but as a trade union we cannot consider them as constituting continuous vocational training, in our sense of the term, i.e., a training which helps the individual towards self-fulfilment.

We also feel that there are traps which could be avoided and obstacles which could be eliminated. Since the causes of these obstacles are known, the Member States and the EEC should take steps to eliminate them.

Lastly, we feel that:

- (a) training should take place during working hours, so that more people, especially women, may participate; for such training, training leave should be given or some similar arrangement made, depending on the country;
- (b) training courses followed in this manner must be paid;
- (c) accelerated vocational training appropriate to the economic situation may be considered a "means", but the courses should not take place in centres run by the firms so that training is not too narrow in scope;
- (d) more centres founded and run by public bodies are urgently required; wide-ranging progressive training methods must be introduced. Centres run by firms should only be used if the state-run centres do not have the necessary equipment. Even

then, the firm should accept that the instructors should be trained in the new curricula and that the trade union organization should be consulted and have the right of inspection;

- (e) great attention must be paid to the training of instructors by new methods, and those training the instructors must themselves also undergo periodical retraining in both theory and practice;

The new pedagogical methods used must take account of the fact that the trainees often have a great experience of life and must help them to detect the conditioning imposed on them by society, to find ways of understanding and overcoming their working and social environments, so that they can participate in "change";

- (f) even if we approve the steps listed above, we cannot under any circumstances consider part-time initial training given for a few weeks as facilitating the re-entry of women into working life;

We have no right to deceive the trainees who apply to these centres. The mushrooming of private centres supported by the taxpayers' money is not desirable and deserves more critical examination in many cases.

Although the training projects at present under discussion may be valuable because of the urgent need to get women back to work, it should not be forgotten that we are faced at one and the same time with middle-aged women who have worked all their lives, young women who have worked only a few years and who as often as not do not have any proper vocational training, women just leaving university with their diploma but unable to find work in their chosen field of study, women who for certain reasons - chiefly family reasons - gave up work for some time, women who have never worked, who have no training and who are now obliged to find work. While rapid intervention is called for in some cases, the training given in all cases must be broad enough and at the same time flexible enough to facilitate proper adjustment.

In any case we feel that the trade union must be consulted beforehand and must participate in the organization of all vocational training at all levels.

We consider that our main preoccupation must be to cut down as much as possible on training schemes which dispense only the knowledge and skills required to perform certain functions or jobs, so that we can concentrate our efforts on genuine continuous vocational training enabling the individual to fulfil himself or herself in all respects.

Although unemployment must be brought under control, we must not concentrate all our efforts on present needs and ignore the future. In other words, although the economic context forces us to train workers for today's needs, the very basis of this training must point the way to the future.

Nor should we forget that, although the central government can lay down the principal guidelines, their application must be discussed and organized at regional level because that is where all the problems arise and where they can be solved if sufficient support is given.

In our opinion the whole should be based on a far-reaching reform of education, which, by its content, methods and innovations, should prepare schoolchildren and students for subsequent continuous training in the more general context of "permanent adult education".

We also consider it vital to set up contact between governments, unions and employers, envisaging:

- equal job opportunities and access to continuous training for men and women, as soon as possible;
- the preparation of economic forecasts, at least for the medium term;
- a single labour market for all workers based on the prospects and needs of the regions and sub-regions;
- improved placement agencies;
- a proper social infrastructure.

But it is certain that if genuine continuous vocational training is to be organized in the future, each of our countries must take steps to stimulate and organize a widely ranging information campaign which must be educational and involve all those concerned, i.e.:

- the national education system,
- the labour market,
- the business world,
- workers' and employers' organizations,
- parents' organizations,
- students' organizations,
- and any social organization interested in the problem.

Improved training of girls for working life and vocational training more suited to the working world call for the provision of better and fuller information, thus preparing the way for more rational educational and vocational guidance.

This educative information should be designed to eliminate the taboos and hidebound traditions which still block woman's progress towards her true role in modern society.

It must give the death blow to the "feminine mystique" of "specifically feminine" qualities which lead to strictly feminine dead-end jobs.

It must present men and women in "potential" rather than "differential" terms and try to get rid of the idea that a man has to work while a woman chooses to work.

#### THE ROLE OF THE EEC

We have not yet touched on the leading role which the EEC could play in the continuous training of women.

Its role is obvious. It can bring in new ideas and prospects, and provide effective moral and material support.

We are convinced that the discussions and the work of this Seminar will lead to valuable proposals and conclusions so that all our countries can press forward together towards genuine continuous vocational training for the greater good of all.

We therefore call on the Commission of the European Communities to examine the conclusions of this Seminar, to note the proposals made and to base its action on the guidelines which have emerged.

These proposals and guidelines could then be addressed to the Member States in the form of suggestions or even a recommendation.

Other speakers will no doubt mention the new European Social Fund and the assistance it can give in the field of continuous vocational training for women workers.

For our part, we should like the Communities to make the greatest possible effort to ensure the success of any project which constitutes a real achievement. Perhaps we should place special stress on the word "real".

While on the subject of the new European Social Fund, I should say that certain Articles (4 and 5 for example) should be reviewed and adapted to present needs, so that the very basis of assistance from the new European Social Fund may be widened and a greater number of working women profit from it.

The same applies to INFORMATION.

The publications of the EEC could contain more information on continuous vocational training than they do at present.

Short films to familiarize young people with the opportunities for study and with the outlets and careers to which such study can lead them would also be extremely useful.

The same applies to broadcasts from "Eurovision" on continuous vocational training: this is an important problem for the future of Europe and one which involves tens of millions of families.

Why should information not be provided in new ways and why should the "small screen" be used only for sports and culture?

The crises which Europe and the world is going through, both economic and social, accentuate the weaknesses of a consumer society, making us question the very foundations of economic and social order.

The Community has a social role to play, and the trade unions look to it to fulfil this role.

Responsible adults have a duty to prepare, both by education and training, an economic and social order which will guarantee a high quality of life.

A movement towards change is necessary, but actions speak louder than words.

European Seminar on  
Vocational Guidance and Training for Women Workers

Phase B - Problems in vocational guidance and  
training for women workers

Topic: Training for a return to working  
life

Rapporteur: Miss Michèle Goffette  
France

This report is based on a study carried out in 1975 on behalf of the Ministry of Education by the National Agency for Developing Permanent Education (Agence Nationale pour le Développement de l'Education Permanente) in order to make more training schemes available for women wishing to learn a trade or return to working life.

The study covers ten training projects carried out in five regions. Three of these are highly industrialized: Paris, Lorraine and Franche-Comté, Burgundy has a mixed economy and the last, Auvergne, is still dominated by the traditional economic system. Four experiments are being carried out in towns with more than 100 000 inhabitants, four in towns with 20 to 80 000 inhabitants and two in rural areas. 1 560 trainees are involved, of whom 1320 are undergoing initial training, 240 vocational training at levels V and VI, 25 agricultural training, 15 industrial training as lathe-operators and 200 are training to be secretaries, nurses or social workers. All the experiments are financed by public money as "public priorities", seven of them from the regional budget for vocational training and three as "experimental projects" directly from the funds of the Ministry of Education. They are organized either by State educational establishments or private groups (women's associations, family and professional associations) which employ public and/or private staff.



## I. ANALYSIS OF THE NATIONAL SITUATION

### I.1 Context

I.1.1 The socio-cultural context: This study was carried out against the general background of changing family models and the improving status of women, which varies according to age, social class and region.

- Law: French legislation was not brought up to date until 1970, when a series of reforms was adopted to protect women's rights in private life (reform of the laws on marriage, divorce, affiliation and birth control) and in public life (access in theory to all forms of training, to all jobs, equal pay, and priority under the 6th Plan for the reintegration of women into working life). The appointment of a Secretary of State for Women's Affairs was proof of the Government's desire to take the problems in hand.
- The facts: Women are still socially handicapped. Although there is no discrimination in basic general training, for example, women still opt for those schemes leading to posts in the tertiary sector (secretarial work and the retail trade) and the textile industries. A recent study carried out by the Ministry of Education showed that school textbooks still project a traditional view of woman's role. The number of women receiving continuous vocational training is still inadequate and progress is slow.
- The economic situation: In 1945, women were encouraged to have babies, but now the Government has changed its mind on family policy. Today the "housewife and mother" allowance has a token value and does not make up for the lost salary. The drop in the birth rate and the employment crisis may well change family policy in the near future, thus altering the background to our problem.

### I.1.2 Four aspects of female employment<sup>1</sup>

(a) The employment rate: Women's desire to work is reflected in the percentage of women at work between the ages of 15 and 65 years, which increased from 37.1% in 1968 to 48.4% in 1973, and the high number of registered unemployed. Although women represent only 38% of the total working population, 52.8% of the unemployed (55.6% outside Paris) are women, as are more than 50% of those receiving benefit from unemployment insurance funds.

The increase is particularly rapid among women between 25 and 39 years of age, which is the age group into which most women wishing to return to working life fall.

(b) The range of jobs: On the whole industry tends to engage young people between 20 and 24 years of age, while the tertiary sector attracts women between 25 and 45 years of age<sup>2</sup>, but there is considerable regional variation:

<sup>1</sup>La situation de l'emploi féminin en mars '74 - Comité du Travail Féminin, June 1974.

<sup>2</sup>Le rôle des femmes dans l'économie - Comité du Travail Féminin, June 1973, p. 6.

- . The industrialized half of France (the north, the east, the Paris area and the Rhône/Alps region) has more openings for women. In addition to the lack of male competition for the traditional jobs in the tertiary sector, heavy industry offers new service jobs and the light precision industries offer women "potential" technical jobs of which 80% are at present classified as unskilled. In five branches - electrical engineering, electronics, the chemical industry, the manufacture of small metal articles and the printing trades - more than 25% of the working force is female.
  - . In the other part of France, where there is little industry, women still play an important part in agriculture, as the young people have left the land, obliging the older women to assume responsibility for technical developments in the two aspects which normally fell to their charge: farm animals and management. Men work in the tertiary sector and women hold unskilled jobs in the textile and food industries. Although these sectors are declining, they nevertheless offer considerable openings, again because the young people have left the land and work in the traditional sector has been taken over by the older women.
- (c) Level of qualification: All in all, the number of unskilled women workers is growing: 70% of all women are unskilled, even though they may hold a qualification as dressmaker or typist, which they do not use. In the private sector, only the chemical industry offers skilled jobs to women workers. The percentage of women at supervisory level is highest in the civil service.
- (d) Production methods: Although paid employment is the most usual form of work in the industrialized regions, we should note the responsibility taken by women in running farms and craft workshops in regions with a traditional economy. In such areas, the organization of women from textile workshops into production cooperatives is not by pure chance. Thus, craft industries and small and medium-sized undertakings, where the division of labour is less than in a large undertaking, still play a considerable role in the French economy.

The level of skill depends on two factors:

- . technical qualifications, which always occupy a privileged position in training programmes;
- . responsibility and initiative, which are the special preserve of management or management trainees but do not figure among the aims of basic training. This fact will be stressed in our review of the return of older women to paid work which will be discussed in greater detail later on when we are analysing the situation.

**1.2 The legislative and institutional framework.** This has been described in the national report. We merely stress the information concerning our subject:

**I.2.1 The legislative framework**

- Article 25 of Title VII of Law No 71.575 of 16 July 1971 considers as workers undergoing retraining married women who wish to carry out a job requiring qualification and unmarried women who have taken on de facto or de jure the responsibilities of another family member. These trainees are paid the minimum wage, which is growth-indexed. A higher wage is paid to women with three or more children and women with one or more children who are heads of families.
- Law 75.3 of 3 January 1975 gives women who are heads of families priority of access to all levels of vocational training.
- Circular No 74074 issued by the Ministry of Education on 21 February 1974 calls on the directors of education (recteurs) to organize regional training schemes for women aged between 30 and 40 who wish to begin or resume a career.
- The Prime Minister's circular No 340 of 20 February 1975 to the regional prefects confirms that the regional training schemes for women wishing to take up a job late in life or to return to working life after interruption will be given priority.

**I.2.2 The institutional framework**

The groups which have been given priority are also the poorest groups. Their training is financed exclusively from public funds, but the institutions concerned vary greatly:

Most of the money comes from the regional budget for vocational training and social advancement, that is, its allocation is decided at regional level. Certain measures more closely linked to an employment problem, e.g. mass dismissals or a shortage of workers, may be initiated by the Agence Nationale pour l'Emploi and financed from the national employment fund.

Some more experimental projects may be financed under various national programmes:

- (a) "Projects on behalf of the underprivileged or those who for various reasons have little access to continuous vocational training, in new towns, in priority zones and regions undergoing rapid change" are organized by the Secretary of State for Vocational Training in cooperation with the local authorities.
- (b) The Ministry of Education acts on two levels: it grants preparatory credits to potential supporters of training schemes, so that they can organize advertising campaigns and prepare projects for submission to the regional committees which will then be responsible for implementing them.

It also finances small-scale experimental projects directly.

Lastly, a large number of institutions may be involved, the Cultural Aid Fund (Fonds d'intervention culturelle), the town and country planning board, the local authorities in new towns, and the Caisse nationale d'Allocations familiales (family allowances fund), which recently expanded its social action programme to include the permanent education of women.

The ADEP (Agence Nationale pour le Développement de l'Education Permanente), a public-law body set up in 1973 under the aegis of the Ministry of Education to take charge of permanent education and governed by a tripartite board including representatives of the Ministries and of employers' and workers' organizations, helps with the coordination of the various institutional resources available locally. Thus, "commissions for permanent education" are set up for each town or region. They are directed by a local tripartite policy group, which deals with the various bodies financing the scheme, decides which measures should be sponsored and organized by a technical staff which arranges how to carry out the projects with the local population and the public and private training establishments.

### I.3 The women involved

I.3.1 The definition varies according to the organization in charge of the scheme. But the technical definition, i.e., that of the women who actually attend the courses, differs greatly from the institutional definition. In an urban setting with considerable resources, the definition is fairly precise. In scattered rural areas with few resources the people attending will be more heterogeneous.

- Age: Although most participants are between 30 and 40, 40% of trainees are over 40, and the actual age range may be from 25 to 55, including even young people between 19 and 25 years of age. The age group involved is a variable linked to family behaviour, which differs from one region to another.

- Reasons for not working: In theory these women have not worked for personal reasons. A study made by the Comité du Travail Féminin has shown that such women account for only 19% of those registered as unemployed:

- 7% have never worked
- 12% gave up their jobs to bring up a family.

In practice, women who have lost their jobs may follow the same courses in order to return to working life.

- Aims: Most trainees attend the courses in order to improve their career prospects. Aims vary from self-betterment to the assumption of social responsibilities and the need or desire to return to work in the near or foreseeable future.

I.3.2 The very vague definition makes it difficult to assess numbers, even if we agree that all women over 25 looking for work but unable to find it should be included.

- The exact number of people in this class is unknown. Women represent more than 50% of the unemployed and half the unemployed are under 25. The number of unemployed women over 25 may therefore be estimated at approximately 250 000.
- Expression of a desire to work is not the only criterion. Regional analysis of demand has shown the quantitative and qualitative link between supply and demand. In areas where there are very few job prospects for women there are very few women registered as unemployed and looking for work.

I.3.3 Social class: In addition to regional disparities, a study of 15 000 applications carried out by the Comité du Travail Féminin showed that:

- 75% of the applicants lived outside Paris
- 91% wanted work in the tertiary sector
- 71% had already learned a trade
- 52% were single women, half of whom were heads of households<sup>3</sup>.

It should also be noted that "many more applications were received from married working-class women than from women in other socio-professional categories: 70% of them applied for work, but the actual employment rate (28.6%) for such women is very low"<sup>4</sup>.

I.3.4 Education: The older the women, the less education she will have received. For one thing, the lack of discrimination in schools today did not exist when women who are now 40 years old were at school. In addition, knowledge acquired at school loses its value if it is not used. The following facts stand out from the situation observed:

- (a) Regardless of the family's economic status, husbands tend to have a higher level of education than wives, either because there were opportunities for advancement at work or because their initial training was of a higher standard.
- (b) Women who have undergone initial vocational training, even if inappropriate, and have worked for some time are better prepared for going back to work than women with a higher standard of general education, but no vocational training or experience.
- (c) Highly-skilled women workers who are temporarily unemployed, or who even have to change jobs, find direct access to mixed training schemes.

The specific nature of training schemes for women is therefore linked to the socio-cultural handicap and their main objective is to overcome this handicap.

#### I.4 Structures, methods, resources

##### I.4.1 Structures

Training is provided either by the state educational system, ranging from technical colleges to universities, or by non-profit-making associations which may be either consumer organizations

<sup>3</sup>Information du Comité du Travail Féminin - May 1974.

<sup>4</sup>Le rôle des Françaises dans l'économie - Comité du Travail Féminin, June 1973, p. 63.

(family associations, women's groups, trade and professional associations) or popular education groups of varied allegiance. People who cannot pay are of no interest to those with training to sell.

I.4.2 Methods: A distinction may be made between:

- (a) Non-specific training schemes, i.e., schemes for both men and women which make an effort to adapt their timetable and syllabus to women's needs, and specific schemes, reserved for women, with a very flexible timetable and provided as near as possible to the woman's home.
- (b) "Standardized" training schemes with a fairly rigid structure leading to a diploma - the trainees being selected before admission, and "made-to-measure" schemes based entirely on the level of education, needs, interests and aims of the trainees. In some schemes the trainees play a part in running the courses.

I.4.3 Resources

- The operation of a project presupposes organizers or counsellors to negotiate with the various parties concerned and trained instructors. In general, adult education takes place with groups of 10 to 20 trainees.
- The buildings and equipment available vary greatly according to the type of training involved. Admissible expenses and instructors' pay are linked to the educational level of the trainees. The lower the starting level and the more difficult the instructors' task, the smaller the budget.

I.5 Achievements and results

Non-specific programmes have been in operation longest:

I.5.1 Traditional training schemes

In 1973:

- 9.4% of the trainees enrolled in the Ministry of Labour scheme (approximately 5 000) were women;
- approximately 35 000, or 34.8% of the trainees enrolled in the social advancement schemes organized by the Ministry of Education were women;
- 55 000 trainees (50%) enrolled at the television training centres were women.

Although most of the courses were at level U, the percentage of women trainees increased with the level of training.

Of the 25 000 women over 35 on retraining courses, 50% were married women with families who wanted to go back to work.

These training schemes dream off the most articulate and adaptable section of the population and the youngest age group.

(c) voluntary schemes: This is a novel experiment carried out in mining areas. Although it was originally intended for the retraining of miners, it was rapidly extended to the entire population, training women for the sectors in which women normally work but also for the engineering industry, industrial design, welding, boiler making and electricity. These training schemes were piloted by representatives of local industry, using workers from these industries as instructors.

In 1973 the trainees included:

- (a) in the North: 58% women of whom 51% were aged between 30 and 50 years - approximately 1 000.
- (b) in the East:
  - Alsace: 65% women (approximately 1 000): half were between 30 and 50.
  - Lorraine Iron Ore Mines: approximately 1 000 women between 30 and 50 (28.5%)
  - Lorraine Coal Basin: approximately 4 000 (47.8%) between 30 and 50.

These training schemes attract women with a much lower cultural level and in particular women of an older age group. In practice, however, they reach only women already engaged in work: only 10-25% of the women on these courses were unemployed.

I.5.3 This relative failure has led to the gradual establishment of specific schemes. Two such schemes, begun in 1972, are now being widely imitated. The number of specific agreements on the reintegration of women into working life is increasing.

Regions	1974	1975	
Paris	12 agreements	23 agreements	1350 trainees
Industrialized regions	9 agreements	36 agreements	1250 trainees
Regions with little industry	5 agreements	23 agreements	400 trainees
<b>Total</b>	26 agreements 1600 trainees	82	82 agreements 3000 trainees

As for the two original schemes there are now 800 trainees in Paris and 200 in Burgundy. All new schemes begin with small units of between 15 and 50 women (1 to 3 groups), particularly in regions with little industry.

These specific schemes consist of three phases: guidance, initial training and vocational training, which may be integrated or separated depending on the women's general level on admission.

II. ANALYSIS OF PROBLEMS

II.1 Nature of the problems

II.1.1 The economic and socio-cultural context imposes various limitations:

There is a clash of ideas at decision-making level, as well as among the instructors and the trainees themselves. "Progressive" circles have worked out different strategies for liberating women. For some it involves recognition of women's specific nature, equality of status in spite of division of roles and, in particular, payment for housewives and mothers. For others an essential part is the taking over of male professions, even if this means that women in fact take over only the jobs than men no longer want. For those looking forward to the post-industrial era the important thing is not job equality but participation in political power. As things stand, the supporters of the status quo still hold the upper hand: woman has only the choice between being a housewife or working at the sort of subordinate job traditionally reserved for women.

In addition to these differences, the employment crisis means that regional committees must first deal with other priorities, in particular the training of young unemployed people. In 1975 one-third of the training schemes for women which had received preparatory funds from the Ministry of Education were rejected by the regional committees, leading to a loss of money and energy, the redundancy of instructors and the disappointment of the trainees.

Lastly, openings are limited. The tertiary sector is saturated and women are making only slow progress in their efforts to penetrate the industrial sector. The ratio between supply and demand in January 1975 was unfavourable to women because it was 13.6% in the tertiary sector compared with 41.2% in industry. In the five branches of industry accounting for 75% of applications from women, the ratio was:

- office work 9.1%
- domestic service 12.3%
- administration 12.6%
- retail trade 17.7%
- textiles 34.9%

In addition, a qualification does not necessarily bring any advantage in the labour market. The Agence pour l'Emploi has shown that women workers are placed in the following order:

- (1) unskilled manual workers
- (2) unskilled clerical staff
- (3) skilled clerical staff
- (4) skilled manual workers and management.

In Lorraine, where the number of female manual workers is relatively high, "the unemployed women are just as skilled as the unemployed men"<sup>5</sup>. There are no openings for women, even if they are very highly skilled, in public works or the building industry.

<sup>5</sup>Comité du Travail Féminin, June 1974.



### II.1.2 The legislative and institutional framework

Workers may claim payment only for full-time training courses, which are seldom provided for women. Although payment may be claimed for courses as short as 20 hours/week, even this limit excludes most women.

The administrative procedures are too complicated, which means that the running costs are too high. There are excessive delays in the payment of allowances to trainees. Each application for sponsorship must be accompanied by details of the training scheme and the training methods used, which is incompatible with a "made-to-measure" scheme. Trainees cannot be enrolled on a course until financial support has been guaranteed. We feel that the application for financial support need only set forth the aims of the course.

### II.1.3 Trainees

There is a gap between the law and reality and the main problem is that of the "outsiders". Among the groups covered by legislation:

- those given top priority, i.e., women from the poorest economic and cultural backgrounds and female heads of household who urgently need to work, participate in training schemes only in exceptional cases.
- women who have never worked do not register for work (only 7% do so out of dire need) or participate in training schemes (fewer than 10% of all trainees). Only those with an above-average basic education receive any training. It is heartbreaking to see a woman who has never worked shut out from the cultural and economic system when her children are grown.

It is therefore important to provide links in order to reach these groups.

- Lastly, not all women participating in training schemes need to work in order to live, and experience has shown that it is unrealistic always to link training to a given vocational aim.

Vocational training courses contain:

- (a) women who actually have their eye on a definite job;
- (b) women who are taking advantage of an interesting and easily accessible educational resource but who do not intend to work;
- (c) women whose background allows them no other alternative to housework but working life and who, after receiving guidance, find other ways of integrating themselves into society.

On the other hand, where facilities for permanent education exist, women who originally did not intend to work, either because of opposition from their family or because they did not consider themselves capable, may gradually change their minds.

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Approximately 30% of trainees alter their plans about work during the initial training course. If only to ensure a sound management of public money, open-ended initial training courses should be introduced.

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#### II.1.4 Structures, methods, resources

- The above statement shows that financing only guidance and initial training courses for specific occupations, whether out of a desire to make a profitable investment or to help the worst off, is in fact a bad method. It also shows the disadvantages of separating permanent education from vocational training.
- Although state-run centres cover the whole gamut of the educational process, private associations, lacking the technical facilities, provide only guidance and initial training, and subsequent transfer to vocational training proper is not systematic or takes too long.
- The government grant for initial training, fixed at 6 Frs/hour/trainee, is not enough to cover all the posts necessary, in particular a permanent organizer who will act as group representative and take charge of coordination between the various outside bodies. Extra-curricular activities, such as pedagogical meetings, are often unpaid. Canvassing for extra help in cash or kind may be a source of dynamism because it helps to generate public interest, but the problems may also discourage potential promoters.

#### II.1.5 Achievements

The various attempts to increase recruitment and expand training facilities are still at the experimental stage. Formulae for initial training vary from 48 to 160 hours and for training proper from 240 to 920 hours. Courses last anything from one month to two years and hasty harmonization would be wrong.

The main problem is generally the number and qualifications of the instructors. The solution sometimes adopted of employing as organizers middle-class women without working experience appears disputable. All those who successfully introduce new teaching methods are, if not militant, at least highly motivated and willing to experiment. While training has been available for organizers or "continuous training counsellors" for several years now, the training of instructors for adult education is still in its infancy. Here again is a basic investment which the authorities are reluctant to finance.

## II.2 Diagnosis and working hypothesis

II.2.1 Women's status in society today is still a handicap justifying special training schemes and determining the basis of the methods used. Women's access to skilled jobs has less to do with their technical level than the resistance of employers, in other words, the ability of women to put themselves forward.

The building of self-confidence is a priority aim, both the result and condition of training. Unskilled women workers are just as much affected by this problem as women who do not work. Nor does the problem differ greatly with all other socially handicapped groups.

II.2.2 Linking training schemes for women to specific job outlets helps to perpetuate the handicap by maintaining women as a reserve labour force to be mobilized in a period of industrial expansion and then sent home in a crisis.

II.2.3 Women have made little impact so far in certain branches of industry. Although it is desirable to change the attitudes of young people undergoing initial training, it appears unrealistic to begin with middle-aged women out of contact with the working world.

II.2.4 The problem may be posed in terms of the objective and subjective accessibility of employment and training.

Objective accessibility of employment depends on the market, which looks for qualities such as:

- general efficiency,
- skills and adaptability,
- ability to assume responsibility.

The experience acquired by a woman at home is a capital which instead of being negated should be used to the full in the occupational context. Such experience may be expressed in terms of:

- sanitary and pedagogical skills, which many women do in fact use in their jobs;
- technical skills (cooking, dressmaking, decoration, etc.) which may be used in the service sector or building industry (designer ...);
- managerial capacity and sense of responsibility, much sought after in small undertakings where one job overlaps with another.

Lastly, paid work is not the only possible opening for a woman who has run a family and some open play groups, take in washing, etc. either commercially or in an association. This prospect merits further investigation.

Subjective accessibility of employment and training can mean different things, depending on the group of women:

- (a) middle-class women who are temporarily unemployed are the best suited to the institutional framework.

They are between 25 and 40 years old, with two or three children and have worked for quite a long time in a shop or an office, but rarely in a factory. They always intended to go back to work but the main problems were the objective accessibility of employment and training which could be fitted in with their domestic duties.

On the assumption that they would return to the same sort of job, they require a retraining scheme with a mainly intellectual and technical bias and are receptive to simple information through the mass media. Their main problem is finding suitable working hours.

(b) Women returning to work after bringing up a family

They gave up work long ago, if indeed they ever worked. They are between 40 and 55 years of age and have often brought up very large families.

This group includes women of a high educational level who have no occupational training and have never worked.

They are receptive to training, but very much at a loss at the prospect of employment.

(c) Women from less-favoured economic and cultural backgrounds

They go straight into unskilled jobs without any training, which would have no meaning for them. They were often failures at school. Their interest in training is low, since their job prospects are poor anyway.

These two groups present the same type of teaching problem, at different levels. One has to change the image they have of their role in society which is based not on logic but on experience. Unless a collective crisis arises (dismissal of a whole work force, for example), it is a long-term process.

(d) Lastly, women in a marginal social or personal position

Women who are heads of household (e.g. unmarried mothers) have so many other things to do that it is difficult for them to find access to training and employment and they often require psycho-social aid or the like for reintegration into society.

The objective accessibility of training can be improved by means of:

- appropriate information media
- geographical decentralization of training schemes
- adjustment of class hours and timetables
- presence of a permanent organizer
- instructors from the women's own milieu, all the more necessary as the cultural gap widens.

### III. SOLUTIONS

III.1 Solutions attempted. Research has been carried out into recruitment strategies, into pre-training methods, i.e., how to ensure that as many women as possible commence technical training, and into job outlets.

#### Strategies:

The results show that the information media used (abstract or concrete, written or by word of mouth, personal or not, from friend or stranger, with or without official status) help to select the trainees. In the same way each milieu has its own network, and formal organizations or employers' associations are not necessarily the best media to choose. Firstly, they recruit only those women who are already well integrated into society. Secondly, they may form a screen if they consider they have been given a mandate by the public, whose views they ignore. Full use should be made of informal groups and social workers. Training courses have been decentralized. In a small town of 20 000 inhabitants, there are training courses in three different areas. Lastly, the rate of instruction may be very slow to begin with, in particular in rural areas, where classes are held for two hours every fortnight. One aim of the training scheme is in fact to allow the woman more free time.

Teaching methods used during guidance and initial training: guidance consists of three stages: first of all the woman's aims are clarified, then a branch of industry is selected and finally a given trade is chosen. In the same way initial training includes a general phase and a prevocational phase. In practice, guidance cannot be given in advance. It takes place during the first phase of the initial training.

The annex contains a list of experiments and two initial training programmes.

Job openings: the following have been tried:

- (a) the organization of probationary periods to allow the candidate to demonstrate her abilities;
- (b) priority employment agreements between the training bodies and undertakings, especially hospitals;
- (c) visits to local employers to make them aware of the problem and to investigate employment prospects;
- (d) approaches to the local authorities and social security bodies to set up schemes which would provide vacancies for child-minders and home helps;
- (e) investigation of possible markets for new training courses such as upholsterer or sailmaker.

#### Results:

- it is difficult to obtain a probationary period except in hospitals;
- the culturally less-favoured groups, e.g. child-minders, women in rural areas, unskilled factory workers, are very much in favour of training;
- the experiments carried out in 1975 are too recent for their effect on the reintegration, or promotion of the women concerned to be assessed.

### III.2 Possible and desirable solutions:

The plan we propose aims essentially to set up initial training schemes which will enable women to have access to normal educational and training resources, i.e. mixed courses. Three types of action may be envisaged, the first two covering the majority of needs.

Type A schemes, which are the mainstay of the system, have a medium-term aim: to change attitudes relating to women's role:

These projects, which provide many-sided prevocational guidance, are intended to rouse women's interest.

They are long and based on action and expression.

They make full use of the experience acquired as wife and mother.

Where necessary, they may be organized on a "course credit" system.

They are for unskilled manual and clerical workers just as much as for unemployed women.

They try to rouse public interest and overcome "resistance".

For example they include:

- an initial course of 120 hours spread over a year, turning gradually away from acquired experience, changing both attitudes towards education and the woman's image of herself, raising the woman's intellectual level and heightening her efficiency and capacity to assume responsibilities.

- a phase of consolidation and preparation for working life in a wide range of courses including:

- (i) civics and human relationships (approximately 120 hours).
- (ii) Optional courses in shorthand, typing, management, bookkeeping, para-medical and para-social skills, technology, etc. The list is not restrictive. Wherever possible, these prevocational options are based on probationary jobs leading to a worthwhile career.

This second phase may be spread over a year or be much shorter.

The division of the course into units means that a woman may take up a job or go on to more serious training at any time.

This type of training precedes other retraining or promotional projects for women who do not yet envisage changing their jobs. It is designed both for unemployed women and for unskilled women workers with dead-end jobs.

With unemployed women, the process is based on the experience acquired as a "socially successful" wife and mother. It imparts the ability to meet and measure up with unfamiliar groups which seldom mix with women from a marginal background. Later, it can be assumed that the sharing of the job situation will erase any differences in social class and overcome the fear of the unknown, both of which are obstacles to training.

In the case of such schemes, the public at large must be made aware of the project and cooperate fully.

Considerable investment is required for the preparation of the project and for the subsequent organizational work during training. This must be taken into account in budgeting.

Type B schemes have short-term aims:

Resharpener the primary intellectual tools, emotional indoctrination and encouragement.

They are short.

They may be tailor-made.

In theory, anybody may participate, because these courses work on the learning process as distinct from social experience and subjects learned at school. They suit only highly motivated women, because the point of the proposed exercises is not evident at first sight.

Lastly, vocational training schemes specifically organized for women are not out of the question, but depend on the economic situation, as the aim is to reintegrate the women into normal working life as quickly as possible. By economic situation we mean local employment problems: the dismissal of a whole work force or the creation of new jobs.

In this case the material resources are a greater problem than the methods used.

### III.3 Prospects and proposals

#### III.3.1 Legislative background

- Since the law grants mothers the right to vocational retraining, it should also recognize a mother's work as a full-time job giving entitlement to continuous vocational training, thus reducing the cost of a return to work. At a time when girls leave school with a good level of general education, it is a scandal that this capital is allowed to go to waste. It is also strange that paid child-minders can receive training like other workers while mothers are excluded.

The conditions governing payments during retraining courses must also be made more flexible. Since such courses last for anything between 120 and 1200 hours, they should be paid hourly, without regard to total duration, which must be adapted to the potential of each class.

### III.3.2 Institutions

- In the present state of thinking, it is better for these projects to be independently financed, otherwise money will never be available for training schemes other than those linked directly to jobs: in France the 1971 Law on permanent education is used only for vocational training.

But the technical resources of permanent education and vocational training should not be separated; there is a need to simplify the technical and administrative apparatus whose complexity adds greatly to costs and prevents many people from having access to available resources. As it is, people must be trained to use this apparatus. It would be more profitable to reverse the process. The permanent education schemes for a whole area could be adopted more widely.

A policy for maintaining women in jobs or reintegrating them into working life implies the development of social facilities enabling young women to hold down jobs and opening to those wishing to return to work making direct use of their interests and experience.

### III.3.3 Proposals for a European programme

- (a) Financing of a training programme for women from rural areas, as part of the overall development of the region, e.g. the "local contracts" concluded in France by the town and country planning authorities. This programme might serve as a basis for technical research.
- (b) Formation of an expert committee which, basing itself on experience gained in the various countries, would study:
  - the most suitable and flexible model or models
  - specific training methods which could be made more widely available to other socially handicapped sections of the population
  - training of instructors.

Paris, October 1975



EXPERIMENT	SOURCE OF INFORMATION
<p>PARIS RETRAVAILLER</p>	<p>Radio/TV 50% Media-based information</p> <p>Women's Press 15%</p> <p>National Press 5%</p> <p>Friends or acquaintances 3% Direct information</p> <p>Unknown 30%</p>
<p>ZUP DIJON</p>	<p>Friends or acquaintances 35% Direct information</p> <p>Members of women's associations 25%</p> <p>Stands 15%</p> <p>Local Press 15% Media-based information</p> <p>Notices in shop windows 10%</p>
<p>ZUP CLERMONT</p>	<p>Local Press 45% Media-based information</p> <p>Radio 5%</p> <p>Friends and acquaintances 25% Direct information</p> <p>Survey 25%</p> <p><u>N.B.</u> The Press was used to recruit trainees for the second scheme</p>
<p>BEIFRAC B/C</p>	<p>Notices in the press, and individual contact by letter from BEIFRAC or family associations</p>
<p>TALANGE</p>	<p>The trainees were informed directly by word of mouth by the organizer of the training course, trade union or employers' association</p>
<p>AURILLAC</p>	<p>Letter from employer</p>
<p>C ERE</p>	<p>Oral information by the woman organizer</p>
<p>ST JULIEN</p>	<p>Informed directly by word of mouth by the social workers and the local policeman.</p>

Pedagogy of initial training schemes:

Breakdown

The brushing-up, extension or learning of skills may all be involved, to varying degrees

Experiment		B	A1	A2
Method	Emphasis	Cognitive	Active	Affective
↓	→	based on learning	based on trainees' interests	based on trainees' needs
Cognitive methods	The primary intellectual processes: attention, memory, logic, spatial organization, rhythm	<u>AIM No 1</u> Systematic training using individual "PIAGET"-type exercises	Result of the training course	Result of the training course
	Primary cultural tools: vocabulary	Active learning Part-time	<u>Instrumental</u> During activities Active group learning	Language is a privileged instrument
	"Basic" cultural tools: grammar and mathematics		<u>Instrumental</u> During activities Active group learning	
Active methods	Techniques		<u>Instrumental</u> Active learning of: - documentation - expression - group work: (i) oral and verbal (ii) manual (iii) audio-visual <u>optional</u> - typing - first aid - gymnastics	<u>Instrumental</u> Active learning of: - documentation - expression - group work: (i) oral and written (ii) manual (iii) audio-visual
	<u>Ways of using these tools in everyday life</u> how to obtain information sources and processing of information	<u>Instrumental</u> provision of information by the training centre	<u>AIM No 1 of the course</u> is pursued actively within the group, supplemented and tested in the environment	<u>Instrumental</u> Active learning inside and outside the training group
	How to evaluate a situation (analysis - criticism - synthesis)	Oral learning within the group		Verbal learning inside the training group
	How to get the message across (plan for action)	Result of the training course		Result of the training course
Affective methods	Expression and Communication	Possible for 1/4 of the time as an instrument of free discussion	Favoured for all activities: as an instrument by some organizers and as aim no 3 by others	AIM No 2 of course - Considered basic
	Building of self-confidence	AIM No 2 of the course. Support from the organizer and group	AIM No 2 of the course. Support from the group	AIM No 3 of the course. Support from trainees and instructors
	New image of self	Course not long enough or sufficiently detailed to achieve this aim	Result of course	AIM No 1 of the course

Annex I.8

Two examples of experimental long-term initial training

Example A1: 120 hours in ten months - emphasis on "action". No set programme. The teaching programme is worked out at meetings with representatives of the trainees, and implemented after a collective decision in each group.

The aim pursued is greater mastery over one's environment by:

- the first steps towards a critical understanding of human and socio-economic problems;
- a refreshment of the basic intellectual skills;
- the imparting of self-confidence.

The analysis below was prepared from the minutes of meetings held by five groups, in other words 160 reports drawn up in turn by the trainees.

Structure of the course

In spite of the highly individual direction taken by each group and a few variations reflecting the organizer's use of training aids and the trainees' principal interests, the general lines of the 35 meetings and nine half days were as follows:

- Three to five meetings dealing with overall strategy

(1) Trainees' participation in the life of the Centre

- information - discussion - decisions on financing;
- collective preparation and reports on the meetings of the Administrative Board and the Teachers' Committee;
- preparation of the publicity campaign.

(2) Research into job prospects

(3) Debates with visitors

(Administrative authorities, journalists)

Apart from some meetings devoted entirely to the life of the Centre, such problems were discussed, in the light of the economic situation, at the beginning of each meeting.

- Three to five coordinating for the continuous assessment of the group's work, i.e.:

- (1) Discussion and decisions on the programme of activities: subjects, visits, guests.
- (2) Redefinition of the aims of the training programme.
- (3) Organization of the life of the group, recovery of absentees, division of responsibilities and tasks.
- (4) Self-criticism centring on relationships within the group and the diligence of the trainees.
- (5) Stocktaking.
- (6) Discussion of the criteria for granting the final certificate.

- 25 to 27 actual working sessions

(1) Aims

- Learning to inform oneself, to criticize and synthesize information.
- Improvement of written and oral expression.
- Communication.
- Learning certain techniques: typing  
first-aid  
gymnastics  
public relations etc.
- Basic French and arithmetic.

(2) Subjects treated

(a) in all groups:

(i) personal and family life:

- parent-child relationship
- parent-teacher relationship
- vocational guidance
- sexual education
- contraception.

(ii) Introduction to economics

- working life, working conditions, unemployment, the trade union movement and laws governing employment.
- Consumption  
the family budget  
banking and taxes  
public relations.

(iii) The environment

- ecology
- residential environment, from a study of the local area to town planning generally
- social and administrative bodies.

(b) Depending on the groups' interests:

- debates on current affairs (the Presidential Election)
- economic and social studies of foreign countries which have been visited
- studies of spare-time activities.  
(Some groups may study information (printing and publishing) as a special subject.

(3) Teaching aids

- Sharing personal experiences
- Analysing documentaries or novels dealing with women's lot
- Reviewing the daily press
- Films and television broadcasts
- Tape recordings.

(4) Trainees' own work

- Documentation files
- Taking of notes and preparation of minutes
- Précis writing
- Preparation of enquiries: - studying the subject  
- guidelines
- Preparation of publicity material or even an exhibition

(5) Guests from outside

With the organizers' consent, each group invites a guest once a month on average.

- Psychologist, psychiatrist, family planning adviser, teacher of sexual education.
- Economist, ecologist, agronomist, specialist in consumer behaviour.
- Vocational guidance officer, industrial psychologist, official from AFPA.
- Journalist, author, actors.

- 4 to 6 outside visits or enquiries:

They require a free half-day and are chosen by the group, but always include:

- an undertaking with a large female work force
- one or more of the following: - social centre  
- vocational guidance centre  
- industrial psychology unit.
- a cultural establishment or one of the media: cultural association, international conference centre, newspaper office, town planning exhibition, etc.
- administrative or financial institutions: bank, Giro centre, insurance company, municipal services.

In the case of certain groups, this activity takes the form of an in-depth study of the local area.

Teaching practice

Unlike teaching in schools, all the activities are integrated. The preparation of a visit for example involves:

- Advance documentation including searching for information and preparing a documentary file.
- Drafting of relevant questions.
- Preparing letters of introduction and general arrangements for the visit.
- Interview during the visit.
- Classification and synthesis of the answers obtained.
- Recorded speech for subsequent criticism of the speaker's style.
- Critical debates on the speech.
- Revision of the basic disciplines is not the subject of special exercises but takes place during activities, for example:

- Revision of the rules of grammar when the minutes of the meetings are read.
- Calculating percentages for a review of the press: the coverage given in 6 newspapers to each topic and then to each heading are compared; for example:

"We are divided into pairs to calculate the surface which we then convert into percentages. The comparison is then made in table form:

	Figaro	Bien Public	Aurore	Dépêches	Progrès	Monde
Headlines	38	41	45	33	46	18
Texts with photos	15	21	28	16	26	0
Text	37	29	12	47	21	75
Publicity	7	4	9	4	7	7
Other	7	5	9	-	-	-

Next week we shall compare the coverage which various newspapers give to the same subject."

In the same way everything learned is tested by being put into practice immediately:

- Publicity campaign
- Enquiry into needs, etc.

Example A2: 160 hours in 4 months - Emphasis on expression

Subjects covered and teaching methods:

The course consists of 14 self-contained units (modules), from which each group selects its own syllabus:

1. Collection of information on jobs and training opportunities, making use of surveys, interviews, note-taking, oral and written reports, etc.
2. Collection and processing of information, layout, composition, comparative study of the Press.....
3. Study of documents (articles on women's lot, the drafting of a law...)
4. Work on the curriculum vitae (other than the usual personal and career details), preparation of a curriculum vitae for women
5. Work on films
  - Adults' views on learning: "quand un groupe parle de lui", "stagiaires et moniteurs".
  - Communication: "demande de renseignements", "au guichet".
  - Economy and work: "pourquoi nous produisons", "avez-vous choisi votre métier".
  - Expression: "un plan pour agir et s'exprimer", "établir un rapport".

6. Oral expression and communication: Reading aloud, commentary on photographs and slides, description of objects, preparation of a technical memo, manufacture of objects, discussion of current affairs, (divorce, abortion, social rights...); preparation of a text, summary; vocabulary and definition of words; work with the tape recorder...
7. Exercises in communication and expression with critical analysis (plus communication networks...)
8. Group activities, including attendance at debates
9. Charades (with discussion and analysis)
10. "Island game" (economic): civic training and introduction to the law...
11. Preparation of papers on the following subjects:  
Local Authorities, Social Security, Education, Family Allowances, Insurance, One-Parent Families, Holiday Homes, Technical Training, Office Work....
12. Work on outside material e.g. speeches by the President of the Republic, papers on family planning, budgets and local government finance, the census, institutions, etc.
13. Meetings: Agence Nationale pour l'Emploi, the Ministry of Labour's Training Centre, the local Council (attendance at a meeting, plus preparation and report), Union féminine civique et sociale.
14. Visits to factories or undertakings (leading to reports and group discussions)
  - Family-run watchmaking business
  - A technical school for girls
  - A suitcase factory
  - A clothing factory
  - A large watch factory
  - A bank (management)

EUROPEAN SEMINAR ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND TRAINING FOR WOMEN WORKERS

Phase B                   Problems in vocational guidance and training for  
                              women workers

Topic                     Vocational training and further training for women  
                              workers in the German retail trade

Rapporteur                Mr Arnu  
                              Director of the training centre for the retail trade  
                              in Lower Saxony



Since ideas about the retail trade often vary greatly, the concept should first be defined. The distributive trade consists of service firms whose main task is to sell goods without any great processing. They distribute goods produced by other firms and their role in the economy is to supply goods to meet needs.

Retailers are concerned with selling goods to the final consumer. They may take various forms: fixed retail outlets in the form of the shops we all know, mail order firms which sell goods chosen from a catalogue through the post, market stallholders or door-to-door salesmen.

For the main part, this report deals only with fixed retail outlets, although the basic points made also apply to the other forms. In the case of such fixed outlets, three factors must be taken into account, making a general assessment difficult: the size of firms, which in Germany may vary from one to 60 000 employees; the manner of presentation of the goods for sale, with highly-qualified specialist shops and cash-and-carry warehouses at the two extremes; lastly, the range of goods, which may be relatively small - e.g. only ties - or cover more than 100 000 different articles in a department store.

At European level there is a great variation in the size of firms. In Italy the number of employees per establishment is 1.99, compared with 5.13 in the United Kingdom, with the other Member States in between. The trend is in general towards larger shops (Table 1).

There are also considerable differences between the market shares of the various forms of retail outlet. For example, department stores account for 11.3% of retail sales in Ireland and only 3.2% in Luxembourg (Table 2). In spite of these structural differences, however, the terms of employment tend to be rather similar from country to country.

In Germany, neither statutory and administrative regulations nor special clauses in agreements provide a basis for discrimination between men and women in vocational training. Mrs Joppe has already explained the legal position in the field of vocational training, so this need be dealt with only briefly here.

Article 2 of our Basic Law guarantees all persons the right to self-fulfilment, and Article 3(2) provides for equality between men and women while paragraph 3 of the same Article forbids discrimination in favour of

or against either sex. Article 5 guarantees the free choice of occupation.

On 1 July 1969 a Law on Vocational Training was introduced in Germany; it is at present being reviewed as part of the reform of the whole educational system. In addition to a number of stipulations which are less important in the present context, the law fixes for each occupation:

- (a) the suitability of training firms;
- (b) qualifications of instructors;
- (c) training schemes involving several firms;
- (d) subjects covered in training.

The subjects covered in training are statutorily fixed by the Federal Minister for Economic Affairs or other relevant Minister in agreement with the Federal Minister for Labour and Social Order in a training regulation for each occupation concerned. Each training regulation must contain at least:

- (a) name of occupation;
- (b) length of training (at least two but not more than three years);
- (c) the skills and knowledge to be acquired during the vocational training;
- (d) an outline of the syllabus and timetable for the training;
- (e) examination requirements.

There is a training regulation for the retail trade. Since 1968 it has provided for an initial two-year training period as sales assistant, which may be extended by a further year leading to qualifications as retail trader. At present some 102 100 young people are being trained under this regulation, 71 500 (70%) as sales assistants and 30 600 (30%) as retail traders.

After a training agreement has been drawn up, the conditions are registered with the Chamber of Commerce and Industry, which must see that they are observed and also organize the final examination.

In Germany compulsory education lasts nine years. Pupils who do not go on to further education must then attend a vocational training school for three years. The courses offered at these schools are adapted to the occupations and are intended to provide further, more thorough and systematic knowledge and skill for later working life. Trainees are released by their firms for up to 12 hours per week.

Most training is carried out by the firms themselves, which are empowered to do so by the Law on Vocational Training. This means that Germany has a dual system of vocational training i.e. there is very close cooperation between firms and vocational training schools, in which firms meet the cost of on-job training while schools are government-aided.

In addition a number of supplementary schemes are operated by groups of firms, generally financed by organizations of employers or employees, which can be made compulsory for both trainees and their firms by the addition of a clause to the training agreement. The ensuing costs are borne almost exclusively by the firms. Such schemes must be resorted to when certain skills and knowledge which, according to the training regulation, have to be acquired, cannot be demonstrated in on-job training in the firm.

As already stated, normal training for the retail trade consists in the nine-year period of compulsory education followed by attendance for a further two or three years at a vocational training school. At the end of this period, successful trainees are placed in category IV on the wage scale (Table 3). Institutions run by organizations of employers or employees are available for those with higher ambitions. At present the retail trade associations own 13 further training schools and 14 training centres, the former being generally used to obtain higher qualifications, while the training centres provide first and foremost refresher courses, retraining etc. However, this is not a rigid division. Participation in these courses is voluntary and must be financed by either the participant or his firm. In the former case the trainee may obtain a grant under the law on work promotion. The legislation of some Länder, such as Hesse, Lower Saxony, Bremen and Hamburg, provides for leave for training purposes, requiring that every employee be granted one to two weeks' paid training leave every one to two years.

Managerial posts in the retail trade are in general filled by promoting the most able in the lower ranks. Because of the difficult situation at German universities and the increasing number of vacant managerial positions which cannot be filled by promotion, there is a growing tendency to recruit school-leavers who have their Abitur, and who, after two years' training and a final examination, can carry out an activity in category III. At present there are no legal provisions governing this training or the final examination, so that large firms are for the time being experimenting with such training courses on their own responsibility.

It goes without saying that men and women in the retail trade have the same opportunity to take part in further training courses. Table 4 shows firstly what use is made of these opportunities in school. It should be borne in mind that women form 48.7% of the total population in the age groups under consideration. With a few exceptions - those who are preparing for "typically female" jobs - women are under-represented in nearly all categories. After the normal basic training there are no set paths for further training. A course at a school of advanced vocational training, where on average 30% of the students are women, usually leads to qualifications as business administrator and should open the way to a category II post. There are, however, no fixed agreements between managements and unions on this point, so that in the final analysis such posts go to the most able. The same applies to advancement courses in the training centres. These courses prepare workers to become assistant heads of department (category III) or heads of department (category II). Here too there are no fixed rules. The enormous structural differences in the retail trade, as shown in Table 5, are partly responsible. Firms employing fewer than 20 people offer very little possibility of promotion. This covers 93.6% of the firms, or 64.9% of all persons employed in the retail trade. The lack of promotion opportunities is partly offset by the more personal link with the firm and partly by financial advantages. Larger firms have differing management structures and so offer varying possibilities of promotion. In a medium-sized firm, for example, the ratio at sales assistant level (category IV) is approximately 68.7% female to 31.3% male. In category II and III on the other hand the ratio is 46.3% female to 53.7% male. The picture is completely different in firms with more than 30 000 employees i.e. in large department stores employing a total of some 300 000 people. In category IV the ratio here is 72.5% female to 27.5% male; in category III and II, on the other hand, 38.5% female to 61.5% male. There are also considerable variations from these average figures. An example for large-scale firms is:

	Full-time temporary	Part-time	Full-time	First sales	Trainee assistant departmental head	Assistant departmental head	Buyer
Men	38%	7%	32%	29%	44%	47%	58%
Women	62%	93%	68%	71%	56%	53%	42%

Since, as we have already said, there are no legal norms for further promotion, large firms have set up their own promotion systems placing the emphasis on different aspects. Employees wishing to take part in training

schemes can as a rule apply to the personnel officer. Before following a course of further training to improve their qualifications they attend courses of instruction ending with an examination. After passing this examination, which is organized within the firm and contains psychological, commercial and practical sections, the trainees receive instruction in their chosen subject and in management techniques in special seminars. These seminars last approximately one to four weeks and end with an examination covering the whole syllabus also organized within the firm. In some cases they are followed by a further training period concentrating on organizational and personnel management techniques, in order to accustom the successful candidates to their new positions as assistant departmental heads.

Where such courses are voluntary, women workers are frequently under-represented, in one case, for example, representing less than 30% of the participants. Table 6 gives details and also shows the comparatively lower standard of education of the female candidates. This imbalance can be corrected slightly, if, as mentioned above, schoolleavers at Abitur level are recruited, when approximately 45% of the candidates will be women. Because of the shortage of female managers, top positions in "typically female" departments have recently had to be filled by men, or female heads of department who until then had worked in general departments have had to be retrained to fill posts in departments short of staff.

In medium-sized firms prospective managers are chosen on the same basis as in large firms. However, more use is made of training schemes outside the firm, such as advanced vocational training schools or training centres. In this case the courses have approximately the same content as those organized by the large firms, but are projected on a smaller scale especially in the organizational and planning fields. In order to obtain enough participants to make courses worthwhile firms with friendly relations and operating in the same field often cooperate in organizing seminars.

Special training seminars for employees of smaller firms are often organized by the many buyers' unions and cooperatives. These courses are geared to the positions which trainees will ultimately fill and concentrate almost exclusively on business administration and organizational problems. Decision-making is also increasingly stimulated by the use of management games.

Hitherto it would appear that the initiative in training future managerial staff has tended to come only from the firms themselves. Individual workers' own ideas and ambitions are of course given free rein. They can, on their own initiative, raise their level of education by attending the various institutions run by workers' and employers' organizations or in private-

sector firms, in order to qualify for a better position. Prescribed patterns or recognized examinations exist only in one exceptional case - the training as a specialist administrator for the distributive trade introduced a few years ago. In approximately 400 hours of tuition the curriculum covers business management, commercial law, cost and price calculation, business and sales organization, training problems, economics, the art of expression and negotiating techniques. At the end of the seminar an examination is organized by the Chamber of Industry and Commerce and successful candidates qualify as specialist administrators for the distributive trade. On the basis of these qualifications they are entitled to posts between categories III and II.

Women workers are under-represented in training schemes organized within firms, and this is particularly true of seminars which employees attend on their own initiative. The ratio here is approximately 1 : 4.

Schemes organized within a firm are of course financed by the firm. In other cases candidates for private training may receive grants under the law on work promotion.

All further training in the retail trade is based first of all on basic education which has already been described in more detail. From 1970 to 1974, the number of training contracts between employees and employers declined and the proportion of women undergoing training also fell. There were two reasons for this. Firstly, the retail trade in Germany does not have a very good image and is not held in very high esteem by those wishing to train for a job i.e. when training opportunities are in plentiful supply, the retail trade ranks well down in order of preference. Secondly, and this explains the slight rise in the proportion of male trainees, training in stages - as explained above - was introduced in 1968, which makes this type of training more attractive to men. The overall picture is as follows:

	1970			1974		
	Total	Women	%	Total	Women	%
Sales assistant	67 542	56 674	83.9	71 556	58 075	31.2
Retail trader	54 502	33 726	61.9	30 605	16 734	54.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>122 044</b>	<b>90 400</b>	<b>74.1</b>	<b>102 161</b>	<b>74 809</b>	<b>73.3</b>

A glance at the average salaries in the various categories shows that men in the retail trade earn more than their female colleagues at the same level. Although the gap tended to narrow between 1970 and 1973, it is still clear

that there is no equality in pay. One reason for the difference is the fact that a large number of women work part-time only. Pay is therefore lower and this naturally affects the average. It must be seen, in this connection, whether women workers in the retail trade want more full-time employment and what social arrangements would be required. There is also the problem of whether firms can employ more full-time workers.

Another reason for the differences in salary, especially at lower levels, is that women are often younger than their male colleagues and are therefore placed on a lower salary step.

Another problem appears to be motivation to further training, which is often less marked in women workers because they assume from the very beginning that they will sooner or later give up working for some time and will then have great trouble in keeping up their further training. Discussion will certainly show that there are also questions of tradition, prejudices, misconceptions about roles on both sides and a number of other factors which go to make up the whole picture.

European Seminar  
on Vocational Guidance and Training for Women Workers

Phase B - Problems in vocational guidance and training for  
women workers

Subject: Conditions governing the access of women  
workers to vocational guidance and training

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Development of Vocational Training  
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Italy



0. DEFINITION AND SCOPE OF THE SUBJECT

This report deals with the conditions governing the access of women workers to vocational guidance and training in one particular manufacturing industry (textiles and clothing) throughout the whole of Italy.

We must realize from the start that in a country (Italy) and a sector (textiles) which are not structurally developed, the question of the employment of women will not be solved by well-intentioned legislative or even institutional measures which do not strike at the rest of the problem, such as vocational training and the legal status of women workers. Rather, changes are needed in structures and plans, and these are not part of our discussions.

Even without such changes, however, we can still usefully discuss the aims of vocational training and the methods of guidance needed in training, not to solve the problem but to help women participate actively, without vocational handicaps, in the struggle that such changes could involve.

1. ANALYSIS OF THE SITUATION

1.1 Main Features

In Italy, the textile and clothing industry employs over a million workers. In 1973, 67% of these were women.

The reorganization now in progress in the sector is gradually making workers redundant, especially women workers.

In spite of these reductions in the workforce, the gross product has remained the same. Since there have been no important technological innovations since the introduction of the shuttleless loom, the inference is that while large numbers of workers no longer figure in the statistics, they have not left the sector: they have continued working at home.

It will be sufficient to consider the following figures. They are revealing because they are broken down by geographical region:

Distribution of home-work in various branches of industry and various geographical areas

<u>Home-workers</u>	<u>Sector</u>	<u>Region or area</u>
480 000	Knitwear	Carpi, Modena, Siena, Emilia, Veneto, the Marches, Apulia
150 000	Textiles	The regions of Biella and Prato
150 000	Footwear	Riviera del Brenta (provinces of Padua and Venice), Vigevano and Castelfranco di Pisa

<u>Home-workers</u>	<u>Sector</u>	<u>Region or area</u>
155 000	Toys	Liguria, Florence, Como
100 000	Motor vehicle accessories	Piedmont, Lombardy
90 000	Mass-produced garments	Tuscany, Emilia, Lombardy, Apulia and Latium
80 000	Leather goods	Milan (Porta Ticinese), Modena, Veneto, Tuscany and Latium
68 000	Gloves	Naples, Caserta
30 000	Cosmetic products (wigs, eyelashes)	Calabria, Sicily
40 000	Plastics	Milan, Turin, Florence
25 000	Pottery	Veneto, Umbria, Abruzzo, Sicily
20 000	Electrical engineering	Provinces of Milan and Brescia
15 000	Bicycles and mopeds	Milan, Como and the Marches
15 000	Glass	Tuscany
12 000	Straw	Tuscany
170 000	Miscellaneous (furnishings, taps and fittings, arms, cutlery, radio-gramophones, television sets)	Veneto, Lombardy, Latium and others

Total 1 600 000 (one-tenth of the working population)

Sources: S. Brusco, "Preliminary notes for a study on home-workers", survey, April-June 1973.

In short, in a sector undergoing structural change and subject to cost pressures, we can clearly see the flexibility of the female labour force, which acts as an economic regulator.

## 1.2 Legislation and institutions

Until the recent reforming legislation in respect of the family, the law was silent on the condition of women, apart from isolated measures designed to meet particular circumstances (Law on working mothers, 1972, for example).

The law makes no other distinction between persons.

However, mention must be made of a general measure (Law No 877 of 18 December 1973 on the protection of home-workers) which establishes relatively stringent conditions - for this type of provision - and introduces strict controls.

As far as institutions are concerned, there are central organizations which are concerned with working conditions in general (ENPI Ente Nazionale Prevenzione Infortuni - National Accident Prevention Agency, Work Inspectorates, Health Offices), and in the more advanced area of encouraging workers to defend their own interests by setting up groups in factories for the safeguarding of conditions (Statute on Workers Rights, Article 9).

Though all this may appear to provide quite a far-sighted and extensive jurisdictional framework, it is clear nevertheless that centralized organizations cannot cover isolated activities such as home-working, while basic trade union organizations can only operate in consolidated industrial structures.

### 1.3 Proportion of the population concerned

It is of course very difficult to obtain figures for women workers being made redundant by industry or already working at home. The data available are those, given earlier in this paper, which relate to specific geographical areas.

However it is no exaggeration to say that there are altogether almost 6/700 000 women working at home.

It must be stressed (for it affects training) that this section of the population has no incentive to change, especially at a time of structural crisis and chronic insufficiency in the social services which make home-working an only too attractive alternative. It is therefore difficult to carry out the inspections provided for by law and to unionize the women working at home.

1.4 Structures, methods and resources

In this deteriorating employment situation, training activities, which in any case can be criticized because of the schooling or public assistance approach, are no better in the textile sector than mere pre-marriage stop-gaps for girls from poorer backgrounds (courses for knitters run by the parishes etc.).

### 1.5 Achievements and results

It is no easy job to gain acceptance for the idea of using vocational training in the service of an active labour policy (ISFOL, the Institute I represent, is now engaged in this task), and clearly any schemes are bound to be regarded as pilot projects. However, there is no specific guideline for organizing training so that it can be actively used to relieve the human and social tensions brought about by the situation described earlier.

## 2. ANALYSIS OF CAUSES

The structure of the textile industry, which is governed by the fluctuations in demand caused by changes in fashion and seasonal trends, means that there has to be a class of workers whose employment is unstable (to meet peaks in demand during times of expansion, for one cannot manufacture for stock).

In the most sensitive sectors the number of these workers is proportionately larger, as there is no way of forecasting demand. As a result of the delicate situation in the Italian textile industry, in which over the last ten years there has been a very sharp increase in labour costs as well as growing competition from outside the Community, this class of workers without job security is not only growing out of all proportion but is also spreading to include employees of large firms (systematic and indiscriminate use of the "Cassa integrazione guadagni" - compensation for loss of earnings).

Under these circumstances, which also weaken these workers' bargaining power, institutions and the law provide a very poor defence.

Male unemployment in other sectors encourages other ways of getting round the law, to guarantee at least one income per family. The people concerned will hardly express their desire for change through direct political or trade union action.



Finally, without going into detail on the reasons why the vocational training system is so unwieldy and difficult to adapt to an active labour policy, it will be sufficient here to stress that, since there is no planned guidance policy, the system itself drives women towards unskilled and repetitive jobs, making them the Achilles' heel of reorganization.

Certain conclusions can therefore be drawn:

1. It is useless to tackle the problems of this sector when the workers have already been thrown back on to the labour market;
2. The solution to the sector's structural problems lies in product diversification and emphasis on the manufacture of goods of a quality compatible with the now overriding pressure of costs;
3. If vocational training is to play any significant part in this process of structural reorganization, (which is highly complex from the technical point of view), the possibility of a real change in objectives (high quality products) cannot be ignored; and if such is the solution proposed, it will be more difficult than ever to upgrade and expand the female-worker element.

### 3. SOLUTIONS AND PROPOSALS

#### 3.1 Solutions tried - results

It has already been emphasized that there have been only isolated projects in this field, launched in response to serious and uncontrollable crises affecting companies or particular geographical areas.

I should like to go into more detail about one of these schemes, the Marvin-Gelber project of 1973, for three good reasons:

1. it was successful,
2. it received assistance from the European Social Fund,
3. it was no miracle; constructive action was taken in the face of difficulties, quite apart from the use made of training.

Marvin-Gelber was and is, notwithstanding the crisis into which it has again fallen, the largest shirt factory in Europe, with 1 500 women workers and a daily production of 50 000 (!) shirts. Such an output could be sold through the European department stores only as long as MG maintained its oligopoly position. A series of management difficulties led to its closure in 1971, at a time when the workers had just obtained rises in the same year.

The 40% increase in labour costs between 1960 and 1970 left the firm completely exposed on a market which could absorb a high level of supply and was opening up to goods from Eastern Europe and the developing countries.

In 1973, after a sit-in lasting two years, the factory was taken over by the GEPI (Gestione Piccole Imprese - Administration of Small Companies) an Italian financial holding company for relaunching companies in difficulties.

GEPI's plan for Marvin-Gelber was to choose a different market sector: high-quality sophisticated products, easily adaptable to the whims of fashion. The assembly-line system, where the work had been broken down into its smallest components, was of course no longer suitable for this type of production. Job content had to be reorganized, giving the workers tasks complete in themselves and which allowed, within certain limits, some creative scope (cutting). The lower rate of production was to be offset by a corresponding improvement in quality.

In pursuit of this policy, a large-scale operation for retraining the women workers was organized and financed by the ESF.

Throughout the whole of 1974, the upswing in the company's business proved GEPI right. Though today Marvin-Gelber has again been hit by the severe market crisis, like the rest of the clothing industry, the reaction of the workers has been quite different. The vocational training course has given them an independent occupational standing and skills, and a general understanding of the social, economic and political context in which the firm operates. Resistance to the introduction of the redundancy payment system (Cassa integrazione), the rejection of proposals to work at home, confirm this new maturity.

### 3.2 Possible and desirable solutions

Within the more general context of the problem we are examining, the Marvin-Gelber case illustrates two facts at least.

1. While vocational training, as we said earlier, cannot provide even a temporary solution to the problem of the employment of women, it is an important instrument for political and social development.
2. The solution must be sought in the organization of work and the training directly involved: training for training's sake is merely a relief and welfare measure.

On the other hand, the Marvin-Gelber case shows that in the textile industry vocational training, even when approached in this way (linked with the reorganization of work), can be no guarantee of a lasting solution.

Now we come to the heart of the matter.

The problem of vocational training for women is subordinate to the problem of those industrial sectors in which female labour is used and the type of employment available to women in these sectors.

By exploiting the vulnerability of women workers as regards bargaining (maternity), social services (lack of nursery schools, crèches, etc.), and their traditional place in a male-dominated society, the industrial system has made women the most significant single group in the reserve army of industrial workers.

The result - and not the cause - is that women are confined to jobs with very limited content, and there is a concomitant lack of training structures, a situation which we are attacking at this seminar.

Though there should be structural answers to a structural analysis (in short: building nursery schools, intensifying industrialization, and redressing the imbalance of male dominance) something can still be done in their absence.

### 3.3 Prospects and proposals

A first concrete objective (still within the limits described) must be to reestablish a balance in the distribution of the labour market among industrial sectors. With its painful exploitation of home-workers, the textile sector is the most striking example, only because of intrinsic structural weakness.

But other sectors which employ large numbers of women are affected, even though they have no unemployment: the distributive trades, the food industry, teaching.

Eliminating the cliché about women's jobs is the first step, even though a negative one, to leaving the door ajar (and no more) for women to go into mechanical engineering, skilled jobs in the service industries, sophisticated technologies, etc. A guidance policy which does not just confirm the effects of basic education which puts women in a subordinate position (shop-assistant, knitter, hostess, actress or teacher) is necessary, but of course not sufficient.

The least that the vocational training system must provide is large-scale access for girls to vocational training centres in the mechanical engineering industry or to the faculties of engineering (as in countries which are more developed than Italy, where this ideal remains quite utopic), and refresher courses for women going back to work after having had children.

To come back to the problem with which we are dealing, in the Italian textile industry, in view of the inevitable limitations on employment opportunities caused by shrinking market demand, it is essential that the skilled female labour force be retrained for so-called men's jobs.

Hence the policy which, in my opinion and that of the Institute I represent, the ESF should follow in this field.

It should not give financial support for interventions specifically for women. This is possible only in countries which are more developed than Italy: in Naples, the suggestion that women who have had two children should seek paid work would be treated as a joke. In other words, there is no point hammering on a closed door. What are needed are measures to redress the balance in guidance and training with the aim of establishing a balanced labour market.

In practical terms, this means aid should be given to industrial vocational training centres for male workers so that they can be suitably equipped for receiving women (living facilities). Aid should also be granted to firms to retrain women workers for jobs where they have not traditionally been employed, and for training courses for supervisory and managerial jobs which will make for more balanced recruitment.

These interventions could take the form of an additional item of expenditure under the existing regulations (a new category, for example, A25) without opening up new areas of eligibility (as in the case of aid for young people), which only encourages applications on behalf of well-established activities and would be like pouring water down the drain.

As regards the regulations themselves, an application of Article 5 (on the lines of a resort to the ERDF) which encouraged home-workers to come back to work inside the company (in non-priority areas too) would help in mobilizing workers, as stated earlier.

Turning to research and trial training schemes which could be carried out by the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, maps and surveys on the situation of women workers in Europe (and, for example, the marginal status of migrant workers' wives) could be an important initiative which would go beyond vocational training as an end in itself. Teaching aids for use by individuals or small groups could form a remote guidance network for the female labour force, both potential and existing; this is essential for the removal of barriers which technological ignorance has set up around social and cultural backwardness (we could never have a female lathe operator!).

To come back to my initial argument above structures, the way out of the current situation for women will be found only when the answer has been found to under-development. But to take this as an excuse for neglecting measures (training, research, financing) for the benefit of women in the less-favoured countries would in fact mean that the ESF and the other EEC instruments would be reduced to giving charity to countries which, if the conditions of eligibility for aid were altered, could hardly make use of the Fund in its new form.

If the position of women were to be subordinated to the principle that no country should get more from Community funds than it pays in - the principle of "just return", then the results of our work would be poor indeed.



EUROPEAN SEMINAR ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND TRAINING FOR WOMEN WORKERS

Phase B - Problems connected with the vocational guidance and training of  
women workers

Subject (II/5):

Conditions relating to the access of women workers in rural areas to  
vocational guidance and training (basic training and further training)

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Contents

1. Preliminary remarks
2. The term "rural areas"
3. Conditions
  - 3.1 Institutional
  - 3.2 Psycho-sociological
  - 3.3 Economic
  - 3.4 Practical
4. Conclusion

Annex: Statistical tables.

1. Preliminary remarks

This report should be considered as directly connected with Mr Arnu's report "Conditions of access for women workers to vocational guidance and training in non-rural areas". The specific characteristics of rural areas and their residents may also lead to specific attempts at solutions to the problems of vocational guidance and training for women workers. For this reason these should be dealt with in a separate report.

2. The term "rural areas"

According to the Federal Law on Regional Planning (Article 2(1)) rural areas are described as areas in which living standards as a whole lag considerably behind the national average or where there is danger of this. Views as to what determines such lagging behind and, therefore, what constitutes a "rural area" are certainly not unanimous although there is general agreement that 75% of the territory of the Federal Republic of Germany and 33% of the population, a figure practically unchanged since the beginning of the 1950s, belong to the rural areas. See also Table 1 in the Annex.

As long ago as the International Conference of Statisticians in 1887<sup>1</sup>, the size of municipalities was used as a basic demographic indicator of rural areas (municipalities up to 5 000 inhabitants). Other easily available indicators are the population density, employment structure, density of public and private services, percentage of workers on the land and others. It is more difficult to use the structure of population groups as an indicator to define the term "rural areas". "Rural areas" must not, however, be thought of as homogeneous. At least three types of rural areas must be distinguished, corresponding to the urban development forces affecting the countryside:

(a) Rural areas near large centres of population

<sup>1</sup> Struff, Richard: Abgrenzung des Ländlichen Raumes, in: Zschft. für Agrargeschichte und Agrarsoziologie 2/1975, page 88.

These areas receive, for example, the overspill from the conurbations and show a trend towards the gradual building over of the open spaces needed for ecological regeneration and recreation. This type of area also has a more balanced structure of population groups than the other two types.

(b) Rural areas near expanding medium-sized centres

These areas, which lie near towns with a population of over 30 000 to 40 000 inhabitants and which have themselves about 100 000 inhabitants, have so far generally had good opportunities to develop their infrastructure.

(c) Rural areas near less important medium-sized centres

Rural areas in which less than 30 000 to 40 000 inhabitants live in close proximity to a medium-sized centre generally have few opportunities for development either with regard to industrialization or with regard to services for the population. This, however, gives no indication as to the extent to which they carry out the other functions of rural areas such as supplying food and maintaining the ecological balance. The structure of population groups in such areas, however, shows a clear preponderance of the lower categories.

If the current term "rural areas" is to be understood today in these three senses, both from a socio-political and a socio-economic point of view, then it must be borne in mind when dealing with the problems of vocational guidance and training for women workers that in rural areas

- (a) there is a considerably lower population density;
- (b) non-urban functions predominate;
- (c) there is a wide range in the pattern of house and land ownership;
- (d) the lower social groups who have few chances of moving up the social scale via their careers are over-represented.

However it must clearly be borne in mind that urban and rural areas are to be seen as "two aspects of one cultural and socio-economic development process whose main characteristics are the same"<sup>2</sup>. This means a far-reaching change in the relationship urban areas/rural areas as compared with the pre-industrial era.

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<sup>2</sup>Niehaus, Heinrich: Die Chance des Landes in der modernen Gesellschaft, in: Ländliche Sozialforschung (Berichte über Landwirtschaft, SH. 168, 1957, page 28.

3. Conditions of access for women workers to vocational guidance and training

The conditions are extremely complex for the most part and interdependent and are a mixture of economic and sociological conditions.

3.1 Institutional conditions

Institutional, i.e., relating to an institution, applies to the three meanings of the term "institution":

- (a) a private or public establishment;
- (b) a socially approved form of a group (i.e., marriage, family);
- (c) form of activity organized within a political unit (i.e., elections, legislation, legal remedy).

As regards the "rural areas" aspect of the subject to be dealt with, the meanings of institution given in (a) and (b) seem relevant and the concept corresponding to the meaning under (b) is treated under 3.2. In this chapter, therefore, the institutional conditions relating to access to guidance and training are the school, the undertaking, the trade or professional organization and the employment office in the rural areas.

Whereas the last two institutions referred to are obviously a rarity in the countryside and rank as external organizations in any case, the school, in its function as a provider of general, vocational, advanced technical and higher education, has practically disappeared from the rural areas, either as part of a general concentration or as a result of school reforms. The seemingly inevitable withdrawal of institutions from the area is also to be noted in the case of business undertakings. The very predominance of agricultural and craft undertakings means that, when such undertakings undergo rationalization, the traditional lack of industrial jobs and training becomes vividly obvious.

Where new industrial jobs can be created, these are primarily in small or, at best, medium-sized undertakings which require women mainly for

unskilled work. In agriculture, which is concentrated primarily in rural areas, there were still 1 030 000 women employed in 1974 (1964: 1 609 000 women<sup>3</sup>), mainly as family agricultural workers (860 000 employed) on a part-time basis. Agriculture therefore provided about 26% of women employed in the rural areas with a job.

If one must therefore conclude that rural areas obviously have a chronic shortage or a complete lack of the institutions of significance for an enquiry, such as employment offices and trade associations to provide guidance services, factories and schools to provide training and factories to provide employment for female workers, then the question must be asked whether such institutions are easily accessible in nearby urban areas - without this necessitating a change of residence, i.e., a move from a rural to an urban area. Tables 2 and 3 (average distance from and size of catchment areas) will help to answer this question. Taking into account with the greatest caution the results of the continuing fall in the birth rate, it may be deduced that in this decade, in large areas of the country, distances of twenty kilometres must still be travelled to reach a junior high school<sup>4</sup>. Since rural areas, in contrast to cities and towns, are primarily dependent on individual transport, the institutions cannot be reached by women, who are far more dependent on public transport.

### 3.2 Psycho-sociological conditions

It is true of rural areas in general and of women in rural areas in particular that their integration into industrial society has been delayed. We can assume that such retardation also makes the access to vocational guidance and training more difficult and that the factors involved are psychological as well as social.

<sup>3</sup> Statistisches Jahrbuch 1975 für die Bundesrepublik Deutschland, page 150, Stuttgart 1975.

<sup>4</sup> Sinkwitz, Peter: Auswirkungen des Geburtenrückgangs, in: Geburtenrückgang - Konsequenzen für den ländlichen Raum, Heft 73 der Schriftenreihe für ländliche Sozialfragen, page 50, Hannover 1975.

A recent basic work<sup>5</sup> examines the ideals and outlook of urban and rural families. The comprehensive results confirm that urban/rural differences are on the whole due to the varying population structure. As already mentioned above, the lower categories are heavily overrepresented in rural areas, where the status index for determining the categories includes job, level of education, income, strength of confessional ties, way of life and household equipment. If therefore it is incorrect to speak of a basic difference between urban and rural areas, the retardation or isolation of any group within the population can not really be considered as the expression of social attitudes peculiar to rural areas. The psychological and sociological barriers affecting women workers in rural areas as regards access to vocational guidance and training would automatically be lowered once the same opportunities for social advancement were available in both urban and rural areas.

We must now ask the question whether the attitudes of the lower social categories manifest themselves in the same way in rural areas as in urban areas, so that the conditions of access coincide. Here there are in fact differences. The lack of horizontal and vertical mobility as a criterion for belonging to the lower social strata is due to an extremely strong local attachment to, and identification with, the village as a social unit and this is reinforced by the strong ties resulting from the ownership of land<sup>6</sup>. At the same time, strong local attachment and contentment with village living conditions correlate. Work is also part of this<sup>7</sup>.

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<sup>5</sup>Knirim, Christa: Erziehungsleitbilder in Stadt- und Landfamilien in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland, page 229, Bonn 1974.

<sup>6</sup>Kromka, Franz: Politische, gesellige und religiös-kirchliche Verhaltensmuster in ehemals kleinbäuerlichen Dörfern, in: Lebensverhältnisse auf dem Lande, Hsgb. Forschungsgesellschaft für Agrarpolitik und Agrarsoziologie, page 408, Bonn 1974.

<sup>7</sup>Heidtmann, Willy: Strukturverbesserung und Sozialverhalten in ländlichen Gemeinden, page 54, Hiltrup 1970.

According to a survey by Heidtmann, about two-thirds of the non-agricultural working population had not changed their jobs at all during the previous fifteen years. The reason expressly given was job satisfaction. Those questioned who had changed their job hardly mentioned career advancement as the reason. Planck, in his representative study of youth in rural areas<sup>8</sup>, came to the conclusion that the career wishes of young people in rural areas are mainly conditioned by the occupational and economic structure of the rural environment. They are on the whole limited to the narrow horizon of the usual local jobs.

All this applies although according to Planck<sup>9</sup> two-thirds of the non-agricultural employed persons are commuters. In the case of women, the percentage of commuters varies from 54% for unmarried women to 15% for married women surveyed. Of the women employed, 76% also said that they enjoyed their present job very much.

Although opportunities for social advancement hardly occur during their working lives the 26-28 age group surveyed by Planck<sup>10</sup> showed that 26% had changed their jobs, and 43% of these gave better earning opportunities, only 19% better career prospects and 15% family reasons as the motive for this. The self-evaluation of educational level, also given by Planck<sup>11</sup>, is revealing with regard to trends among the women questioned:

Educational level	men questioned		women questioned	
	1955 in %	1968 in %	1955 in %	1968 in %
insufficient	18	17	34	37
average	22	22	43	22
satisfactory	46	49	17	34
good	14	12	6	7
	100	100	100	100

66% of the women questioned also stated that good vocational training was the best guarantee for a good secure existence (a good marriage: only 6%).

<sup>8</sup> Planck, Ulrich: Landjugend im sozialen Wandel, page 92, München 1970.

<sup>9</sup> Ibid., page 105.

<sup>10</sup> Ibid., page 97.

<sup>11</sup> Ibid., page 70.

The job shortage has been alleviated inasmuch as the proportion of the women questioned by Planck who had completed initial occupational training rose from 16% in 1955 to 44% in 1968<sup>12</sup>.

More recent figures show a continuation of the trend until 1974<sup>13</sup>. Figures available from Hesse showing that the proportion of junior secondary school-leavers between 15 and 22 years who had neither begun nor completed vocational training went down from 22% in 1970 to 15% in 1974. Although these and the other figures given above are not complete statistical surveys, nevertheless they shed some light on the general socio-structural conditions relating to the access of women workers in rural areas to vocational guidance and training. There has been little research done on the psychological barriers affecting women in rural areas. One study deals with the resistance to education in rural areas, its socio-psychological causes and its educational relevance<sup>14</sup>.

There are various obstacles of this kind which block access to vocational guidance and to the acquisition of occupational qualifications or make it very difficult:

- (a) "Mental blocks" due to the social experience of the rural population, revealing a consciousness of their own inadequacy. This is particularly evident in the negative attitude towards the training of girls, i.e., "a girl doesn't need to get any training; she just has to be able to keep house later on". Whereas 53% of the farmers agreed with this and 43% said the statement was completely wrong, 33% of the non-farmers agreed with it and 64% were against it<sup>15</sup>. According to Peisert<sup>16</sup> the mental blocks are relics of conservative peasant ways of life, aggravated by the lack of precedents, the inadequate educational environment and

<sup>12</sup>Planck, *ibid.*, page 71.

<sup>13</sup>Sinkwitz, Peter: Landjugenporträt, page 7, 2 Aufl. Bonn 1974.

<sup>14</sup>Klaus-Roeder, Rosemarie: Bildungswiderstände im Ländlichen Bereich - ihre sozialpsychologischen Ursachen und ihre bildungspolitische Relevanz, in: Bildungspolitische Probleme in psychologischer Sicht, page 111, Frankfurt 1969.

<sup>15</sup>Knirim, a.a.O., page 172.

<sup>16</sup>Peisert, H.: Soziale Lage u. Bildungschancen in Deutschland, page 148, München 1967.



the prejudices of key influential persons<sup>16a</sup>.

- (b) Feelings of inadequacy due to language problems, in particular the inability to express oneself in a formal manner. Kuhl-Greif gives good examples of this<sup>17</sup>.

It is the lack of information, the fear of unfathomable anonymous institutions and the lack of guidance which make women in rural areas so resigned to their lot and which will make access to occupational guidance and more specialized vocational training difficult until active contact is established by the institutions.

### 3.3 Economic conditions

In view of the complexity of the socio-economic background I should merely like to point out here that child labour was widespread for economic reasons well into the 50s in localities where there were many small farmers and made it difficult to acquire a skilled trade. This phenomenon seems in the meantime to have been overcome.

On the other hand, good economic prospects could provide the rural population with a stronger incentive towards investments in training than could the prospect of career advancement, since the social status in rural localities can be determined just as much by the extent of involvement in the village community life and through the social institution of "neighbourly relations".

To deal with the subject in full, one should also refer to one important macro-economic aspect of providing industrial jobs in rural areas. This is the development of industrial centres with adequate facilities for medium-sized firms (qualified workers, organizational contacts, good connections with the road transport network).

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<sup>16a</sup>In my own survey (Materialband A zum Landjugendportrat, Bielefeld 1970) the main reason given by young people in rural areas for not having realized their career ambitions was "my parents wouldn't let me" (Men: 71%, girls: 58%).

<sup>17</sup>Kuhl-Greif, Martha: Probleme der Bevölkerung in kleinen Gemeinden, page 46 f., Frankfurt 1973.

Labour-market centres of this kind must have a certain minimum size.

"If one takes into account skilled workers' preferences as to a place of residence and the existing opportunities for industrialization in rural areas, then one can venture to say that in the long term only those areas which have a centre with at least 60 000 inhabitants have a chance to survive<sup>18</sup>." In view of their expanding "catchment areas", these centres will also have to take over the function of providing jobs for unskilled and semi-skilled workers and for women in particular. The commuting distances involved can be deduced from Table 2.

### 3.4 Practical conditions

This chapter examines briefly some practical requirements relating to the improvement of access without assessing the feasibility of solutions.

1. In the abovementioned survey by Heidtmann it was established<sup>19</sup> that almost 50% of the persons questioned did not wish or were not able to express their ideas on the career choices of their children. The reason for this may be bewilderment in a fast-changing and varied industrial world. We must demand that the authorities for vocational guidance become more aware of their responsibilities towards the rural areas, where almost 90% of the population belongs to the lower social brackets (urban areas: lower bracket to lower-middle bracket 63%<sup>20</sup>). Moreover, parents often underestimate the wishes and abilities of their children.
2. A prerequisite for effective vocational guidance is the clarification of the emotional background of the man or woman asking for guidance and an understanding of their mentality. If the person giving occupational guidance does not come from a rural area himself, he must acquire additional knowledge and qualifications.

<sup>18</sup> Klemmer, Paul: Auswirkungen des Geburtenrückganges auf die Entwicklung des Arbeitsmarktes im ländlichen Raum, in: Geburtenrückgang - Konsequenzen für den ländlichen Raum, Heft 73 der Schriftenreihe für ländliche Sozialfragen, page 83, Hannover 1975.

<sup>19</sup> Heidtmann, a.a.O., page 55.

<sup>20</sup> Fürstenberg, Friedrich: Die Sozialstruktur der Bundesrepublik Deutschland, page 122, third edition, Opladen 1974.

3. The first steps towards improving access to jobs must be directed at the family and the individual. Above all the motivation for training must be strengthened and guidance provided. A beginning can be made through further and adult education.
4. If the self-sufficiency of working people in rural areas is misunderstood and if there is no quantitative and qualitative improvement in the supply of jobs for women, occupational guidance might run the risk of merely "organizing poverty". In many thinly-populated areas of the country a sort of vicious circle has formed which increases the danger of undesirable demographic changes. Clear-cut political decisions on the future of such areas are called for, along with the corresponding measures to implement them.

#### 4. Conclusion

Even rural areas are largely integrated into the industrialized economy and society of the Federal Republic of Germany. The replacement of traditional peasant ways of life by new life-styles has meant that the differences between urban areas and rural areas are now only a matter of degree. Rural areas are characterized by the lower density of population, by stronger local attachments and more closely-knit structures, by the varied pattern of land ownership, by the inadequacy of many facilities and by an above-average predominance of the lower social strata. This greatly hinders the access of female workers to occupational guidance and training and therefore comprehensive development and aid measures are required so that those concerned can help themselves effectively.