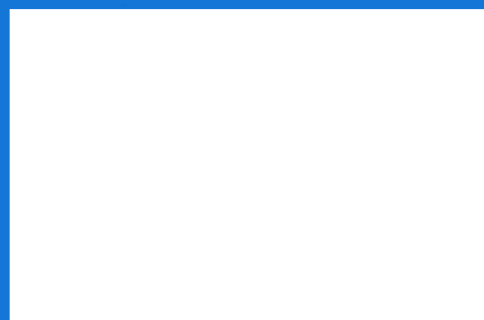




# Vocational training



**Agriculture**

# Vocational training

## Bulletin of the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training

# CEDEFOP

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## Editorial

This Bulletin issue calls the attention of our readers to trends and developments in vocational training in one of the economic sectors of the European Community, namely, agriculture, a sector which plays and will continue to play an important role in economic activity and in efforts to achieve balanced economic growth.

With the effective help of the Community, the agricultural organizations have established CEPFAR, an institution which within the sphere of agricultural vocational training plays a role similar to that of CEDEFOP. Working in close cooperation, these two institutions have prepared this issue of the Bulletin.

Called for in the field of agriculture at all levels of development is the availability of training which equips young people and adults with the qualifications needed to successfully meet the challenge of ongoing changes that have characterized the agricultural sector over the decades, master the technologies stemming from rapid scientific development, preserve the natural heritage, and achieve a level of income comparable with that obtaining in other economic sectors.

The increasingly rapid postwar development of industrial societies has been accompanied by a profound change in agricultural and rural areas and has accelerated the integration of farming and rural life into the overall socio-economic system. Farmers have had to constantly adapt to new conditions dictated by an evolving society: they must reorient their production, they must modernize their production technology, and they must create economic structures capable of responding to the specific requirements of their sector as well as to consumer needs. Farmers are confronted with innovations of all kinds to a much greater extent than are persons of any other profession.

Over the past 30 years agriculture has experienced a number of very significant changes and this process has by no means run its course. Agricultural development is being challenged, for example, by a genuine industrial revolution which threatens not only to empty our countrysides but also to provoke serious imbalances in western countries and in the world at large.

In what way can we help the agricultural world, plagued as it is by a process of constant adaptation? Training supported by a regular flow of information constitutes a powerful tool of development and is therefore an essential element of every policy approach. 'Certainly we all know that even though education is a necessary prerequisite of socio-economic development, it does not alone suffice. If it is to be effective, educational policy must be supported by a vigorous structural and cyclical policy. It nevertheless remains true that the ability of human beings to observe, to interpret, and to take action basically determines their ability to adapt and at the same time fructifies their inner growth and personal freedom'.<sup>1</sup>

Initiatives in the field of agricultural vocational training represent an impressive, multifold, diversified total effort, a capability to adapt to new needs, which latter can educe useful reflection in the search for greater appropriateness of the systems of vocational training preparing for occupations in the secondary and the tertiary sector.

To provoke an exchange of ideas, to clear the way for the harmonization and coordination of future actions to be launched in the key areas of vocational training for the benefit also of the agricultural and rural world, this is the objective of CEDEFOP and CEPFAR alike.

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<sup>1</sup> Professor Louis Malassis.

## ARTICLES

# Introduction

*T. J. Maher*<sup>1</sup>, *C. Amis*<sup>2</sup>

In the building of Europe, a process which recently acquired a new dimension with the direct election of the European Parliament, agriculture assumed the role of pioneer, and it is today one of the few economic sectors which has been integrated. In fact it is at European level that all decisions regarding agricultural marketing policy and agricultural price policy take place.

The farmers' professional organizations and the farm workers' organizations, whose twofold task it is to represent the interests of their members and to promote agriculture in Europe, very soon became aware of the importance of adequate training for their elected representatives and their administrators within the European context. They were the first to equip themselves with an instrument designed to efficiently meet the needs in agricultural and rural areas for information, training, and development. In 1972 they founded the European Training and Development Centre for Farming and Rural Life – C.E.P.F.A.R., unique in being the first European training centre to deal exclusively with a specific economic sector and in counting among its founding members all the bodies concerned with the problems of agriculture in Europe, namely, the farmers' professional organizations, the farm workers' organizations, the farmers' cooperative organizations, the young farmers' organizations, the rural

women's organizations, and the EC authorities (Commission, European Parliament, Economic and Social Committee).

During its twenty-five years of existence the common agricultural policy has met with both success and failure. Nonetheless it remains a tangible expression of the Community solidarity manifest among the EC Member States on the one hand and between EC Member States and third countries on the other.

Since the adoption of the common agricultural policy agriculture in Europe has undergone considerable transformation. This has been determined by a number of factors, including the general economic situation in Europe, technological development, and the concept of progress as propounded in western economic theory. The conjunction of all these factors has led to an increase in overall productivity and opened the way to immediate consequences such as rural exodus, increase in the average size of farms, specialization, structural problems, social problems, and the like.

The European farmer is reacting to these changes by seeking to adapt, to move forward, and to become equipped to successfully master the many challenges and responsibilities of his profession. He has become aware of the need to undergo appropriate training and take advantage of the assistance and counselling available in order to share, at whatever level, in progress being made in agricultural and rural areas within the European context.

Seen from this aspect it is obvious that any person carrying responsibility, whether at national or European level and whether within or outside the field of agriculture, should have access to training and information opportunities which enable him to discharge his regional, national, or enterprise-specific responsibilities within the European context in which he finds himself.

The agricultural organizations operating at European level,<sup>3</sup> therefore undertook to establish the European Training and Development Centre for Farming and Rural Life. They are confident that the work of the European centres will continue to expand within a broad sphere of activity, with CEDEFOP functioning as the coordinating instrument indispensable to the harmonious development of vocational training in Europe.

The European agricultural organizations welcome the fact that the work which has been undertaken at C.E.P.F.A.R. and is now beginning to bear fruit continues to be well received and commands as much respect as does that undertaken by the organizations themselves.

C.E.P.F.A.R. is very appreciative of CEDEFOP's generous cooperation, which has led to the publication of this report on agricultural training providing an insight into the activities pursued to date by C.E.P.F.A.R.

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President of the Consultative Committee on Social Affairs.  
for Farmers and Members of their Family.

<sup>3</sup> EC Farmers' Professional Organizations Committee – COPA, the EC General Committee for Farmers' Cooperative Organizations – COGECA, the European Federation of Farm Workers' Organizations – EFA, and the European Council of Young Farmers – CEJA.



# Educational work in agriculture

*C. von Heereman*

I find it in my capacity as President of C.O.P.A. (EC Farmers' Professional Organizations' Committee) most encouraging that the CEDEFOP Bulletin is devoting attention to aspects of educational work in the field of agriculture. We are living at a time in which education has become a focal point of interest. Yet the intensity and spread of the discussions cannot hide the fact that in many instances things are by no means as they should be. Naturally I can judge much only against the background of my experiences in the Federal Republic of Germany. I do believe, however, that the fundamental principles which we should adhere to hold true for all Member States of the European Community and elsewhere as well. Problems which farmers and other members of the rural community must come to grips with are ones common to all EC Member States, even though the point of departure differs from one Member State to another.

The CEDEFOP Bulletin is primarily concerned with vocational training. It must, however, be realized that vocational training cannot begin until the young person has reached a certain age. The training, whatever its organizational form, will be successful only to the degree that it has been preceded by effective educational work. In other words, success in a chosen career is at the same time a matter of good parental upbringing and general education acquired in primary and perhaps also secondary schooling. The way in which the education system is organized is not so important as is the knowledge and know-how transmitted and the awakening of talents and awareness which help to build the young person's personality.

Educational work involves human beings. Human beings are not robots which need only to be programmed, they are thinking and feeling creatures whose societal instincts call for thorough preparation for life within the community. Specialized vocational training, or the acquisition of knowledge and skills required for a specific occupation, constitutes only a part of this necessary preparation, indeed in a certain sense not even the most important part. Machines

can be so constructed that they can optimally discharge certain tasks with a precision which a worker cannot match. But machines cannot carry responsibility. Nor can they contribute to the further development of human society. They are simply means to an end and will remain so even in this computer age. Our objective is a human society in which every individual is free to live as he chooses and shape his personality and is able to contribute his share to the realization of this objective for all mankind.

These principles apply also to agriculture, above all to agriculture within the European context. For many sectors of vocational training my reference to agriculture is in turn reference to the entire rural population, since all inhabitants of rural areas are faced with the same problems.

It is within the confines of the parental home that a young person experiences, at an early age which permits of no interference by state organs, the most essential moments of personality building. Personal fate is determined to a greater extent within the family during early years of life than within the school system during later years. One of the tasks of every government policy, including agricultural policy, must therefore be to contribute to the extent possible to the strengthening of family life. Economic conditions must be such that mothers are able to adequately care for their small children. They must not be forced by economic circumstances to neglect this most important duty in order to make ends meet. In the last analysis this is a matter of income policy. Not unimportant in this respect is the question as to whether agricultural production is based on family farming or on industrially organized large farms. An agricultural structure based on family farming brings many social advantages which can have a strong impact on child rearing.

The problems which confront the agricultural and rural areas of the European Community will become increasingly grave as time passes. The shape they will take will depend to a large extent on the way in which farmers, farm

workers, and workers in other rural sectors tackle them now. It is during child rearing that the desired motivation is either encouraged or inhibited, and it is therefore extremely important that parents be contacted in this respect via adult education.

Children living in rural areas who are of preschool age enjoy a number of advantages which are seldom available to their counterparts in large cities and in conurbations. These advantages must be made use of. Above all parents must teach their children not to think of rural life and work in the fields as a burden which must be got rid of as soon as possible. Children should be motivated to conceive of their life and their work in the countryside as a contribution to the task of achieving with the help of effective government policy to be sure but also by means of their own innovative action necessary improvements in the rural sector.

In many areas of the European Community children first meet up with organized learning in kindergarten. It is therefore important that not only parents but also relevant organizations undertake to make certain that sufficient kindergarten places are available. Kindergartens can not only provide family farms with effective support in the task of child rearing but also facilitate farm management during periods when the work load is heavy.

Compulsory schooling is common to all Member States. In agricultural and rural areas it is therefore very important to have a sufficient number of centrally located primary schools so that the children do not have long ways to go and crowded classrooms to contend with. Above all for young pupils, as pedagogical experience has shown, small classes and good teachers are more determinant than perfect technical organization. In this respect many countries can probably profit by some mistakes which have been made in the Federal Republic of Germany.

Greatest attention must be paid at all school levels to the matter of teachers.

Teachers must above all have pedagogic talent and love children. It is not so important that they be thoroughly knowledgeable in a specific subject, for if they cannot transmit their knowledge and thus fulfil the educational task which the school has assumed, they should not be teaching.

This educational process is of particular importance to later working life also in agriculture. Knowledge and skills which have not been acquired in school can be mastered later on. If, on the other hand, certain attributes which are needed in working life are not cultivated early on, this can have negative consequences quite in spite of such skill mastery. I refer here to attributes which can hardly be taught within the framework of official curricula: a feeling for responsibility, a willingness to work, a sense of duty, ability to take difficulties and failures in stride, and ability to adjust to new or difficult situations. All these attributes must be schooled in a time-consuming educational process. Only when all teachers and trainers fully realize that this is an educational task which they must discharge with appropriate pedagogical skill can we train in sufficient number adults who are able to properly run family farms and share in the task of fruitfully designing the future of the countryside.

Another necessary attribute from the standpoint of agricultural and rural development is solidarity. Every community is dependent on the entire union of interests and responsibilities in its citizens. The development of this feeling of solidarity is frequently hindered by an erroneously conceived sense of competition which makes its presence felt not only in the villages but also, unfortunately, in the agricultural policy of the European Community. If a sense of solidarity is not awakened in EC agriculture quite in spite of the welcomed competition among farmers, it will be the worse for all of us. Having this feeling of solidarity and acting upon it when the need arises is the fruit of social learning begun early in life. The Christian commandment of brotherly love is the foundation stone of solidarity. There is no question but than this phase of early education, which reaches down into nonquantifiable realms where curricula can hardly penetrate, is absolutely indispensable.

Having made these more general remarks, I now turn attention to special aspects of various educational sectors. In the field of agricultural vocational training instruction must be geared to actual

practice, since agriculture is an activity in which practical experience plays a very significant role. Within certain limits the organizational nature of the training is relatively unimportant. More important are the professional skills and human qualities of those who train the young people. Very high requirements must be set, partially in view of the fact that the personality-building task to which I have referred has a definite role to play also in practice-oriented vocational training. Persons preparing young learners for specific occupations shape the latter's personality even when this is not consciously planned. Since pending problems of European agricultural policy can be mastered only by farmers and woman farmers who, in addition to being properly trained, are ready to carry responsibility and dedicate themselves to matters of common communal concern, it is imperative that vocational training not be restricted to technical skills alone.

In this connection I wish to comment briefly on the task of harmonization in the European Community. Vocational training is organized in various ways within the Community, and therefore I do not believe that harmonization will become possible in the foreseeable future. The education systems of the respective Member States reach far back in history and constitute closed structures, no part of which can be altered without disturbing the entire structure. What is possible, however, is the exchange of experiences, which would lead to improvements in each Member State to the benefit of all. This holds true also for agriculture, in which connection farmers' professional organizations are of extreme importance. These organizations, which are obligated to their members only and need not take institutional considerations into account, are in a much better position to make practical use of experiences gained in other Member States than are government officials in most instances. Through the activity of such organizations changes and improvements can be more rapidly made, even though we must not delude ourselves as to the tempo in which harmonization would proceed. As in all fields, it is important here not that in the end complete uniformity is achieved but rather that living conditions and results are equivalent to the degree possible. For this reason institutions such as CEDEFOP are of great importance, provided they correctly assess their possibilities and properly approach and discharge their given tasks.

Within the framework of efforts to move forward towards harmonization

vocational training would benefit from efforts to compare the subject content of all stages of training in the various Member States and bring the results mutually into line as optimally as possible. Perhaps it might be feasible to design a European model of agricultural basic training which all Member States could endorse and seek to implement within whatever training system might be involved. Here the farmers' professional organizations could be of great help.

There is much that must develop slowly. Best results can be achieved when each harmonization step is properly tailored to existing possibilities and yet carefully aimed at a specific objective. At Community level the mistake should not be repeated that occurred in the Federal Republic of Germany, where educational reform was conceived primarily as a reform of organizational structures with the result that the real objective of every type of educational work was lost sight of.

In instances where specific development trends are to be accelerated via the educational sector, adult education can become an effective tool. In the rural sector it is the farmers' professional organizations which best serve the purpose of adult education, since these organizations have many more open avenues to the grass root level than government organizations have. Adult education which can function within private organizations is more in line with democratic concepts than adult education provided by the state can be. If adult education teachers are to be successful in their work, pedagogical reasons alone must dictate that they first direct their attention to the daily needs and problems of their learners. And who could do this better than persons who are in daily contact with these learners and know their problems and who, because they represent the interests of these learners, also enjoy their confidence? The possibility of directly exerting influence is, however, coupled with great responsibility. The task of representing interests cannot therefore be delimited to fighting just for higher agricultural prices and better market regulations. It is also important to provide practical help of many kinds and proffer necessary orientation aids.

Many problems in agricultural and rural areas cannot be resolved by agricultural policy alone. Many have to do with human beings rather than technology. A good example is the generation conflict, quite prevalent in farming areas. Another

example involves the promotion of persons who represent agricultural and rural areas in political parties and political institutions. Then there is the problem of proper child rearing, a field in which many rural women's organizations are working most effectively.

Because educational work is so important most governments either take complete charge or engage in active promotion. As executive organ of the Community the Commission must be interested in promoting relevant educational work with all the means at its disposal. It has fulfilled this obligation firstly by establishing CEDEFOP and secondly by supporting C.E.P.F.A.R. (European Training and Development Centre for Farming and Rural Life), an organization within which the farm workers' organizations, the farmers' cooperative organizations, the farmers' professional organizations, the rural youth organizations, and the rural women's organizations of the Community undertake joint action in the field of adult education. Their efforts still leave much to be desired, however, apparently because the value of such work has not yet been properly appreciated. Educational work must always be a long-term project, if it is to be successful. We can exclude here the rapid mastery of new skills, which offers few problems; indeed,

effort and result are so closely linked and so obvious that the promotion of such training is not only without problems but often unnecessary.

Everything that goes beyond this has by nature a political character, in part. It would be foolish and indeed detrimental to attempt to use educational work for the purpose of pushing the interests of a particular institution, organization, or political party. This is one of the reasons why the agricultural organizations grouped together in C.O.P.A. considered it so important that the farm workers' organizations be represented in C.E.P.F.A.R. All persons who live in the countryside and work in agriculture are concerned with problems plaguing agricultural and rural areas, and it will take their joint effort to arrive at solutions. Although there is a great variety of interests not only between farm workers and their employers but also between farmers of the various regions, it will be necessary for all to pull together, if many of the problems are to be solved at all. The degree to which educational work in this field is worthy of support depends on the degree of success obtained in promoting the integration process and helping the learners. Naturally criticism will be justified in some instances. One criterion which must be met before adult education is given financial support is

that the training provided motivate and enable persons in agricultural and in rural areas to do much themselves towards solving their problems, including negotiating with the political parties and the authorities over possible solutions.

In closing I would again stress that education is in essence the schooling of the ability to judge for one's self and to master life in complete self-responsibility. Whoever understands education differently may have good reasons for doing so but should not assume to be undertaking educational work. Only a few problems can be touched upon in such an article. I have therefore dealt with those which I consider to be most important, leaving questions of a technical or formal nature aside. I do not consider the argument over formal regulations to be unnecessary, but I do find it to be of secondary importance in terms of results sought. In a democracy there can be little doubt about this; formal matters can always be put in order. Only institutions which exist for their own sake give top priority to regulations. We have enough bureaucracy in Europe as it is. We should do everything in our power to ensure that in the important field of education the human being and his justified interests remain in the focus of attention.

# Directive 72/161/EEC – its conception, its objectives, and its degree of implementation in the Member States of the EC

## 1. Basic conception

The structural situation of agriculture in the Community is characterized by the existence of a substantial number of farms which lack the productive capacity necessary to provide for the farm families concerned reasonable incomes and living conditions comparable to those available in other occupations. This low income segment of agriculture normally comprises a preponderance of small farms many of which are operated by elderly farmers. The elimination of such structural deficiencies is a necessary prerequisite to the attainment of the objectives of the common agricultural policy as outlined in Article 39 of the Treaty establishing the European Economic Community.

In the future the only farms capable of adjusting to the conditions of general economic growth will be those in which the farmer has the capacity, including adequate vocational skill and competence, for the adoption and implementation of rational methods of production. Indeed the implementation of new technology and modern farm practices is fundamental to securing adequate incomes and satisfactory working conditions for farmers and farm workers. The promotion and development of such farms is a basic aim of the agricultural structures policy of the EC.

The structural Directives

- 72/159/EEC on farm modernization;
- 72/160/EEC concerning measures to encourage the cessation of farming and the reallocation of utilized agricultural area for purposes of structural improvement;
- 72/161/EEC concerning the provision of socioeconomic guidance for and the acquisition of vocational skills by persons engaged in agriculture;

represent a composite package of measures which are functionally interrelated and interdependent. As envisaged by the Council in 1972 each Directive was assigned a given objective the achievement

of which is essential not only for the successful implementation of the Directive concerned but also for each of the others.

Thus the content and function of socioeconomic advice in the sense of Directive 72/161/EEC, Title I, can be determined only through taking into consideration the totality of the three Directives which aim at the reform of agricultural structures.

These Directives take as their starting point the fact that the structure of agriculture in the Community is determined by the multitude of farms which lack the structural conditions necessary to ensure adequate incomes and working conditions for farmers and farm workers. Furthermore, the Directives have as their primary objective to encourage the establishment of farms of such size and structure as will enable them to adapt themselves to the future development of the economy as a whole. In this respect it is clear that the development of such farms is dependent on an adequate level of land mobility for structural reform purposes. In turn this implies that through the successful implementation of Directive 72/160/EEC farmers who cannot or who do not wish to develop their farms may be encouraged to cease farming and reallocate their land for purposes of farm modernization in accordance with the provisions of Directive 72/159/EEC.

In the recitals of Directive 72/161/EEC the functional interrelationship of the Directives is clearly implied when it is stated that the reform of agricultural structures cannot come about unless a large number of persons engaged in agriculture fundamentally alter their work orientation. This implies that a complete change of work orientation within agriculture through farm modernization or outside of agriculture through being retrained for some nonagricultural employment should be made in complete knowledge of the existing possibilities and their consequences for the farmer and farm family concerned.

## 2. The objectives of Directive 72/161/EEC

### (a) Title I

Socioeconomic guidance, as envisaged in Title I, has as its main objective to help the farmer and his family to solve their socioeconomic problems in cases where the farm no longer fits into a modern agriculture and where the farmer is obliged to make a decision concerning his future professional life and that of his children. In such circumstances, effective socioeconomic guidance can only be given following a thorough analysis of the farm and the farm family situations, undertaken, if necessary, with the help of appropriate specialists. The results of this analysis should be put before the farmer in such a manner as to enable him to reach the necessary decision with regard to his and his family's future.

Thus, in the case of the group of farms which are the main concern of the Directive, that is to say those farms which cannot be regarded as modern, socioeconomic information constitutes the fundamental point of departure towards a definite change in the existing farm situation, which according to the nature of the decision taken may concern the modernization of the farm, the choice by the farmer of alternative employment outside of agriculture, the training of his children for nonagricultural work, or his retirement from all farming activity.

Clearly, Directive 72/161/EEC, Title I, assigns an extremely important and specific role to socioeconomic guidance and so distinguishes it from technicoeconomic advisory work as traditionally practised in all Member States. In the context of the specific role of socioeconomic guidance, Member States are obliged under Article 2 a) of the Directive to create and develop socioeconomic guidance services as independent entities or as special departments within already existing services. In terms of this provision socioeconomic guidance is clearly an activity which demands the recruitment on a full-time



basis of experienced personnel having the degree of specialized training appropriate to the tasks to be performed.

#### (b) Title II

Article 5, paragraph 1 of the Directive obliges Member States to set up schemes to encourage the vocational advancement of farmers and hired and family workers. Such schemes shall not cover the normal agricultural courses of study organized as part of secondary or higher education systems.

According to the terms of Article 6, paragraph 1, this scheme of encouragement concerns measures having as their objective to give to persons working in agriculture further training of a general, technical, or economic nature. The need for such training assumes particular importance in situations where, as a result of technical progress and changing market requirements, policy changes in farm management, production and marketing have become essential.

In many regions of the Community the inadequacy of vocational training facilities inhibits the efforts required to provide farmers and farm workers in general with the occupation skills and professional competence necessary to support modern agriculture. It is in this context that Member States are obliged to set up schemes to encourage vocational training as already referred to above to be carried out through the medium of training centres or in service training courses approved by the Member State for that purpose. In the application of such schemes, Member States are prevailed upon to determine, in accordance with Article 6, paragraph 2 of the Directive, the type of training programmes appropriate to the educational and training needs of persons engaged in agriculture in any given situation.

More specifically, Member States are obliged to

- (a) specify the qualification for admission to a centre or course;
- (b) lay down minimum programmes, and in particular the importance to be given to technical and economic training respectively;
- (c) specify the duration of the training to be given, having regard to the basic type of training in question and to the objectives envisaged in Article 5;
- (d) determine the structure of training courses, both as regards the quality of training to be given and the cost and amount of such training.

For the purpose of carrying out these measures it is incumbent on Member States to make the necessary provision for

- the establishment and development of training centres or courses;
- the award of grants or allowances to cover attendance at such centres or courses.

In the opinion of the Commission the training courses as specified above are directed towards meeting the needs of persons already employed in agriculture on a full-time basis as farmers or as farm workers, either hired or family. The aim of such courses is to bring about a substantial improvement in the level of professional skills and knowledge of the participants or to enable them to acquire new agricultural skills. This implies that the participation in isolated courses of short duration, in particular in courses relating to purely technical subjects, cannot be considered as training which would guarantee a substantial improvement in knowledge or skills.

### 3. Implementation of Directive 72/161/EEC in Member States

By the end of 1977<sup>1</sup> four Member States, namely Italy, Belgium, Luxembourg and Ireland, had not yet established a socioeconomic advisory service. In 1978, however, the first corps of such advisers were recruited and trained in Belgium. In other Member States the services, as established, seemingly still have difficulty in achieving a clear status and role in the context of the general agricultural advisory service. In fact, only in the Federal Republic of Germany and the Netherlands could it be said that a really serious attempt has as yet been made in setting up socioeconomic advisory services which fully respond to the requirements of the Directive. In the United Kingdom and Denmark socioeconomic guidance is mainly provided on a special interest or part-time basis by members of the normal technicoeconomic advisory service. The more likely effect of this practice is that those farmers who are most in need of this advice are not reached at all.

The situation with regard to the implementation of Title II is much more positive. Between 1975 and 1976 some 50 000 farmers and farm workers attended basic, further, or specialized

training courses. More than half of this number was accounted for by France. The nature of the courses organized and the ages of those attending vary widely among the Member States. In France and Ireland over 90 % of course participants received basic training only; the corresponding figures for other Member States varied from 0.4 % in the Federal Republic of Germany to 16 % in the United Kingdom.

In the Federal Republic of Germany and Denmark almost all participants were under 30 years of age; in the other Member States the proportion of participants over 30 years of age varied from 28 % in France to 50 % in Belgium. Only in the United Kingdom (13 % in 1976) and Belgium (30 % in 1976) was a significant proportion of participants over 40 years of age in any one year.

By comparison with 1976, the number of participants in all courses increased substantially (6 904 or 28.8 %) in 1977. This increase was accounted for mainly by France (46.8 %), Denmark (24 %) and Ireland (9.5 %). By contrast, a decline in the number of participants was recorded in the United Kingdom (21 %), the Federal Republic of Germany (17 %) and Belgium (1 %).

The minimum average duration of basic training courses varies from 80 hours in Denmark to 1 188 hours in the United Kingdom. In the case of further training the corresponding figures vary from a minimum of 54 hours in the United Kingdom to a maximum of 575 hours in France. For specialized training the appropriate figures vary from a minimum of 32 hours in Belgium to an average of 1 193 hours in France.

### 4. Problems and perspectives

An examination of the data available on its application to date by Member States would seem to suggest that a number of problems of implementation need to be solved before the functional interrelationship of Directive 72/161/EEC with the other main Directives can be established in practice.

With regard to Title I, and quite apart from the tardiness of Member States in implementing it, the integration of socioeconomic advisory services in general advisory systems risks that it will be given a low priority status particularly when it is carried out by technicoeconomic advisers on a part-time

<sup>1</sup> Data on 1978 are not yet available.

basis only. This being so, the danger exists that the groups of farmers who need socioeconomic advice, that is to say those who are at the heart of the structural problem in agriculture, will not be reached at all, since they are rarely contacted by members of the normal advisory service.

The Directive assigns a fundamental importance and a specific role to socioeconomic advisory work in clearly distinguishing it from general technical advisory work as normally practised. For this reason this relatively new advisory discipline demands the services of active advisers who have a particular aptitude for this type of work. Although young advisers may be better disposed to undertake such work, experience in normal advisory working is of paramount importance in the recruiting of persons for further training as socioeconomic advisers. For this reason the recruitment of very young advisers is not desirable.

A further problem associated with the operation of socioeconomic advisory services in practice arises due to the adverse effects of the current economic situation on the prospects for the structural reform of agriculture. With unemployment levels in nonagricultural sectors remaining at relatively high levels it is difficult for socioeconomic advisers to help those farmers who have no future in agriculture but who are still sufficiently young to be retrained for other employ-

ment. Furthermore, in the existing economic situation land mobility is proceeding at a much slower than normal rate while land prices have become extremely inflated, thus making it unduly difficult for potential modernizing farmers to acquire the additional land which they need.

In these circumstances the task of the socioeconomic advisory service assumes a new urgency, particularly in regions of very high unemployment in the non-agricultural sectors. In effect, it is incumbent on them to direct their efforts towards stimulating land mobility through placing particular emphasis on the retirement of elderly farmers, thus increasing the employment opportunities within agriculture and making them more remunerative at the same time.

Insofar as title II is concerned, there is need to ensure that those who undertake development plans satisfy the condition with regard to the possession of adequate occupational skill and competence (Directive 72/159/EEC, Article 2.1 (b)). This applies in particular to farmers aged between 35 and 50 years who have little or no possibility of being retrained for another occupation and who are thus constrained to remain in agriculture.

This group is the most numerous and most stable in the entire age pyramid of farmers. Yet few of its members participate in training courses in the majority of Member States.

## 5. Proposed modifications to Directive 72/161/EEC

In the context of the modifications to the Structural Directives, which are currently under discussion in the Council of Ministers, three important changes have been proposed in Directive 72/161/EEC.

(a) The provisions of the Directive do not at present apply to the training of leaders or managers of producer groups, cooperatives or other organizations designed to improve the conditions under which agricultural products are processed and marketed. This must be regarded as a shortcoming in the Directive which the proposed modification seeks to remedy.

(b) The Commission also considers that the rate of reimbursement by the EAGGF of the eligible expenditure on the vocational training of farmers, farm workers, and the other groups concerned under (a) above should be aligned to the rate fixed for the European Social Fund in respect of vocational training and retraining, i.e. 50% (55% in certain regions) instead of 25% which applies at present.

(c) Generally, it is proposed to increase the maximum eligible expenditure under both Title I and Title II by 60% in order to take account of the erosion in money values which has taken place due to inflation since the Directive first came into being in April 1972.

# Agriculture and continuing education

C. Dobler<sup>1</sup>

Continuing education is becoming in increasing measure the object of political action in many Member States of the European Community. General discussion on continuing education remained for a long time restricted to efforts to precisely define this sector of education and place it in juxtaposition to other educational sectors. The reason for this is to be found not exclusively but certainly to a large degree in institutional considerations. Educational planning in the Federal Republic of Germany still conceives of continuing education as the third pillar of the state education system, and there are many who feel that it likewise should be organized by the state alongside the general school system and the vocational training system.

I personally am very much impressed by the concept of continuing education which prevails in France, in which the unity of the entire education system is stressed. The French term 'education permanente,' expressed in the Federal Republic of Germany by the term 'lebenslanges Lernen (life-long learning), should by all means lead to further discussion. But this by no means implies that the state must necessarily also assume organizational responsibility for life-long learning, or continuing education.

Ever since the major discussion on education during the 1960s it has gone without saying that general schooling and basic vocational training cannot equip a young person with all he has to know in later life. Also commonplace is the realization that knowledge has exploded to such a degree that lifelong learning must perforce constitute an essential part of working life. Even in private life there is need to constantly learn. These

are, as I have said, commonplaces which we meet up with in every political speech. The lessons we can learn from this should be, I feel, as follows:

1. Since everything can no longer be learned in early years which will be needed in adult life, there is no point in constantly extending the period of schooling and training. In fact it is very dangerous for personal development and thus for society as a whole to release young people, as is the case today particularly at academic level, into a career at ever higher age levels.

2. The fact that everybody can or should continue to learn throughout life must have an impact on the subject content of early education and basic vocational training. However, the educational reform of the past decade paid very little attention to this need, least of all in connection with the desired wholeness of the educational system which in turn renders continuing education indispensable.

3. With regard to the subject content of basic education and vocational training it is the opinion, although contested, of many educationalists that what has taken place is simply a constant increase in subject matter and a rising flood of regulations which teachers must observe. The constant expansion of subject matter has frequently hindered teachers from properly preparing their work and the need to deal with the increased number of administrative regulations has demanded time and attention at the expense of monitoring other regulations and doing a good job of teaching, the actual purpose of the whole effort.

4. Many educationalists are also convinced that particularly in the case of children and juveniles with a practical bent the development has been such as to take the joy out of learning, blunt curiosity, and stymie initiative so that there is no motivation to continue to learn. This lack of interest in lifelong learning would only be further reinforced by a state system of continuing education grafted onto such an existing system.

It is obviously difficult to define what successful education is, much less

evaluate it. If it is difficult to properly judge and compare learning progress, how much more difficult it is to pronounce on the success of continuing education. However, if we approach the matter without prejudice, there is a large enough reservoir of experience available which enables us to determine under what circumstances what type of continuing education will be most effective.

At this point I would like to comment briefly on the development of pedagogy. Pedagogy, also adult pedagogy, is to a large extent an empirical science. The effort to turn it into an exact science in the sense of the natural sciences has simply produced an unintelligible mass of terms and definitions without giving us earlier than otherwise the good teachers we need. That which the natural sciences, in particular biology, have taught us about the nature of man and his reasoning powers is hardly to be found in modern pedagogy. Pedagogy was once strongly influenced by ideological viewpoints. It is, however, as is much else, now a victim of development in the sciences. The Viennese biologist Ried writes:<sup>1</sup> 'Civilization drove holistic elements out of biology, wholeness out of psychology, and heuristic elements out of logic.' He writes further that the 'consensus of reason' has set up a world scale which has produced the ultima ratio of the axiomatic deductive system, 'which, if it is absolutely certain, likewise has absolutely nothing more to do with this world.'

Precise continuing education, however, relates to people who are being constantly confronted with the realities of this world and the need to master them and the problems they create. Teachers should not fail to be influenced by these conclusions of a biologist, contained in his book on the phylogenetic fundamentals of reason, for they have long since become specialists in a particular subject field and tend to forget what their primary teaching task is. In the Federal Republic of Germany university graduates in the field of education are taking over more and more continuing education teaching assignments. To exaggerate, one could say that when they leave the uni-

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versity they are fully conversant with all educational theories but have practically no idea of the living and working situation, problems, and needs of the people they are supposed to help. This is of course not their fault. Nevertheless it can be said that if this development continues the huge sums which go into the education system will be of little use. When complaints that our educational system is becoming less and less productive grow louder, the amount spent on it will have to stand for progress achieved.

The above remarks are strongly dictated by the course of development in the Federal Republic of Germany, but I know from press notices that other countries have similar problems. There is a great deal of differentiation, of course. There are many excellent teachers imbued with a love for people who succeed in offsetting much that bureaucratic planning brings forth. Unfortunately, however, official programmes and developments are frequently influenced by people who are more interested in formal organization, exactness, or even political goals than in pedagogical help for the individual.

This applies to all educational sectors, including continuing education. As I said, the role of continuing education must be given full consideration when designing the curricular and institutional organization of general schooling and basic vocational training. Unfortunately continuing education still has the function of coming to grips with all the problems which an imperfect educational system has given rise to. This holds true in my country and it also holds true within the European Community.

The educational situation in many agricultural areas is identical with that with which the entire rural population is confronted. In many countries of Europe in the past people in agricultural and rural areas were greatly disadvantaged vis-à-vis people in urban areas as far as the density and differentiation of the educational system was concerned, and continuing education can now do little to repair the damage done. The most it can do is to provide needed help and guidance. Farmers, their families, and their co-workers now have a great many problems to contend with, and continuing education can help.

For practical reasons a distinction is made between continuing vocational education and continuing general education, although there is in fact no clear line of division. As far as I can judge

continuing vocational education is beset in all Member States of the Community with the least problems. Interest in skill learning is greatest, for obvious reasons. The connection between a measure, geared to a concrete problem and success in the form of higher income, savings, or work simplification is obvious to all. For example, farm workers can then earn a higher wage or a farmer's wife can then prepare better balanced meals for her family. When training opportunities of this kind are offered by institutions which maintain relatively close contact with people on the farms there is no need to travel some distance to undergo training, something that otherwise might discourage attendance.

If persons planning continuing education measures make certain that the special interests of the learners are taken into account, attendance will be large. Problems tend to arise which relate more to skills in teaching such as the ability of the teacher to present things simply and clearly. There is often much room for improvement here. Practitioners frequently make good teachers, organizers, and advisors. Members of the Federal Association of Agricultural College Graduates, for example, have instructed farmers within the framework of an agricultural continuing education organization. These practitioners serve as teachers and organizers in continuing education courses in the various villages. The success of this programme confirms the assumption that continuing education courses which are most closely geared to actual practice attract learners. No matter how much money has gone into establishing it, an organization with no contact to actual practice and with teachers who are not also practitioners can never succeed as well.

It is therefore essential that government authorities interested in promoting continuing education should first of all undertake to support existing continuing education organizations which have close contact with their members. If the main purpose is to help people and not simply to gather statistics for political reasons, there must be no interference in the matter of subject content for overriding agricultural policy considerations or other reasons. This approach, namely, giving support to an existing continuing education organization, is certainly by far the cheaper, particularly from the standpoint of results. Directive 161 of the European Community is in terms of its text fully in line with this approach and is in this respect, in my opinion, properly conceived. The need to closely

monitor the use of the sums involved is of course undisputed. Also acceptable in cases where a number of continuing education organizations are active at the same time is the coupling of such financial support with the obligation on the part of these organizations to cooperate closely with one another.

In deliberations concerning the promotion of continuing education it should not be forgotten that in an age in which all Europeans can read and write, in which nearly every household has a radio and a television set, and in which magazines and journals addressed to all fields of interest are available, a great deal of continuing education is a natural part of daily life. A great many people, including farmers and farm workers, regularly obtain information through the media, and few of them do not continue to learn in this manner. Just how much information is absorbed via the media is just as difficult to assess as is the case with information absorbed via talks with neighbours and colleagues, visits to exhibitions, etc. This is one of the reasons why the demand for organized continuing education is sometimes overestimated. It is therefore above all a reason for supporting the continuing education activities of organizations which have close contact with the learning groups involved and enjoy their full confidence. Such understanding cannot be replaced by theoretical considerations, however scientific they may be.

It is already clear that the success of continuing education will indeed depend on the manner in which it is organized and under what conditions government support is provided. For example, marginal aspects often play a greater role than is good for the direct concerns of the learners. Funds from agricultural authorities are frequently used to support continuing education measures only when the subject matter involved is directly linked to agriculture in the narrow sense of the term, an example being agricultural production techniques. In family farms the family and its farm are one and the same thing, and many problems which impinge directly on their living situation are by no means exclusively of a farm production or farm management nature.

Here the question of what time of day the continuing education courses should take place arises. Precisely for farms which engage in animal husbandry help should take the form of lightening the work load of persons who wish to attend but cannot do so unless such help is

provided. I cannot go into the matter of suitable continuing education subject content for farm families. I would stress, however, that the most difficult problems facing farming today are those which have to do with structural change in the broadest sense, the very future of agriculture itself, solidarity among the farmers, and the call for growth without the possibility of growing and without alternative answers for the farming population. Continuing education is called upon to provide guidance and assistance.

As experience in the Federal Republic of Germany has shown, the farmers are fully aware of this situation. In the field of rural adult education, for example, interest in rhetoric courses is great. Young farmers realize very quickly that they are no match for colleagues or contractors from other sectors when their task is to represent the interests of their village or their fellow farmers in various institutions. Thankfully the responsible authorities in the Federal Republic of Germany have taken cognizance of this situation and are supporting vocational continuing education measures of this nature.

All rural inhabitants have much the same problems to deal with. They all have a role to play in the development of the villages and the countryside. Continuing education work aimed at helping to solve these problems must therefore be directed not exclusively towards farmers and farm workers but rather towards all rural inhabitants, and promotional efforts must take this into account. Not only in the Federal Republic of Germany has the lesson unfortunately been learned that the effective support of urgently necessary work and cooperation is often vitiated by conflicts in authorities and institutions over areas of competence. The support then given frequently correlates more with the competence claims or interests of the bureaucracies than with the needs of the persons for which such support is intended.

It is for reasons of this nature that the development of continuing education should not lead to the establishment of a scholastic continuing education system. Such a system would just cost much more and not be very effective to boot, not because of a lack of good intentions but rather because of a plethora of rules and regulations which bureaucratic institutions must observe. This is no criticism but it is a warning.

It is admittedly difficult to establish continuing education promotion criteria which are in line with the rigid budget principles of a government court of audit. Without a relatively large margin of discretion being granted to those responsible, however, nothing will function properly. In the Federal Republic of Germany we have learned from the situation in the general schools that the more rules and regulations a teacher has to follow, the poorer a teacher he becomes.

Continuing education cannot correct what has been neglected during childhood and adolescence. It can only partially be systemized in view of the varying preconditions and problems which learners bring with them. It must above all remain flexible. It is, in other words, no suitable object of government planning but must retain its own individuality. We speak in the Federal Republic of Germany of continuing education as a public task. This term is correct when understood as implying that the state should promote and support continuing education activities. If, however, it is taken to mean that this sector of education should be bureaucratically organized by the state in the sense that I have discussed, then the farming population and the rural population must register protest, since they would be among those most disadvantaged by such a development.

The European Community can much more easily become active in the sector of continuing education than in the other educational sectors, all of which are his-

torically rooted, state-run, and diversely structured. With Directive 161 a beginning has been made at Community level towards promoting continuing education in the field of agriculture. This Directive is addressed to all Member States. However, the Community has the possibility of reaching farmers and farm workers directly through their own organizations. The creation of C.E.P.F.A.R. by the agricultural organizations of EC was the first step in this direction. Apparently the EC Commission has not yet come to appreciate the advantages which C.E.P.F.A.R. offers. Of course special objectives of the Commission cannot be pursued via this organization. The organization can, however, be used to help some of the farmers and farm workers and thereby identify certain commonalities among farmers of the European Community. This is helpful to Europe in the last analysis and supports at least indirectly the task of the Commission.

Continuing education is a subject which will remain topical and grow in importance. It is the educational sector which in all Member States is least marked by government organization. If it is to receive increasing support at national policy level, continuing education must assume forms which are as closely attuned to the actual purpose of the exercise as is possible. To be sure funds are needed, but they are less important than arriving at a clear comprehension of the objective and interrelationships involved. If this does not occur or if, for example, competence disputes hinder this from happening, we will one day be able to confirm only that the costs of continuing education have risen and that otherwise not much has changed for the better.

P. S.: I would make only passing reference to the need for agricultural organizations to do all they can in the continuing education sector to help their members and other persons living in agricultural and rural areas, since I consider this to be only too obvious.

# European Training and Development Centre for Farming and Rural Life — C.E.P.F.A.R.

A. Hardt

The European Training and Development Centre for Farming and Rural Life was established in June 1972. The following institutions were its founders:

- EC Farmers' Professional Organizations Committee – C.O.P.A.;
- EC General Committee for Farmers' Cooperative Organizations – C.O.G.E.C.A.;
- European Council of Young Farmers – C.E.J.A.;
- European Federation of Farm Workers' Organizations – E.F.A.;
- Rural Women's Committee of C.O.P.A.;
- EC authorities (Commission, European Parliament, Economic and Social Committee).

C.E.P.F.A.R. was officially recognized by the EC Council of Ministers in its communication of 6 March 1979 and by the European Parliament in its Resolution of 9 May 1979.

C.E.P.F.A.R. serves as a forum for the exchange of experience and for informal contacts among all persons active in the field of agricultural and rural development, enabling them to present new concepts, elaborate new projects, and take concrete action without being constrained by political commitment.

The objectives which C.E.P.F.A.R. pursues are as follows:

- to examine problems relating to pedagogics, training, and development insofar as these relate to agriculture, farmers' cooperative organizations, and the agricultural milieu in Europe;
- to carry out joint activities in training and social development in the interest of promoting sociocultural and technicoeconomic advance in agriculture and in the rural areas of the EC;
- to promote the improvement of information structures, reception structures, and orientation and support structures for persons living in agricultural and rural areas;

- to promote, coordinate, and harmonize all national and Community activities in these fields;
- to foster towards this end close liaison with research institutions engaged in the fields of pedagogy, agronomy, and business administration and promote public initiatives serving this purpose;
- to stimulate in close cooperation with EC authorities the implementation of measures designed to close the training gap characteristic of agricultural and rural areas;
- to promote the spread of the European idea in agricultural and rural areas;
- to lend support to European institutions concerned with the same problem fields, especially in connection with the implementation of a number of concrete measures;
- to plan and carry out joint vocational training activities for the benefit of farm workers.

The organizational structure of C.E.P.F.A.R. is as follows:

- The General Board, composed of representatives of the member organizations, establishes the guidelines for the work of the Centre. The General Board meets once a year;
- The Executive Committee, composed of member organization representatives who are experts in the field of training and development, is responsible for organizing the work of C.E.P.F.A.R. (seminars, surveys, group work) in accordance with the guidelines established by the General Board. The Executive Committee meets three times a year;
- The Presidium, composed of the President, who is appointed by C.O.P.A. three Vice-Presidents, who are presidents of member organizations (C.O.G.E.C.A., C.E.J.A., E.F.A.), and the Secretary General, carries financial responsibility for C.E.P.F.A.R.;
- The Secretariat, located at 25 rue de la Science, Brussels, is responsible for the execution and coordination of work in accordance with decisions taken by the Executive Committee;

- National C.E.P.F.A.R. committees: The national representatives (one per country) are responsible for coordinating work undertaken at national level by the various member organizations (farmers' cooperative organizations, farm workers' organizations, rural women's organizations, and young farmers' organizations). They are each supported in their work by a team which makes up their respective national C.E.P.F.A.R. committee;
- The Liaison and Cooperation Committee, whose purpose is to promote C.E.P.F.A.R. activities within a broader context and ensure that no duplication of work takes place, is composed of representatives of national and international training and development organizations operating upstream and downstream of agriculture.

CEDEFOP is a member of the C.E.P.F.A.R. Liaison and Cooperation Committee. CEDEFOP and C.E.P.F.A.R. cooperated successfully on a number of projects in 1979, among which the most important were the preparation of a number of working papers on vocational training and technological change (participation of C.E.P.F.A.R. and its member organizations in a study on technical training in the dairy industry), research on equality of opportunity as regards access to vocational training for women, and the preparation of this Bulletin.

Financed by both the Commission of the European Communities and the C.E.P.F.A.R. member organizations, the activities of C.E.P.F.A.R. during the seven years of its existence have focused on the preparation and implementation of information and training seminars for officers of the member organizations and all multipliers who form the link at national level between the decision-making centres and the farming population (senior personnel in agricultural organizations, extensionists, counsellors, journalists, researchers, teaching personnel, etc.).

By the end of 1979 C.E.P.F.A.R. had held a total of 50 seminars accounting for approximately 10 000 training days. The themes dealt with in these seminars were for the most part in line with the priority concerns of the member organizations, namely, information on European issues and the implementation of EC Directives, training of managerial personnel at all levels (rural youth, rural women, cooperative members, farm workers, farmers), agricultural production problems, development in agricultural and rural areas, and so on.

As regards the organization of its European seminars, C.E.P.F.A.R. pursues the following objectives:

- to inform participants on EC activities relating to the respective seminar theme,
- to encourage the exchange of information and experience in the interest of a unified approach to problems common to all EC Member States,
- to identify those general approaches which are most likely to promote efforts now under way in the field of agriculture at national and Community level,
- to upgrade the professional qualification of the participants.

The preparatory work for a seminar is undertaken by a group of experts who are also responsible for drafting the programme and the questionnaires. At national level preparatory work is undertaken by the national C.E.P.F.A.R. representative who, acting on the basis of the information provided by the group of experts, sets up a national delegation and assumes responsibility for the preparation of the participants. The national representative commissions a national reporter with the task of elaborating a survey of the national situation as it relates to the seminar theme.

The seminars customarily run for four or five days. The seminar programme usually takes the form of an introduction, an information phase during which the various national situations are studied on the basis of country reports and an exposé on EC activities in the

field in question is discussed in plenary session, a reflection phase during which the participants work in groups on the basis of a questionnaire, a day of contact with the realities prevailing in the host country, and a synthesis phase during which the group work is reexamined and a seminar report is drafted. The seminar is followed by an application phase during which the participants seek to apply the lessons drawn from their joint experience to problems prevailing at national level.

C.E.P.F.A.R. endeavours to give the seminar results the broadest possible dissemination in order that they may enrich the discussions and activities being undertaken at various levels to achieve a united Europe. It also seeks to underline the impact which the implementation of a European seminar has on the hosting country and region. By being drawn into the organization of a seminar, a large number of representatives of local and regional organizations are given the opportunity to participate in the tasks being tackled and to realize at first hand that the problems of agriculture and rural life are in fact Community problems.

C.E.P.F.A.R. also conducts studies, the most important one of which was that conducted in 1975 on adult education in agriculture based on a survey conducted by persons responsible for this sector of education in the various EC Member States. C.E.P.F.A.R. furthermore organizes exchanges between young trainees throughout the EC, visits to the EC Commission in Brussels for students of agriculture and for rural women, and study trips abroad.

On the basis of experience gained over the past seven years C.E.P.F.A.R. intends to carry forward its work, seeking to respond satisfactorily to the specific needs of its member organizations. As regards future tasks, a number of very viable propositions have already been put forward by C.E.P.F.A.R. member organizations. The most notable among these are the promotion and exchange of pedagogic and didactic material, the establishment of an information bank at

C.E.P.F.A.R., the award of scholarships for participation in international advanced training courses, the organization of a 'most dynamic village in Europe' competition, and identification of ways and means of creating employment in rural areas.

The member organizations look to C.E.P.F.A.R. to serve as a working instrument which will give a European dimension to information and training in agricultural and rural areas.

### C.E.P.F.A.R. seminars

In the period from 1969 to 1976 C.E.P.F.A.R. implemented no less than 37 seminars.

The seminars organized between 1977 and 1979 were as follows:

- Training of young farm leaders: Trento, Italy
- Implementation of Directives 159, 160, 161, and 268: Dublin, Ireland
- Co-operative management: Stuttgart, Federal Republic of Germany
- Vocational training for agricultural wage-earners: Herrsching, Federal Republic of Germany
- Implementation of Regulation 355/77/EEC (improvement of the conditions under which agricultural products are marketed and processed): Blanmont, Belgium
- European farmers and consumers: Port Barcarès, France
- The Development of European Agriculture in the medium term: Veldhoven (Netherlands)
- Training of European Agricultural Leaders: Fredeburg (Federal Republic of Germany)
- Europe, its institutions and its policies: Blanmont (Belgium)
- Development of the small incomes in the less favoured agricultural regions of the Community: L'aquila, Italy
- Agricultural co-operatives in the Community today and tomorrow: Dublin, Ireland
- Problems and future of social welfare in agriculture in countries of the Community: Jouy-en-Josas, France.



# Agricultural Training in England and Wales – a study of school-leavers entering farming

G. E. Jones and M. A. Peberdy<sup>1</sup>

The Agricultural Training Board (ATB) was established in 1966 under the provisions of the Industrial Training Act of 1964. This Act enabled all industrial sectors to set up training boards with the function of initiating and coordinating training for all levels of employees within each respective sector.

Originally ATB was organized similarly to all the other training boards in the UK, administratively responsible to the Secretary of State for Employment and drawing their finances largely from the particular industrial sectors which they served. Since 1970, however, ATB has been financed directly from the budgetary vote to the Agriculture Departments of the government, and since 1974 (under the Employment and Training Act, 1973) the Board has been responsible to the Minister of Agriculture. ATB thus functions as a quasi nongovernmental agency; its board and decision-making committees consist of representatives of the farmers' and farm workers' organizations, and educationalists. The annual budget of the Board is currently about £4.5 million of which almost 40% is spent on the training of new entrants to agriculture. The major part of this money is used for operating the Agricultural Apprenticeship Scheme.

## Agricultural apprenticeship

The Apprenticeship Scheme was launched by the Board in 1971 and aims to train young people over a three-year period to a craftsman level of proficiency. During the young person's training he or she is employed on a farm which is approved by the Board as a suitable training holding. The trainee also is required to attend day- or block-release classes at a local agricultural college; this is the further education content of apprenticeship. Towards the end of the three-year period the apprentice takes a number of practical proficiency tests in his chosen specializations, and when the

required number have been passed the young worker obtains the Training Board's Craftsman's Certificate. This certificate qualifies the worker to apply for a craftsman's certificate from the Agricultural Wages Board, which in turn entitles him to a craftsman's rate of pay as laid down by the statutory wages structure. Although the on-farm training is in the hands of the farmer who employs the trainee, selection of young workers for the Scheme and both the drawing up and supervision of a training programme for each trainee is the responsibility of the Board's local Training Committee and the local training adviser (a member of ATB's field staff).

## The problem

Each year approximately 9 000 school-leavers enter full-time employment in agriculture in England and Wales. Of these, at present less than a quarter participate in the Apprenticeship Scheme. Even among those who do, in recent years more than a third have been withdrawing from the Scheme before completion. The reason for this loss is partly due to young workers leaving the industry (and thereby also withdrawing from agricultural apprenticeship) and partly to factors concerned directly with apprenticeship itself. If this situation is to be changed the industry, and in particular ATB, have to resolve three issues:

Why do so few new entrants to agriculture take part in formal training?

Why do so many young workers leave the industry within a few years of entry?

Why do many continue in farming but withdraw from apprenticeship?

During the early years of the 1970's, information to answer these questions was not available. ATB therefore approached the authors and invited them to conduct a study<sup>2</sup> into the recruitment,

training, and retention of young workers in agriculture.

## The study

The empirical aspect of the research involved following the careers of almost 800 new entrants from the time they left school in 1974 to the end of 1978. Half these young people were enrolled in the Apprenticeship Scheme (i.e. apprentices) while the others were not taking part in formal training (i.e. non-apprentices). Each sample was randomly drawn from 20 counties in England and Wales.

The young workers were interviewed shortly after their entry to farming and again at the end of the survey. If they left the industry during this period, or withdrew from apprenticeship, they were traced and interviewed to establish their reasons for leaving. Comparisons can thus be made between the apprentices who completed their training and those who withdrew and between the careers of the trainees and those who did not enter the Scheme.

## Findings

Schools, colleges and training organizations all face a common difficulty when they come to evaluate their activities: what indicators of success should they choose? The overall aims of agricultural training are to provide the industry with a pool of workers who can efficiently perform a variety of farm tasks, who will adapt to changes in technology, and who at the same time will demonstrate a high degree of commitment to the industry. But, in meeting these broad objectives, what more short-term and measurable criteria can be used to evaluate agricultural apprenticeship? The study examined three such criteria:

- (1) the proportion completing apprenticeship who obtained official craftsman recognition,
- (2) the proportion completing apprenticeship who gained an agricultural educational qualification,

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<sup>2</sup> Readers who wish to know more about the project should apply to the Agricultural Training Board, Bourne House, Beckenham Road, Beckenham, Kent, U.K., for a copy of the Final Report: *Into Work: A Study of Young People Entering Employment in the Agricultural Industry*, 1979.

(3) the proportion who completed their three-year apprenticeship.

In terms of the *first criterion*, the Scheme can be judged as highly successful. The study stressed that 75 % of the young workers completing apprenticeship immediately gained the Board's Craftsman's Certificate, while a further 14 % were in the process of finishing one or two proficiency tests prior to gaining official craftsman's status. In other words, almost 9 out of 10 of the apprentices would be craftsmen within a year of completing apprenticeship. This was in marked contrast to the young workers who did not enter the Scheme. Among the sample of non-apprentices less than 3 % had passed sufficient proficiency tests to gain craftsman recognition, and only a small minority had even taken any tests.

In terms of the *second criterion* the Scheme had also performed well. More than eight out of ten young workers completing apprenticeship (82 %) obtained an agricultural qualification as a result of receiving further education as part of their apprenticeship. Among the non-apprentices only half had taken any further education, and in consequence only a third had obtained a qualification. Another striking difference to emerge was that 4 out of 10 apprentices from working-class backgrounds had attended college full-time (they are allowed to do this in the third year of their apprenticeship if they wish), while only 10 % of the non-apprentices from this type of background had taken a full-time course. Detailed analysis suggests that the obligatory attendance of apprentices on part-time courses encouraged them to continue with further education even though their family background may not have been conducive to such attendance.

Thus on both criteria the Apprenticeship Scheme appears to be successful. However, the situation is not so good when the *third criterion* is examined.

As referred to above, the study was in part commissioned because of the ATB's concern regarding the losses from apprenticeship. These losses have been at a fairly constant level during every year of the Scheme's life; about 35 % of each intake have failed to complete the three years of training. Data from the 1974 sample of apprentices showed that half the loss was the result of apprentices leaving farming; the other ex-apprentices remained in agriculture, and for them withdrawal from training was concerned directly with aspects of the Scheme as such.

The major reasons given by ex-apprentices for leaving farming were as follows:

(a) Redundancy or dismissal: Almost a fifth of those leaving farming did not make a voluntary decision to leave but were pushed out as a result of sacking or redundancy;

(b) 'Situational' factors: A change in circumstances was reported by more than a quarter – accidents, ill health, death of a parent, parents moving from area. These were events outside the control of the worker, his employer, or the Board;

(c) Dissatisfaction with farming: This was the major reason for more than a half of those leaving agriculture – low pay, poor employment conditions (e.g. no itemized wage packet, not being paid on time), long hours and weekend work, and the weather. These types of reason raise the issue of the selection of suitable training employers and the selection of school-leavers for apprenticeship who have some knowledge of what farm work entails.

The major reasons given by the ex-apprentices who remained in farming were as follows:

(a) Attraction of a full-time course: Slightly under a fifth withdrew during the second year of apprenticeship to take a full-time agricultural course;

(b) 'Situational' factors: As in the case of withdrawal from agriculture, almost a quarter experienced a change in circumstances. This was an event which led them to miss day-release classes;

(c) Dissatisfaction with apprenticeship: This was by far the major factor. Dissatisfaction was of two types – dissatisfaction with supervision of on-farm training by the Board's training adviser and more important, dissatisfaction with the further education content of apprenticeship, namely, too boring, too theoretical, and not relevant were the main claims. However, it was not clear whether these criticisms reflected shortcomings in the day-release classes or whether they were comments made by apprentices who could not cope academically with further education. Whichever the case, the results pinpoint that a major weakness of the Scheme is its further education content.

The results also indicated that some of the loss from apprenticeship has been unavoidable. About one in ten of the young people who entered were likely to leave because of 'chance events'. The problem, therefore, for the Board is how to reduce the current loss of 35 % to this 'unavoidable' level of about 10 %. What

actions will achieve this? Before this is examined another issue must be considered, namely, what proportion of new entrants to agriculture should be receiving training and further education.

## Participation in agricultural training and further education

Of the 9 000 school-leavers entering farming in England and Wales during 1974 about

- 15 % entered agricultural apprenticeship,
- 43 % took either a part-time or full-time course at agricultural college, and
- 42 % received no formal training or further education.

The proportion participating in apprenticeship has increased slightly over the past five years, but even today only 23 % of school-leavers enter farming via the Scheme. As the above data show, approximately four out of ten young workers are being neglected by the colleges and the Training Board. These workers are not being ignored deliberately, but the colleges and the Board are either not making contact with them or not offering a package which is attractive to these young people. This largely explains the very low rate of craftsman's certificate attainment among the non-apprentices and why a large proportion of young workers are missing the opportunity of becoming skilled workers.

The proportion of new entrants that need to be taking formal training and further education is a judgement which the agricultural industry as a whole has to make, but it is doubtful whether the current level of participation is adequate. Certainly, it is the expressed hope of both the farmers' and farm workers' unions that a higher proportion of the labour force should become craftsmen. If the industry decides that this proportion should be substantially increased, say to a level (which has been suggested) where at least 60 % of the full-time labour force are craftsmen, then it is obvious from the results of the study that some major changes need to be implemented.

Three objectives must be achieved:

- (1) More young workers must take formal training and further education,
- (2) The losses from training programmes must be reduced,
- (3) Workers must be encouraged to take and pass proficiency tests and apply for the official craftsman's status.

## How can these objectives be achieved?

The study shows very clearly the heterogeneity among the young people who enter farming; they have different social and family backgrounds and have experienced different school careers. It is thus shortsighted to expect that one scheme, the Apprenticeship Scheme, can meet the needs of different types of new entrant. In particular, it was found that three broad groups of young workers could be identified.

First, there are those who appear ideally suited to apprenticeship. Most of these young workers had not been 'academic high fliers' at school, but they usually had taken at least some external examinations. In terms of home background their parents were often working farmers or employed in skilled, manual jobs. As a result of their family and school background they were looking for a job in farming which would give them a 'skill in their hands', and apprenticeship was seen as a route to this craftsman's goal.

Another group of new entrants (mainly those not receiving any training or further education) had done poorly at school. Most disliked their time at school and had not taken any external examinations. Frequently, their parents were employed in semi- or unskilled jobs. As a result of their experiences at home and at school these young people perceived work in terms of its immediate rewards, and so long as farm work offered an acceptable wage and remained reasonably interesting, they remained in the industry. However, because of their attitudes they were unlikely to take formal training, partly because they could not see any reason for taking part in a scheme when the benefits lay three to four years hence, and partly because apprenticeship involved a return to school for at least one day each week.

The third group of new entrants were those looking towards a job in farming with a large managerial content, towards having their own holding or being a farm manager. Most of these young people had done relatively well at school. Nearly all had taken the higher-status General Certificate of Education, and many had stayed at school until the age of 17 or 18. They frequently were the children of prosperous farmers or had parents employed in professional jobs, and hence their expectations and aspirations had been channelled towards a

middle-class career. When they entered farming, most took a further education course outside the Apprenticeship Scheme. They were not interested in apprenticeship, partly because it would mean delaying entry to a full-time course for at least a year and partly because it was training leading to craftsman's status and a working-class career.

If these two latter groups of new entrant are to receive any formal training, then an important change must be introduced through the provision of an alternative form of training to apprenticeship. Such a scheme needs to be less formal than apprenticeship, with its length and further education content being flexible according to the individual's needs and abilities. ATB is currently experimenting with a less formal scheme, the Craft Skills Training Scheme. If this Scheme were adopted and operated in conjunction with apprenticeship, it would result in many more young workers gaining training, for it would not only provide an alternative for the new entrant not up to apprenticeship, but those workers expecting to take full-time courses could receive an input of training for one year before going to college.

Recognition of these different types of new entrant is also important if the second objective is to be achieved, namely, the reduction of losses from training programmes. At the moment too many workers unsuitable for apprenticeship are being accepted as trainees, and in consequence they withdraw, either to take a full-time course or, conversely, because they dislike day-release classes. If the Board had a better method and improved criteria for selecting apprentices, and if it could offer an alternative to apprenticeship for those not suitable to the existing scheme, then it would be a long way towards reducing the Apprenticeship Scheme's losses from 35% to the 10% level.

The third objective is concerned with the motivation of young workers. Why should they gain the craftsman's certificate? The difference between the official craftsman's rate of pay and the ordinary worker for a 40-hour week is currently only £ 6.06 per week, a difference of less than 12%. It was obvious from the results of the study that very many young workers do not think there is sufficient incentive to take the proficiency tests and obtain the certificate. If the industry wishes to see a sizeable increase in craft attainment, then it must increase the statutory wage differential to at least 20%, if not 25%.

## The future

From the discussion so far it is apparent that if British agriculture is to ensure a highly skilled and committed work force, it must develop training programmes which meet not only the needs of the employers but also the needs of many different types of new entrant. However, if the industry is to have more than one route to craftsman's status, it must have some means by which young people are placed in the appropriate form of training or further education. To do this effectively, it is suggested that counselling groups should be established. Such a group – they could be called agricultural counselling committees – would be needed in each administrative county. Ideally they would consist of staff from the Training Board, the agricultural colleges and the Careers Service as well as farmer and farm worker representatives. All potential new entrants would be encouraged to attend their local group, and as a result they would receive information about all aspects of the industry, not only about courses, but also about career prospects and employment conditions.

The advantages to a young worker of attendance would be great, since he and his parents could receive, at one time, information about all aspects of the industry and therefore taking a decision on whether or not to enter farming would be likely to be more rational. The pay-off for employers would also be substantial, as they would be able to ensure the availability of skilled, well-trained men and women. The advantages for the agencies concerned would also be immense. In particular, the agricultural colleges and the Training Board would not only be able to jointly select the appropriate young people for their courses but would have a meeting-place where they could plan the training and further education facilities provided at local county level.

The obvious criticism that will be levelled at the concept of agricultural counselling committees, are the resources they would require. Here two considerations must be borne in mind. First, both the colleges and the Board already spend a considerable amount of time in recruitment and selection. Much duplication occurs which could be eliminated by the adoption of a counselling group. Secondly, by ensuring that workers enter the appropriate career channel much of the loss from courses could be avoided, with a corresponding saving in resources.



## A final word

It is a remarkable fact that as we enter the 1980s many industries, including agriculture, should still employ somewhat haphazard means of gaining and training new recruits to their labour force. In the case of farming, a large

minority of young workers are not receiving any formal training or further education and are therefore likely to remain as semi- or unskilled workers throughout their careers. Conversely, too many new entrants are receiving inappropriate training, and in consequence the losses from apprenticeship as pre-

sently organized are high. If the concept of an agricultural counselling group were to be adopted, then the industry would be able to provide new entrants with a scientific and systematic way of making the transition from school to farming.

# The impact of technical change in the dairy industry

P. Hussey

In late 1978 CEDEFOP and C.E.P.F.A.R. (the European Training and Development Centre for Farming and Rural Life) embarked on a joint study on the impact of technological change in the dairy industry. The study, now in its final stages of preparation, was carried out by four constituent members of C.E.P.F.A.R.: the United Kingdom, Netherlands, Denmark, and Ireland.

Each national study examines the history of the dairy industry development over the last two decades and the response of vocational training in its largest sense to the needs of the industry for trained personnel. Furthermore, each country has undertaken a specific case study, details of which are given later.

CEDEFOP has been conducting a series of similar studies in a range of industries within the EC to examine the impact of change particularly on the personnel of these industries with a view to drawing up guidelines for the development of vocational training over the remaining years of the century and beyond. In view of the importance of the agricultural industry within the European Community, it was appropriate that at least one such industry should be included. Thus the dairy industry is in some way being regarded as representative of the sector.

Besides the four individual national studies, which run to about 40/45 pages each, a covering report which attempts to draw together the conclusions of the national reports is also in course of preparation. This covering report will also endeavour to give some general guidance as to future employment prospects, both in numbers and in conditions, within the EC dairy industry.

In each of the four countries concerned the past two decades have seen

- a major contraction in the number of individual manufacturing units,
- a rapid increase in the amount of milk handled by dairies,

- a relatively small decrease in total employment at dairies,
- a virtual doubling of the productivity of labour in terms of tons of milk/employee/year.

The pattern of evolution in all the countries except the United Kingdom has been very similar, particularly so in the case of Denmark and Ireland. In the two decades from the mid 1950's to the mid/late 1970's there has been a major closing down of small local creameries, coupled with the creation of larger centralized units, each with an expanded range of production facilities. In the Netherlands there has been a similar development but more marked by a grouping of previously independent plants into regional cooperatives for commercial reasons. In each of these three countries cooperative ownership of factories (e. g. by the producer/suppliers) is largely the rule. This has helped considerably in the rationalization of milk processing.

In the United Kingdom, however, the situation is rather different. Alone of the four countries, it is a major importer of dairy produce (though this is lessening). Furthermore, the structural pattern of the industry is unique in the existence of five regional milk marketing boards (set up originally by act of Parliament but now grafted into EC legislation) which had and largely still have the sole right to purchase milk from producers. The milk thus purchased is then sold on by the regional boards to companies (and a few cooperatives) for manufacture into liquid milk and the traditional range of dairy products. As the sole sellers of milk, the regional boards have had both a *de jure* and *de facto* influence on the organization and development of milk processing facilities, as any decision by a dairy company to establish or enlarge a creamery must fit in with the milk movement capabilities of the local board. However, the United Kingdom did not escape from the trend towards bigger plants evident in the other three countries (and indeed,

in all of western Europe), particularly in the 1970's, when the proportion of milk going to liquid consumption began to decline.

The impetus to increased size was and is a combination of many factors, no one of which can be singled out as predominant:

- improvement in technology – continuous butter making, one-way packaging, containerization, etc.;
- economic – in the sense of wishing to improve the efficiency of labour, and in some cases inability to recruit labour (particularly in the 1960's) against a background of increasing milk supplies;
- market demand – competition on the supply side (EC legislation), concentration on the side of demand (chains and supermarkets).

Over the past two decades the dairy industry has rapidly evolved, not only in terms of internal structure but in terms of its market. With near stagnant domestic markets the increase in production has mostly found an outlet in exports and for the three countries except the United Kingdom in considerable measure outside the EC. In the same period the industry has more and more come to regard itself as part of the food industry with a national and international role rather than an extension service to local farmers.

So much for the development of the industry. What has the effect been on employment, training and conditions within the industry? Although the output per man has risen sharply, milk intake rises have ensured that employment in the industry has dropped only marginally. The range of skills required by the industry is now virtually the same as in any other industry of comparable size. At the technical/manufacturing stage mechanization has taken over from craftsmen, but the mechanization itself requires craftsmen to keep it in working order. Increasing food and hygiene legislation as well as environmental pro-

tection rules have called forth a need for a large number of qualified personnel at all levels in these fields.

The new organizations have produced a requirement for a completely new type and style of management, particularly in the cooperative sector where little in their previous experience prepared today's managers for the scale and complexity of their task. The employment of very much larger staffs in the individual plants has led to much more formalized relationships with the trade unions, employers associations, and proprietors (particularly so again in the case of cooperatives). The exercise of management has become part of the life of people at many levels.

Inevitably, the most important part of the study concerns the effects of institutional and structural change on the individual, whatever his rank or position in the enterprise. Change effects both his life and contentment on the job and the training that he got or gets to fulfil it. These are by definition areas that are difficult to quantify and in the absence of data can really only consist of subjective observation.

Much of modern industry is admitted to be boring, noisy, and repetitive. Many of the processes are such that the individual feels that he is a 'cog in a wheel' rather than part of the team which in a simpler industrial structure he was more likely to feel. Outside the top level of management very few if any of the staffs seem to be aware of the financial and economic state of their enterprise, despite efforts of management to inform them. However, the balance is not entirely negative. Social legislation has done much to improve the conditions of employment and trade unions are vigilant in the matter. Hours of work are shorter. Real rates of pay have improved.

The United Kingdom contribution to the study includes a case study of the changeover of a plant in Somerset from traditional cheese making to milk powder manufacture. Included are some extremely interesting descriptions of the reactions of workers to the change. A questionnaire on staff attitudes, though

obviously limited in its application, tends to disprove some preconceived notions of people's attitudes to change. The changeover to powder manufacture, nowadays a highly mechanized procedure, from traditional cheese manufacture where the craftsman's art is still important was found to be less boring by nearly 60 % of all staffs, though the reverse might well have been expected to be the case. Somewhat more relevantly, no less than 76 % of those involved thought that insufficient training (and retraining) had been carried out, though this feeling may perhaps have been primarily due to the fact that the question was taken before the staffs had had much experience with the new processes.

The Danish contribution concerns the effects of organizational changes on staff at all levels, illustrated by the establishment of Dairy Denmark, and on the proprietors of the creameries, the local farmer producers. The objective of the creation of Dairy Denmark was to rationalize, at a time of stagnant national milk production, the manufacturing sector from a very large number of small local plants into a much smaller number of bigger ones. Although the original plans for the company (going back to 1963) envisaged a country-wide coop, the initial response was quite modest when in 1970 the company finally got under way. 40 plants affiliated, of which 12 were immediately closed down. Over the period to 1979 the company has made regular progress and now accounts for about 20 % of the national milk intake; only 32 of the 75 affiliated dairies are still in operation, but these have been subjected to a major rationalization and specialization. Although nearly 60 % of the plants have been closed down, the loss in total employment has been a mere handful. However, the negligible job-loss hides very profound changes in the role and attitudes of staff, particularly at plant manager level. These managers had traditionally had a very close working relationship with all their suppliers, most of whom were known personally to them, and with the coop committee. Obviously only a few of them succeeded in obtaining positions of similar dimension in the larger organization and tended thus to lose in status, if not in

financial terms. For professional staffs below the level plant manager there was a much lesser feeling of change but the loss of contact with suppliers was felt. Also the specialization in production in each factory had increased somewhat the sense of job monotony.

For farmer members, the new structures removed the personal contact with the creamery and its manager. However, most had been prepared to trade this sentimental advantage for better returns and more securely-based industry, of which they still remained proprietors.

In Ireland the particular case study concerns the growth and staffing of the central export marketing coop which in turn is owned by the manufacturing coops and a small number of private or mixed factories. The study points out that the existence of a single marketing body permits the employment of a wide range of non-technical staff in the marketing, financial, organizational, and personnel fields as well as the employment of technical dairy specialists in quality control and product development.

The participation of the Netherlands is mainly centred on an examination of the college/industry interface how education prepares people to deal with change. The study deals at considerable length with the problems of managing the evolving demand of industry for skilled personnel at all levels with the supply of young graduates coming out of technical and university education. It further discusses the needs for and methods of ensuring the ongoing requirement for retraining and refresher courses. The final chapters deal with the attitude of people to change, whether people be individuals, employers, educationalists, or the state.

In general the study shows that problems encountered by each participating country are very largely shared, and that the responses too are basically the same, though obviously shaped by the character and history of each society and by its stage of economic or industrial development. However, the growth of community legislation in so many fields is slowly leading to a harmonization of response.

## INFORMATION

### France

## Agricultural training

The agricultural sector, occupying 10 % of the gainfully employed population<sup>1</sup> on some 1 200 000 farms having an average area of 25 ha, plays a major role in the French economy. It is also a sector which has undergone a considerable transformation process over the last thirty years.

Whereas in 1946 the agricultural sector in France occupied 36.8% of the working population, the corresponding figure in 1960 was 20%. Accordingly, this occupational group had to adapt itself more than any other group to new realities, including new developments in technology and the services sector, rapid mechanization, population increase, industrial development and industrial concentration, and international competition.

The rapid development which agriculture was undergoing during this period caused the senior members of the profession and the administration to review the issue of agricultural training. It was found that there was an urgent need to update initial agricultural training and to develop greater opportunities in continuing training. Education and training in agriculture were issues which had hardly been touched until 1960. The agricultural profession considered the provision of a training system which offered instruction in all aspects of agriculture but which respected occupational mobility and other factors to be essential if this occupational group was to enjoy the same development opportunities as other occupational groups. Legislation adopted on 2 August 1960 sought to meet this call by regulating the provisions governing initial agricultural training in the public sector. Such initial agricultural training comprises technical training, apprenticeship, and tertiary education in agriculture.

## Initial agricultural training

The specificities of the farming world seem to have brought with them a certain independence for agricultural training vis-à-vis the general education system. Agricultural training thus falls within the competence of the Ministry of Agriculture.

Primary and secondary education (up to the age of 13, 14, or 15, depending on the type of education) normally falls within the competence of the Ministry of Education. Legislation adopted in 1960 provided for the introduction of a system of full-time training in agriculture and the establishment of training institutions to be administered by the Ministry of Agriculture.

### 1. Public sector training cycles

Formal training in agriculture is organized in the same way as that serving the industrial and commercial sectors. Instruction is offered in two distinct cycles, the short cycle and the long cycle.

The short cycle offers the learner a choice between two tracks:

- a three-year course commencing after completion of the fifth class in the first cycle of general secondary education and leading to the vocational training certificate in agriculture (CAPA) (trainees normally begin at 13 years of age);
- a two-year course commencing after completion of the third class of the first cycle of secondary education and leading to the vocational studies certificate in agriculture (BEPA); (trainees normally begin at 15 years of age).

Provision is of course made for transfers between these two tracks. The CAPA and BEPA are professional qualifications equivalent to that of skilled worker and are of value in the integration process into working life.<sup>2</sup>

In 1979 the public sector short training cycle accommodated 20 570 trainees, of whom 6 635 were girls.

The long cycle is a three-year cycle which commences after completion of the third class of the first cycle of general secondary education (trainees begin at 15 years of age) and leads to one of two qualifications:

- the technical certificate in agriculture (BTA) which is offered in two options, the first (the specialized option) giving direct access to working life and the second (the general option) paving the way for further short-term training;
- the baccalauréat (certificate of academic secondary education) in agronomic and technical sciences (series D) which paves the way for entrance to long-term higher education (universities and the renowned 'grandes écoles').

In 1979 the public sector long training cycle accommodated 20 780 trainees, of whom 4 440 were girls.

The courses of the short cycle are provided in agricultural colleges and agricultural training centres; those of the long cycle are provided in academic secondary agricultural schools. Most administrative districts have one academic secondary agricultural school and two agricultural colleges. Training is provided on a full-time basis, with some hours being reserved for practical courses in specialized technical subjects.

### 2. Private sector training cycles

These training cycles are likewise available in private training institutions. Private institutions, approximately 900 in number, are well represented in France, and usually have a longer tradition than the public institutions. They play an important role in agricultural training, accommodating some 63 000 trainees in the short cycle and some 9 400 trainees in the long cycle.

The private institutions normally operate on the basis of an agreement concluded with the state, and belong to one or more unions or federations such as the Conseil National de l'Enseignement Agricole Privé – CNEAP (National Council for Private Agricultural Education) and the Union Nationale Rurale d'Education et de Promotion – UNREP (National Union for Education and Advancement in Rural Areas). They can be classified into two

<sup>1</sup> The share of the agricultural sector in the French gross domestic product in 1977 was approximately 4%.

<sup>2</sup> Farmers must hold at least the BEPA qualification if they are to benefit from public assistance (establishment grant, development plan benefits, etc.)

major groups, namely, those which provide full-time training, which are organized in the same way as the public institutions, and those which provide short-term training based on the principle of parallelism. The most outstanding of this latter group is the Union Nationale des Maisons Familiales Rurales d'Education et d'Orientation (National Union of Rural Education and Orientation Centres).

The first of such rural centres was established in 1937. It introduced a training approach based on parallelism in training (periods spent on an agricultural holding alternating with periods spent at the training centre, promotion of family responsibility and family participation, residence at the training centre, work in small groups). There are now more than 550 such rural centres throughout France, together accommodating almost 30 000 trainees.

### 3. Apprenticeship

When the technical education system was adapted to provide for the needs of the agricultural sector and legislation introducing agricultural schools and colleges was adopted, it seemed that apprenticeship in agriculture had lost its *raison d'être*. Nevertheless it was reinstated on 16 July 1971 within the framework of legislation governing a general reform of the apprenticeship system for the benefit of those young people who proved to be ill-suited to full-time education in an academic atmosphere. Apprenticeship in agriculture is of two years' duration and leads to the vocational training certificate in agriculture (CAPA). Apprenticeship may take place on a family-owned holding. The theoretical part of the training is provided in the 78 training centres for apprentices in agriculture.

However, apprenticeship in agriculture has been found to be of interest to only a limited number of young people, the annual intake rate varying between 3 500 and 4 000.

### 4. Tertiary education

The final branch of agricultural training in this initial context is tertiary education in the agronomic and veterinary sciences. This branch again offers two tracks:

– a two-year course leading to the advanced technical certificate in agriculture (BTSA) accessible to trainees holding the technical certificate in agriculture (BTA) or the baccalauréat and deemed to be otherwise suitably qualified and motivated. Of the 5 646 applications received

for this course in 1979, 1 760 candidates were admitted;

– courses preparing students for the competitive entrance examinations of the national engineering and technical colleges (open to students holding the baccalauréat or the BTAG), and the national veterinary and agronomic sciences colleges (open to students holding baccalauréat C, D, or D1).

Despite the wide variety of training opportunities available, a number of farmers' professional organizations maintain that too many farmers have undergone no or only inadequate training, claiming that 62.9 % of farmers under the age of 35 have undergone no training at all, 37.7 % of this same group have undergone only primary or secondary education in agriculture, and only 1.4% have undergone higher education in agriculture.<sup>1</sup> A survey conducted by the French national statistics office INSEE in 1975 likewise showed that 'the children of farming families are more and more inclined to choose the short cycles of technical or agricultural training,' that the numbers entering higher education remain stagnant, and that access to training is more difficult for the daughters of farmers or farm employees than for their sons. The majority of the criticisms levelled at agricultural training were directed at the short cycle, and usually focused on the pedagogy employed. A number of critics maintain *inter alia* that this cycle does not provide sufficient instruction of a general nature and that it encapsulates the intending farmers into an occupational ghetto.

Nevertheless, it has been found that young people who have undergone agricultural training encounter fewer difficulties in becoming integrated into working life than those qualified for other sectors. Between 70 % and 75 % of the trainees leaving the short cycle with the BEPA and 30 % of those leaving the long cycle and the higher education courses find a job in their chosen occupation.

Even though a number of problems persist, it must not be forgotten that this education system was introduced only recently and that it has nevertheless contributed to making good a major backlog. Both the agricultural profession and the public authorities seem to be aware of the adaptation work which still needs to be done, in particular as regards the contact between the public education

system and the professional organizations. Such contact plays an important role in the further development of training. For example, the director of an academic agricultural school might well be a qualified agronomics engineer and, in his capacity as secretary of the district committee for agricultural development, work alongside those who are responsible for adult education within the district. Furthermore, the fact that each educational establishment also runs an agricultural holding of its own guarantees that regular contact is maintained with the development institutions, the agricultural cooperative movement, agricultural banking facilities, etc.

The path now being pursued by the Ministry of Agriculture is one in which every effort is made to fully integrate the whole spectrum of vocational training in agriculture between agricultural education and continuing training.

### Continuing training

Although the legislation adopted in France on 16 July 1971 on the structure of continuing training<sup>2</sup> applies equally to the agricultural sector, the present structure of continuing training for employed and self-employed agricultural workers is in fact an adaptation of the general provisions of that legislation.

The French government assumes a major role in the financing of long-term courses (i.e. of more than 120 hours' duration) in the agricultural and para-agricultural fields. It contributes by virtue of a number of conventions to financing the operation and equipment of more than 350 training centres, of which some 200 are in private management, and likewise contributes to funding the allowances granted the trainees. With this governmental support, it was possible to make almost 1000 different cycles available to 53 000 trainees in 1978.

Responsibility for the application of continuing training policy on agriculture is incumbent on the Ministry of Agriculture. The Ministry of Agriculture offers a wide variety of training courses designed to appeal to individuals seeking to establish themselves in agriculture, gain a basic education, retrain for work in another sector, etc. These types of training are conceptualized to cater for

<sup>1</sup> Source: Jeunes agriculteurs – enseignement agricole: une crise d'adaptation, No 316, February 1979.

<sup>2</sup> i.e. training measures designed for young people and adults who are already integrated into working life.



all the socio-occupational groups represented in agriculture (farmers, employees, newcomers, and those wishing to leave). They afford a number of subject-matter options (agriculture, animal husbandry, economics, etc.), and may be organized on a full-time or part-time basis.

This variety of training needs is catered for by a corresponding variety of training measures:

- courses leading to the vocational training certificate in agriculture (BPA) (skilled worker level), which are of some 800 hours' duration, provide basic instruction in technical subjects and in economics, and prepare the learner for the occupation of farm manager or farmer. It should be noted that this qualification is exclusive to continuing training;
- one-year and two-year courses leading to a certificate in technical training in agriculture (vocational studies certificate, technical certificate, advanced technical certificate). These courses are designed to promote occupational advancement among those who had not previously been able to obtain such qualifications during their period of schooling but who have occupational experience;
- short-term courses of 200 hours of instruction providing the learner with a minimal vocational training. These courses are designed principally for young people who are intending to take over a farm. They render those who have not already gained the vocational training certificate in agriculture or equivalent qualification eligible for the financial assistance offered by the state (establishment grants, development plan benefits, etc.);
- courses to assist those intending to abandon agriculture retrain for the para-agricultural or social occupations. These courses are likewise of value to farmers wishing to pursue a secondary occupation (in tourism, for example).
- courses designed for the wives of farmers to allow them to benefit from a complementary training analogous to that undergone by their husbands within the framework of 200-hour courses.

These training courses all pursue the general objective of educational advancement, retraining, or even making good lost educational opportunities. A number of them specifically seek to offer farmers the possibility of updating and upgrading knowledge they have already acquired. These latter are for the main part organized by two institutions established and run by the farmers' professional organizations and the farm

workers' organizations at national level, namely, the Training Insurance Fund for Farmers (FAFEA) and the Training Insurance Fund for Farm workers (FAFSEA). Institutions of this kind, introduced by virtue of the 1971 legislation on continuing training and already well represented in a number of occupational branches play an important role in the agricultural and para-agricultural sector, in which only 4 800 enterprises have more than the 10 employees rendering them liable to subscribe to the obligatory participation in the financing of continuing training at the rate of 1.1% of the payroll.

The function of such training funds is to administer the sums accruing to them for the financing of training activities for their membership. Their financial resources derive for the main part from the National Association for Agricultural Development (ANDA)<sup>1</sup> and, in the case of the fund for employees in agriculture, from the subscriptions raised by its employee membership. In 1978 some 72 000 trainees benefited from the training activities organized by these two training funds.

The training insurance funds also offer a forum for concerted action and coordination: in the case of the farmers' fund FAFEA between the major agricultural organizations such as the chambers of agriculture and the farmers' professional organizations FNSEA and CNJA<sup>2</sup> on the one hand and the mutual insurance institutions, agricultural credit institutions, and farmers' cooperative organizations on the other. As regards the farm workers' training insurance fund FAFSEA, this institution is itself the result of an agreement between the farmers' unions and those representing agricultural employees (CGT, CFDT, FO, CFTC, and CGC).

These organizations and institutions likewise participate in the provision of training opportunities outside the framework of these funds. They are of course also represented in the public coordination bodies established by the 1971 legislation on continuing training. They furthermore contribute to the promotion of training activities which fall beyond the scope of continuing training proper and often owe their existence to initiatives taken prior to the 1971 legislation. Such activities are mainly concerned with agricultural development

and the promotion of training for collective bargaining activities and represent a complement to the activities offered within the framework of continuing training proper.

That which in France is known as agricultural development comprises a whole range of initiatives designed to familiarize farmers with the findings of applied research and disseminate the information required to improve agricultural techniques, agricultural production, business administration, and the economic structures governing the production and sale of agricultural produce, and upgrade the living conditions of the farming community.

Conceptualized as an integral element of agricultural policy in the 60's, agricultural development was organized by way of a decree adopted in 1966. At national level this statute provided for the establishment of the Association Nationale pour le Développement Agricole — ANDA (National Association for Agricultural Development) in which the agricultural organizations and the Ministry of Agriculture enjoy equal representation. At district level it provided for the establishment of Services d'Utilité Agricole de Développement — SUAD (Agricultural Development Institutions) in which the public authorities, chambers of agriculture, private law associations, trade union organizations, credit institutions, cooperative organizations, and mutual insurance institutions assemble on the basis of equal representation.

The activities organized within the framework of agricultural development include advanced training courses, study days, demonstrations of new techniques, and even individual counselling sessions alongside the normal training and information sessions. They serve as a valuable complement to continuing training proper.

Promotion measures within the framework of training for collective bargaining seek to provide training in the economic and social sciences for those intending to assume positions of responsibility within the farmers' associations and the agricultural trade unions. Activities take the form of training sessions at national or local level, and study tours and promotion campaigns organized either by the farmers' professional organizations and trade union organizations themselves or by specialized centres working in cooperation with them.

<sup>1</sup> The funds over which ANDA disposes derive from para-fiscal levies on specific agricultural produce.

<sup>2</sup> National Federation of Farmers' Professional Organizations and National Union of Young Farmers.

## Italy

# Agricultural training — a survey in southern Italy

### Introduction

Between 1977 and 1978, in agreement with the training institutions and the trade union organizations, ISFOL conducted a survey designed to pinpoint the most urgent agricultural training needs and identify possible training scheme approaches.

Both a firmly held conviction and a very definite need gave rise to this survey. The prospects of agricultural regeneration in Italy depend not only on structural changes but also on factors which decisively influence the professional skills and abilities of the agricultural working population, from farm management down to actual farm work. Intervention programmes for the development of agricultural skills must therefore be planned and formulated in line with economic and production objectives in order to function as catalysts in processes of change and development.

For reasons inherent in Italy's past and recent history professional qualifications in the primary sector suffer from the same constraints and struggle with the same contradictions as prevail in the economic-productive dimension to which they belong. In fact, changes in the agricultural production system over the past ten years stemming from the EC integration process have seriously undermined the agricultural labour market, a situation further exacerbated by a trend towards the optimization of the capital-labour ratio.

A consequence of greatest macroscopic impact has been the efflux of about one and a half million workers from the agricultural sector during the past ten years, together with a gradual process of agricultural labour marginalization as demonstrated by a gradual reduction in the volume of stable employment and a corresponding increase in that of casual and seasonal work.

In agriculture, more so than in other economic sectors, serious vocational training problems are inherent in the gradual worsening of the production and employment situation. Possibilities of agricultural regeneration must therefore be linked not only to structural policies but also to wide-ranging intervention schemes designed to restore territorial

balance and further strengthen and develop production factors, one of which is the human being.

Good timing and coherency are by no means of secondary importance in the eyes of rural groups. The restoration of agriculture as a determinant factor in the regeneration process is linked to the recovery and complete exploitation of available manpower and qualification resources and at the same time dependent on the upgrading of qualifications. In this respect the development of agricultural professionalism will serve not only to herald the dignity of farm labour by placing the highest possible value on qualification; as multiplier of a series of positive factors it may also help to turn the unanimous desire for change, so often proclaimed by agriculture, into tangible fact.

Clearly defined horizons are demonstrated by legislation establishing the first significant instruments of agricultural planning policy (we only need mention Law No 984, which lays down criteria for the national and regional coordination of public intervention and planning in the main agricultural sectors) and by the commitment of the social partners to agricultural development aimed at a system of agroindustrial integration of production and hence employment.

In line with this strategy vocational training must go beyond exercising purely training functions and also undertake to better enable workers to influence and direct the production process.

To this end our study has endeavoured to provide initial interpretation and planning aids designed for the existing career structure and, from a short- and medium-term perspective, also for agroindustrial integration processes.

### Possible training scheme approaches

On the basis of a precise field survey conducted in the province of Foggia on a representative sample of farms selected according to type of production and form of management two types of professional qualification could be distinguished and differentiated:

- The first is an explicit qualification demand which derives directly from current qualification demand characteristic of typical social roles;
- The second is an implicit qualification demand, identifiable through phenomena only indirectly connected with qualification levels.

On the basis of this distinction between explicit and implicit qualification demand the training objectives of a number of symbolic occupations of the sector could be defined:

- entrepreneurs-managers,
- farm workers,
- farm labourers and young people in neotraining cooperatives.

The training objectives were as follows:

- extrasectorial objectives, which are directly connected not only with ways of improving agricultural vocational training but also with all opportunities which may promote general agricultural development and the concomitantly necessary redressing of economic imbalances;
- sectorial and intersectorial objectives, which relate to vocational training intervention, socioeconomic training, and technical guidance and information as well as to associated industry upstream and downstream of the agricultural sector where agriculture can provide input for product processing, canning, and marketing.

### Extrasectorial training objectives

The ever increasing awareness and understanding of the economic role of agriculture and its attendant problems calls for increased interest on the part of the schools and the general public.

Defined against the background of this need, the training objectives are as follows:

- promotion of organized discussion on the relationships between the school, the university, research, and agriculture;
- subsequent designing of a pilot project for the implementation of monographic courses at various levels, including post-school level, on problems facing agriculture, the complete exploitation of its resources, and its training opportunities leading to an agricultural qualification;
- follow-up measures aimed at the development of agricultural research in technical, economic, and social fields.

### Sectorial and intersectorial training objectives

Taking into account a series of phenomena such as diversification of forms of production, changes in forms of management, and diverse employment development, the breakdown of these objectives per target group is as follows:

For the entrepreneur-manager better knowledge of agricultural legislation (at EC, national, and regional level) should have priority; better training in farm



management is needed, and crop rotation in line with land-use planning should be encouraged; better use of human resources should be promoted in line with qualification demand in order to nurture emerging dynamic trends (cooperative farming, top quality crops, increased mechanization, soil management, etc.). All this can be achieved with the cooperation and involvement of educational and research centres while at the same time making full use of all funds available under regional development programmes.

As regards training schemes for farm workers, better and broader technical content should be offered so as to upgrade average skills and facilitate job mobility within certain occupational groups, thus safeguarding overall employment levels. In this context general training in farm management and crop rotation should be provided in order to develop the workers' critical awareness of the entire production process.

For farm labourers and young people undergoing initial training in agricultural cooperatives training in subject matter mentioned above is possible. From the agricultural cooperative aspect special emphasis should be placed on farm organization and management. Learning from shortcomings encountered in nearly all agricultural work-sharing initiatives, whether cooperative or not, these needs have been clearly responded to within the framework of Law No 285 providing incentives to combat youth unemployment and the provisions of law No 34 of the Region of Apulia.

Source: Isfol, Rome

## Belgium

### Agricultural training

Education is compulsory in Belgium for all children up to 14 years of age. Although an extension of compulsory schooling to the age of 16 has been called for from many quarters for a number of years, the majority of children in Belgium in fact already complement their primary education (six years of schooling to the age of twelve) with three years of lower secondary education.

Secondary education establishments throughout Belgium are now tending to adopt the revised approach to education. This approach has been made obligatory

in public educational establishments and has already found wide application in the private institutions in southern Belgium and in some parts of northern Belgium. The agricultural schools are following the same trend and are already making reference to biotechnical studies.

Full-time education and continuing training fall within the competence of the Ministry of Education, and with them, of course, training in agriculture.

Agricultural training establishments offering tuition at all levels are located throughout the country. They provide instruction of a technoscientific nature for trainees recruited from farm families and elsewhere. Their objective is not simply promotion of the call to return to the land. It also manifests a commitment to para-agricultural activities in general, to the industries located upstream and downstream of agriculture proper and to the agricultural service industries.

The fact that these establishments are widely dispersed throughout the country often implies that training takes place on a residential basis.

Despite the adequate number of this type of training institution and the high quality of the instruction provided, only a minority of established farmers have undergone training of this kind. Access to the farming profession is open to all comers and does not require any formal vocational qualification earned at school and attested by a diploma or certificate. Nevertheless, it must be remembered that a high number of sons and daughter of farm families complete compulsory schooling and obtain qualifications for an occupation of their choice. Yet of the even higher number of young people from farming families who subsequently take over a farm the majority have undergone training in an agricultural, technical, or general secondary school.

The Belgian Ministry of Agriculture introduced post-school education in agriculture by way of legislation enacted in 1890. This was constantly upgraded and updated until the publication of EC Directive 161 of 17 April 1972 (Belgian legislation of 23 August 1974) regulating the organization of education and training in agriculture. The EC Directive governs the organization and implementation of oral courses, correspondence courses, study sessions, counselling sessions, training courses, guided study tours, study days, contact days, and the utilization of educational establishments.

Continuing training in Belgium can be subdivided into five types:

- Type A: basic courses for individuals engaged in the agricultural sector whose basic education is inadequate;
- Type B: courses providing instruction in a specific subject for individuals wishing to establish themselves in agriculture; training is oriented towards specific types of farm and focuses on the study of modern methods of organization and management;
- Type C: courses seeking to provide detailed supplementary instruction in a technological subject, business administration, or any other specific subject on a periodical basis and with close reference to a given type of farm;
- Type D: educational activities including study sessions, counselling sessions, guided study tours, and contact days organized within the framework of continuing education;
- Type E: training measures in the form of study days for personnel engaged in agricultural training.

Post-school education in agriculture is for the main part well attended. Activities are normally specially designed to cater for distinct target groups, namely, adult farmers, farmers' wives, and young people.

The attendance figures for training activities of this kind organized between 1 September 1977 and 31 August 1978 are encouraging:

530 courses	17 933 training hours
5 514 counselling sessions	5 514 training hours
3 983 study sessions	7 966 training hours
	31 413 training hours

Competence for post-school training in agriculture is at present shared by the Ministry for Cultural Affairs in the French-speaking Community (southern Belgium) and the Ministry for Cultural Affairs in the Flemish-speaking Community (northern Belgium).

Source: ONEM, Brussels

## Luxembourg

### Agricultural training

Training for occupations in agriculture in Luxembourg is provided at the technical secondary school at Ettelbruck. Established in 1884, this school was reor-

ganized in 1945 and again in 1971. The legislation adopted on 21 May 1979 on vocational training, secondary technical education, and continuing training has now provided for a further modification of the organizational structure of secondary technical education.

## Institute for Agricultural Training

Legislation adopted on 12 November 1971 redesignated the former School of Agriculture as the Institute for Agricultural Training. The function of this establishment is

(a) to provide training which is humanistic, vocational, theoretical, and practical in nature for intending agriculturalists, and winegrowers and to provide vocational retraining and advanced training for adults;

(b) to examine problems of a pedagogic, scientific, technical, economic, or sociological nature which bear reference to agricultural training.

Two training courses are offered:

- a three-year course for pupils who were unsuccessful in an entrance examination for the longer course taken upon completion of six years of primary education this course leads to the award of a certificate in practical skills;
- a five-year course for those pupils who were successful in the entrance examination.

The three-year course is in principle open to all young people wishing to restrict their education to the period during which it is compulsory.

The five-year course is made up of two cycles:

- The first cycle comprises three years of general and technical education,
- The second cycle comprises two further years of specialized education. Successful completion of the course leads to the award of the certificate in agricultural studies.

The course curriculum is composed of the following subjects:

- general studies: religious instruction, secular moral philosophy, French, German, English, history, civil rights and duties, mathematics, geography, arts and crafts, and physical education;
- sciences: physics, chemistry, botany, and zoology;
- technical studies: general and specialized agronomy, general and

specialized technology of animal husbandry (zootechnics), phytopathology, agricultural economics and business administration, rural arts and crafts, agricultural mechanics, silviculture, horticulture, arboriculture, winegrowing, and construction of farm buildings.

Motivation as regards training is a factor of particular importance among intending farmers since there is no obligation to obtain a certificate or diploma before being allowed to take over a farm. Yet young people from farming or other kinds of rural background are in no way automatically instilled with this so essential motivation to continue training after completing their period of compulsory schooling. The many reasons for their attitude include

- underestimation of the value of a good vocational training,
- precariousness of the economic situation in agriculture,
- absence of 'schooling tradition',
- relative neglect of practical aspects in the agricultural training provided.

The situation is now such that

- the number of young people who complete the five-year agricultural course is only modest: the majority abandon their studies as soon as they reach the age of fifteen, i.e. the age at which compulsory schooling ends;
- the training provided in the three-year agricultural course is no longer adequate for a modern farmer.

## Legislation of 21 May 1979 relating to agricultural training

In view of the fact that the principal provisions of this piece of legislation were set out in a previous CEDEFOP Bulletin, this report seeks to merely review the new organizational structure as it affects agricultural training. Agricultural training now comprises

- (a) an orientation and observation cycle which begins after completion of the sixth year of primary education. The training provided in this context no longer includes vocational training;
- (b) a further cycle, normally of three years' duration, which comprises full-time technical education and part-time vocational training designed to complement in-firm training.

This technical education approach bears some similarity to the contemporary long cycle of five-years' duration described above. It is likewise based on a general education of three years' duration

followed by two years of full-time apprenticeship which provides for both theoretical and practical vocational training, and a final year of practical training. Training leads to the award of the vocational training certificate (CATP).

The other approach to agriculture, in which emphasis is on vocational training proper, is still at an initial stage of development; its precise provisions have yet to be determined.

Agricultural training up to this level may be complemented by attendance at courses of the higher cycle of technical secondary education. Such additional training entitles the trainee to the technician's diploma.

The reforms introduced into the technical secondary education system have paved the way for a broader-based agricultural education than was previously the case, and one in which emphasis is placed on the practical aspects of training.

## Vocational training in horticulture

Vocational training in horticulture is in principle open to anyone over 15 years of age. Training comprises

- a period of apprenticeship in a horticultural enterprise of the trainee's choice;
- a course of general instruction in the pure sciences, technology, the humanities, and the social sciences at the vocational school in Luxembourg-Ville, provided on the basis of one day per week throughout the year for all trainees who have concluded a contract with an enterprise recognized by the professional organizations as constituting an enterprise qualified to train apprentices.

The course is of three years' duration and affords a class instruction in the various specialized branches of horticulture which is approached on the basis of discussion and consolidation of the practical work undertaken during in-firm training.

Formal training and apprenticeship terminate with a final examination leading to the award of the vocational training certificate.

## Vocational training for adults

The training available to farmers has been updated by the organization of

training courses seeking to constantly upgrade qualifications in technical subjects, agriculture, and economics. These retraining and agricultural extension activities are organized jointly by the Technical School for Agriculture, the various centres of the Ministry of Agriculture, and the Rural Life centre acting for the Chamber of Agriculture.

In addition to its normal agricultural training activities, the Rural Life Centre has since 1972 been cooperating with the above-mentioned institutions in the implementation of seminars (seven or eight seminars each winter) on a wide variety of subjects. The seminars are normally attended by more than 1 000 persons per year; between 40 % and 50 % of those registering prove to be regular attenders.

A final aspect of vocational training for adults is the training in winegrowing organized by the Institute of Viticulture at Remich.

## Final remarks

The Rural Life Centre is fully supporting the efforts being undertaken in the field of training in agriculture. It concurs with the view taken at the Ministry of Agriculture that the endeavours to raise productivity are placing increasing demands on the qualifications of farmers, that these qualifications are in need of constant upgrading, and that intellectual investment will prove to be one of the crucial aspects in the development of the agricultural sector in Luxembourg. There further exists an urgent need to improve the general education of young farmers and to link education, with its theoretical approach, to the practical realities of the agricultural sector. Accordingly, care must be taken to exhaust all the possibilities offered by the EC Directive on a socioeconomic approach to agricultural training.

Source: Ministry of Education, Luxembourg

## Denmark

### Agricultural training

Denmark's historical tradition as a farming country has influenced education and training in the agricultural sector. It has had impact on the structure, adminis-

tration, and actual contents of the system and tends also to characterize the social and geographical status of the students. To this must be added the impact of changing economic structures during the present century, specifically the last few decades. Only by keeping in mind these historical and economic perspectives is it possible to appreciate why the various systems of agricultural training in Denmark evolved the way they did.

### Historical background

Danish agricultural training is firmly rooted in the folk high school movement. Up to the middle of the last century there were no forms of training for intending farmers, but with the establishment of the folk high schools (the first was at Rodding in South Jutland in 1844) young people in rural areas were offered an education aimed at remedying their situation.

Two previous events stand out as precursors of this development, firstly the agrarian reforms during the last decades of the 18th century, which led to the abolition of adscription and subsequent transition to the yeoman farmer principle so that in 1807 60 % of all farms became freehold property, and secondly the Education Act of 1814, which provided for compulsory education.

As the folk high schools got going there was a whole category of young people in rural areas who could look forward to becoming independent farmers and consequently were motivated to educate themselves and also had their schooling behind them as a firm base to build on. However, the folk high schools did not provide these young people with a specific agricultural training; rather it gave them a popular universal education of a somewhat varied political and religious observance. The version with the greatest impact was influenced by the Danish poet and bishop N. F. S. Grundtvig.

In 1867 the first real agricultural school was founded. It was heavily influenced by the folk high schools, so much so that subjects were taught which had deliberate focus on the farming occupation but nevertheless contained heavy doses of a general educational nature. The same combination was also very much in evidence as a feature in the agricultural schools that were founded later, and indeed to this day it substantially marks Danish agricultural training. Around 1900 there were 80 folk high schools and

28 agricultural schools in which one-third of the young farming generation between 20 and 25 years of age received their education. A social bias at the time meant that a far greater number of farmers' sons than smallholders' sons frequented the schools.

In this century Denmark's gradual transition from being predominantly a farming country to becoming principally an industrial nation has brought about a continuous drop in the number of people employed in the agricultural sector. Today only 7.1 % of Denmark's gainfully employed population work in the farming sector, and this figure is expected to decline further to reach about 4 to 5 % in 1990. It is characteristic for Danish agriculture today that the main part of the work is done by the farmer and his family with little assistance from outside. This trend became more marked during the last decades, and in 1978 outside help accounted for only 20 % of the total manpower.

In comparison with the trend in other countries in western Europe, changes in the composition of the economic sectors in Denmark proceeded fairly slowly during the first half of this century. In the period after World War II, however, prosperity accelerated in the secondary and tertiary sectors at the expense of the primary sector.

Economic development also led to far-reaching changes in work processes, not only in industry but also in agriculture, where growing mechanization and rationalization, particularly in the 1960's placed new demands on skills and qualifications.

These changes were reflected in the educational system in the agricultural sector, so that by and large structures developed during the 1960's which still exist today. The training of farmers became consolidated on a much firmer basis and an extra tier, a sort of super-structure atop the existing agricultural education framework, was added, namely, agro-technician training. As late as the late 1960's it was quite common to start work as a farmer without any formal education, but now 90 % of intending farmers complete agricultural vocational training. This development is supported by a state financial scheme which benefits young farmers who have obtained the so-called green 'certificate', awarded for successful completion of agricultural vocational training. Certificate holders are entitled to low-interest state-subsidized establishment loans.

The declining trend over the last 60 years in the number of persons employed in the farming sector is compensated for by a percentage-wise increase in persons undergoing training, and there have therefore not been anywhere as many quantitative changes as has been the case in the other educational sectors. Agricultural vocational training courses were completed this year by about 1 400 persons, and according to surveys of the agricultural organizations covering the next few years attendance will show a rising trend, to reach close on 2 000 graduates in 1985.

## Structure of training

The majority of the young people undergoing agricultural vocational training come from farm families where right from childhood on they have learned the skills of farming in the typical family-run farm situation. These youngsters are ready to start the basic course directly upon leaving school after their obligatory 9th school year, although more often than not they tend to stay for a 10th year or transfer to the local continuation school, a type of private institution that is gaining ground in the rural districts.

To cope with young people from towns a special 12-week course has been set up to provide basic training via mixed theoretical and practical instruction. This course was introduced in 1964 and is attended by roughly 50 pupils a year.

Continuing training subsequent to agricultural vocational training can take the form of short-term specialist courses or the study of agrotechnical subjects.

Finally, the agricultural education system provides for advanced agricultural education leading to a degree in agronomy, based on 12 years of school completed by award of a number of A-levels.

## Agricultural vocational training

Agricultural vocational training is based on alternating school and trainee practice, namely, a total of 14 months of school and a minimum of 3 years of trainee service. All school lessons are given at boarding schools. The first school period, the basic course, is in fact this season in the process of being extended from three to five months. Normally it follows a 6 to 12 months' traineeship. On average the students in

the basic course are 17 to 18 years of age. They are taught both general subjects and agrotechnical subjects.

During the trainee periods rural youth clubs provide instruction aimed both at making trainee service a time for learning real skills and at creating a realistic interplay between theory and practice. Attendance is not obligatory, and interest is therefore somewhat slack.

At a later stage a farming-oriented technical course running six months and a farm management course running three months are offered. The two courses are frequently combined in the form of a continuous school stay lasting nine months right at the end of training, at which time the entrants after a further two and a half years of trainee service are on average 21 to 23 years of age. Teaching at this stage concentrates on agricultural subjects.

The training winds up with a speech day ceremony on which occasion the green certificates are presented to the graduates, but in accordance with the tradition of the folk high school no examinations are held and no marks are given.

## Agrotechnician training

Agrotechnician training is based on completed agricultural vocational training. A further requirement for enrolment is possession of O-levels in a number of subjects or the equivalent based on the same curriculum. In contrast to agricultural vocational training this course of study is subject to official regulations in terms of pass marks and exams following the pattern laid down for higher educational establishments. On the other hand the characteristic feature of the agricultural education system, that of incorporating a considerable number of general subjects, has been retained.

Two schools offer this course of study, there being a difference as to format and duration.

At Vejlbj Agricultural School near Arhus the course of study lasts about 15 months, of which one to three months are accounted for by trainee periods. It has four tracks of qualification, namely, livestock technician, machinery technician, plant laboratory technician, and accountancy technician.

At Nordisk Landboskole at Odense the course of study lasts 23 months, of

which three months are spent as a trainee. Training is more general, in that without specialization it takes in all four agrotechnical trades.

Agrotechnicians may wish to take up farming themselves or apply for jobs at the few big farms that exist in Denmark, but not infrequently their qualifications lead them to seek employment as a consultant within the framework of the highly developed consultancy service run by the Danish farmers' and smallholders' organizations. Also, they may get taken on by a municipal or state research-cum-testing body. Agrotechnician training forms the middle tier between agricultural vocational training and the study of agronomy and as such belongs to the category called short-term continuing training.

## Study of agronomy

Admittance to this study formerly called for a trainee period of two years on a farm in addition to A-level certificates. However, very much contrary to the wishes of the agricultural organizations, this trainee period was done away with in 1972, so that in effect the admission requirements are now the same as those applicable for the other forms of continuing training.

The study of agronomy is one of six courses of study offered by the Royal Veterinary and Agricultural School. The other five comprise the veterinary and food fields as well as forestry, horticulture and dairy farming.

The study of agronomy is organized as a four-year course, and successful graduates qualify for appointment as an agricultural adviser or for a teaching job at an agricultural school. Of late many agronomists have filled vacancies in connection with projects in developing countries and have been attached to DANIDA, the Danish assistance and development agency, or to FAO, the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization.

## Continuing education

Danish farmers learn a great deal through their contact with the advisers and consultants from the consultancy and advisory service of the farmers' and smallholders' organizations. They often prefer this kind of mutual exchange of experiences to more formalized adult education, and when decisions must be



made regarding the running of the farm it is quite normal procedure for a farmer to talk over his problems with the local consultant and tackle the issue at hand on the consultant's advice. Only about 8 % of the farmers attend continuing education courses, although it must be taken into account that half the Danish farmers are over 55.

The agricultural organizations are making great efforts to spur their members on to further training by way of courses and conferences that appeal to both farmers and other people who have ties of one sort or another with farming.

The vocational type of continuing education is organized by the Agricultural Information Bureau in the form of a series of courses based on a flexible modular system, with integrated teaching material tailor-made for the various task areas of farming. Some of the continuing education courses take place in the form of evening classes held throughout the country, but courses of a broader nature are offered at Tune Agricultural School near Copenhagen.

This school is also the venue for the four-week course on teaching skills and rural counselling. It is attended by agronomists on a voluntary basis and is intended to serve the training needs of agronomists who want to take up teaching and consultant work.

The instruction activities of the agricultural organizations are not, however, confined to the agricultural sector alone. Like the general adult courses held in other sectors under the auspices of the social partners, the Danish TUC (LO) and the Confederation of Employers (DA), the two organizations, the Danish Farmers Organization and the Danish Smallholders Organization, have established an Agricultural Information and Conference Service (LOK), which organizes continuing education of a more general nature on political, economic, social, and cultural subjects which have bearing on farming. The difference from the industrial labour market is merely that in agriculture it is the farmers' organizations that do the organizing, since workers in the Danish farming sector, the majority of them being their own employers, play a far less prominent part than do their counterparts in the other economic sectors.

## Administration of educational activities

Whereas the administration of continuing education is well within the orbit of the agricultural organizations, the actual educational system falls, officially at least, under the competence of the Ministry of Education. Nevertheless, agricultural vocational training is to a far lesser extent subservient to the government than is the case with other types of vocational training in Denmark, and its traditional allegiance to the same Directorate as that of the folk high school is being maintained. The Minister of Education decides which courses the individual teaching institution can offer, and control measures ensure that courses are held. The Ministry also sets up an outline plan for the courses, although the schools are entitled to submit alternative plans for approval. The Minister of Education establishes an agricultural school council with the director in charge of the Directorate for folk high schools as chairman and with seven other members all representing farming.

The agricultural schools are private institutions managed by a principal who is approved by the Minister of Education.

In the general reform of basic vocational training (EFG) the government was bent on integrating the agricultural vocational training with the rest of the system. However, the agricultural organizations did not wish to relinquish any of their former influence on the training to the state or to either of the social partners. During the trial period for the new EFG system, therefore, there was little support from the farmers' ranks, and when finally the EFG Act of 1977 was passed the agricultural organizations succeeded in keeping agricultural vocational training in a class of its own.

Certain courses in the periphery of agricultural training constitute an exception to this rule. An example is the EFG agricultural course offering specialized agricultural training covering gardening and forestry as well as animal husbandry, the latter including the whole gamut of animals from ordinary farm livestock to animals used for experiments such as hamsters and rats.

The EFG agricultural course starts off with a joint basic year at a school which in principle may also be an opening to agricultural vocational training. This approach to training is unlikely to become in any way meaningful in practice, as ongoing talks between the Minister of

Education and the agricultural organizations are expected to produce agreement on interchangeability of marks, etc., so that the whole of this basic year would correspond to nine weeks of the initial term of the agricultural vocational training course.

Dairy training is, like the EFG agricultural course, separated from agricultural vocational training proper. Instruction is carried out at Dalum Dairy School on Funen, and the school has acquired the status of an independent vocational school so that administratively it is now in the same league as the other vocational establishments.

Something similar may now come to apply to one or more of the three gardening schools which are to be kept open for stage two of the gardening training scheme within the EFG agricultural course. It is as yet impossible to predict the result of the present argument over the future administrative setup in the gardening training area.

The administration of agrotechnical training is in the hands of the same authorities which administer agricultural vocational training. For instance, it is governed by the Folk High School Act which, *inter alia*, implies that in contradistinction to the other training for technicians this training course is to take place at a boarding school.

A working party last year assessed the possibilities of transferring this training to another administrative body, but it appears unlikely that any changes will occur for some time, unless legislation is passed which coordinates all continuing education.

The lack of insistence on teacher training for agricultural school teachers, who in most cases are agronomists, is a further consequence of the different administrative basis of agricultural education. Teachers at the other vocational establishments must complete within the first two years after employment an extensive theoretical and practical training in pedagogics within the framework of state vocational teacher training (SEL), whereas neither formally nor in real terms is any pedagogical background called for in the case of the agronomists, who more often than not arrive with a mere four-week course behind them, which in point of fact is voluntary.

Agronomist training differs from the other training schemes in that university education is involved, and as such it falls

under the Directorate for continuing education, which again in administrative terms implies a relatively high measure of autonomy vis-à-vis the influence of the Ministry on the one hand and agricultural organizations and the social partners on the other.

## Financing

Even though government influence on the managing of agricultural vocational training is fairly limited, the principal burden of financing this training falls to the state. The agricultural schools are private institutions to which the state pays 85% of all operational expenditure to which the subsidy rule applies and 50% of all initial capital in the form of nonamortizable state loans with an annual interest of 4%.

As all agricultural schools in this category are boarding schools and the boarding fees are not subsidized, student tuition fees are quite high, this year about 1 500 kroner a month. Depending on their own and their parents' wealth and income, students may or may not receive a state grant which at the most covers 60 % of the expenses.

The rules for calculating state grants are somewhat complex, but results of a survey on the situation of first-year students at three agricultural schools in the school year 1978–1979 may illustrate the extent of the state grant: 45% of the students received no grants whatsoever; on average the grant awarded accounted for only 79 kroner per student per week, corresponding to about 20% of the tuition fee. The agricultural organizations have therefore requested the government to increase the grant entitlement. Grants may also be paid within limits by the borough in which a student lives, but there are no general guidelines for the size of such grants.

Finally, part of agricultural vocational training is subject to provisions in the legislation governing employers' refundment of apprentice pay, introduced in connection with the passage of the EFG Act of 1977 for the purpose of securing a greater number of trainee places for apprentices. Under the arrangement

employers who sign an indenture covering both apprentice training and apprentice schooling can apply to the government for a refund of the educational allowance they pay to the apprentice while he is in school.

A committee is at present discussing the pros and cons of dismantling this complicated grant scheme with a view to ushering in a general grant for young people undergoing training, a state-sponsored training grant. However, many farmers oppose any change, since such a scheme would deprive young people who have managed to save a little in order to buy their own farm later on of all opportunities to get a training grant.

## Capacity and location of schools

There are 24 agricultural schools in Denmark, scattered over the whole country. All these establishments have courses within the framework of agricultural vocational training, in the form of either the basic course or the farm management course, or both. Two of the schools, as previously mentioned, offer agrotechnical courses. Furthermore one school, Tune School, runs only continuing education courses for consultants and teachers of agriculture.

The total capacity is about 1800 students doing basic training and 1400 doing farm management courses, plus 60 entrants at each of the two schools for agrotechnicians.

For the agricultural and gardening schools taken as a whole an expansion programme providing circa 1000 training places during the next five years is expected to materialize.

For pedagogical reasons the Agricultural School Council stresses the need for maintaining the schools as very small units; the schools therefore either operate with basic training or run farm management courses, keeping the former category down to a maximum of 72 students, the latter to 140.

The present waiting period is 18 months for students registering for basic training,

although there is no type of restricted admission involved. Experience has shown that many drop out during the wait so that the waiting time depending on the school chosen, may well turn out to be considerably shorter.

As regards agronomist training a numerus clausus does exist, namely, the average marks at the two types of A-levels ('studenter' or 'HF' exam). In the school year 1978–1979 250 men and 103 women applied for admission; 131 men and 48 women were admitted.

## Outlook

In terms of new legislation agricultural training in Denmark is in for a calm spell, as no new initiatives to reform are expected for some time. The conflict between the agricultural training system as sketched out here and the other training systems at administrative level seems to have come to an end for the time being with the acceptance of the special position of the agricultural education system.

Women's equal rights to agricultural vocational training and hence parity attendance will presumably remain some way off, and it will take as long to achieve this as will no doubt be the case in the other vocational systems. Growth in the number of women completing training is slow as regards agricultural vocational training and agrotechnical training, somewhat faster as regards the specialist trades in the EFG agricultural course.

As far as unemployment is concerned the agricultural sector occupies a very special place in the Danish economy. There is a pronounced lack of skilled labour in the sector as a whole and specifically so as regards agrotechnicians and agronomists. Nor does there seem to be any risk of overproduction for some years to come, in spite of the sector's continuously declining number of employed. This is due partly to increasing demand in the sector for qualified labour and partly to the fact that trained people are finding employment in the tertiary sector in ever growing numbers.

Source: SEL, Copenhagen

## Corrigendum

Bulletin 1/79, page 27: Review of craft apprenticeship, Engineering Industrial Training Board

Please note that an error occurred in the first paragraph of this report. The correct wording is as follows:

'Its proposals are radical in that the attainment of craft status should depend on the achievement of standards and not on serving a fixed period of time, and that it should thereby become possible for some apprentices to reach the necessary standard of engineering craftsmanship at an earlier stage than under the existing arrangements.'



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