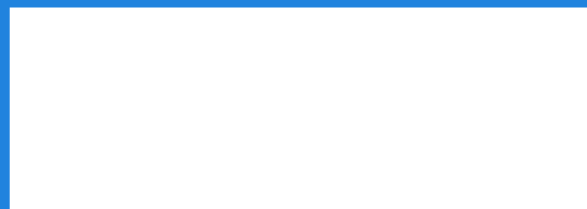




Vocational training



**Guidance, information,
vocational training**

Vocational training

Bulletin of the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training

Contents

Editorial	1
The guidance, training, and employment triangle <i>Interview with Ivor Richard</i>	3
Careers information and guidance: towards an integrated approach <i>A. G. Watts</i>	5
Aims, tasks, and working methods of careers guidance <i>Lothar Müller-Kohlenberg</i>	11
Institutional orientation and scholastic guidance <i>Yves Deforge</i>	14
Alternance – a career selection process <i>Volker Köditz</i>	18
Vocational training and guidance for adults <i>Frans Lander</i>	21
Reciprocal information <i>Jean Vincens</i>	25
Commission Recommendation of 18 July 1966 to the Member States on the development of vocational guidance	29

This Bulletin is published three times a year in Danish, German, English, French, Italian and Dutch.

CEDEFOP

The views expressed by contributors do not necessarily reflect those of the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training.

Reproduction of the text is authorized on condition that the source is indicated.

PUBLISHER

European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training
Bundesallee 22
D-1000 Berlin 15

Tel.: (0 30) 88 10 61
Telegram: CEDEFOP Berlin
Telex: 184 163 eucen d.

Directorate:
Mario Alberigo

Editor:
Duccio Guerra

Editorial staff:
Michael Adams,
Georg Dupont,
Florence Morgan-Gérard,
Bernard Pasquier
Burkart Sellin
Norbert Wollschläger

Translation service:
Brigitte Linshöft-Stiller

Graphic design:
Ingrid Lohmüller

The Centre was established by Regulation No 337/75 of the Council of the European Communities.

Printed in the FR of Germany 1981

Catalogue number: HX-AA-81-006-EN-C

Editorial

Guidance, information, vocational training. We think of guidance not as a single effort but rather as an ongoing process which precedes and accompanies vocational training. In this sense the logical nexus between training and guidance is evident; less evident is the translation of this concept into concrete action.

Guidance implies for the individual the accumulation of all benchmarks and direction finders needed to become rooted within a given social environment. That interaction is particularly fruitful which is initiated by the individual himself rather than by the guidance services or guidance mechanisms. It is within the family circle that the individual first begins to react to the content of his own life and experience guidance for the first time.

From the family to the school: this is the first important transition. In school the individual begins to participate in a complex system of social relationships and to learn how to interpret the world around him and understand its organization models. From this point onward, multiple choices spring up and the life situation is altered many times as the result of a series of transitions: from school to active life, from workplace to workplace, from work to vocational training, from employment to retirement. It should be noted that retirement is unjustly thought of as the final transition of the individual, leading from active to inactive life, a merited return, so to speak, to the family circle.

Concomitant with these transitional phases are specific aspirations coupled with needs for information, guidance, and vocational training. A complex network of both institutionalized and non-institu-

tionalized responses is operationalized by the educational and vocational system and the economic system and also by society as a whole via its guidance and information mechanisms, with the mass media playing a significant role. A network of responses, a service. It is in principle easier for an individual to entrust a careers guidance service ('other-directed' guidance) with his expectations and needs for guidance than to rely on himself to acquire the necessary cultural and technical know-how (self-directed guidance): it is easier to be shown where a street is than to read the street map, even though it is wise to know how to read the street map, to know how to find the street alone if necessary, to guide oneself. In other words, the individual leaves his protected position within the family and continues to look for and receive protection in the larger, more complex environment of the social system; the challenge is to guide and assist the individual in his transition not to active life but to adult life. We will not follow up this line of thought because it would lead us to the specific problem of training an individual to guide himself.

Guidance as provided by the social system consists of a complex aggregate of mechanisms serving the need of an individual to locate himself within an institutional and social order. There remains the problem of combining and harmonizing the expectations of this individual with the needs of the economic system. This is by no means easy, above all when the economic system is segmented into various branches of activity so that alternatives

are multiplied, rendering career selection much more difficult.

The task of harmonizing the aspirations of an individual with the exigencies of the economic system is more problematic in an economy which is off-balance and searching for new answers, in a depressed labour market where the most useful type of careers guidance is considered to be that type which helps to ward off unemployment. This explains in part the rapid increase in requests for guidance and the major efforts which institutions at both national and Community level are making to organize or improve their guidance services. It appears evident that growth in demand for guidance is always accelerated by the rapid introduction of new technologies into the production systems and the consequent destabilization of qualifications, the disappearance of entire economic branches, and the emergence of new careers. There is little doubt that the opportunity to select a lifelong career will become increasingly restricted as the need for occupational mobility throughout working life increases, the consequence being that there will be a constantly growing need for guidance, information and vocational training.

Guidance, understood in the sense of the Commission Recommendation of 18 July 1966 and the Recommendation of the Council of 13 December 1976, is a matter of urgency, a matter of concerted policy action aimed at

■ strengthening the potential of the individual and increasing his capacity to integrate himself into the social and economic system on the basis of voluntary, knowledgeable selection;

■ harmonizing the expectations and interests of the individual with those of the social and economic system;

■ improving the structures of careers guidance and information services with the aim in mind of arriving at a permanent system of guidance;

■ providing special supportive measures for the weakest social groups (young people without vocational training of any kind, drop-outs, etc.);

■ coordinating guidance systems functioning within the framework of education and employment agencies.

This is the nature of the complex problem which we have chosen to deal with in this issue of the Bulletin, which contains the reflections of a number of experts preceded by an interview with Ivor Richard, British Commissioner in the Commission of the European Communities, to whom we would again express our appreciation.

Ivor Richard

Ivor Seward Richard, was born in 1932. He graduated in jurisprudence in 1953, was called to the bar in 1955, and became a Queen's Counsel in 1971.

In 1964 he was elected Labour member of Parliament for Baron's Court, a London constituency, which office he held until 1974.

He was appointed Permanent Representative of the United Kingdom to the United Nations in New York, which post he held until 1979. In 1979 he returned to his practice at the bar.

In January 1981 he was appointed a British Commissioner in the Commission of the European Communities with responsibility for employment, social affairs, and education.



The guidance, training, and employment triangle

Interview with Ivor Richard

Guidance, training, employment. Obvious connections exist between these three elements of the geometry of an active labour policy. There remain problematical aspects awaiting clarification. Although it is self-evident that these elements must be made to interact, the way in which to go about this is less evident. At national level the family, the social system, the school, and the working world all constitute sources of guidance using institutionalized and non-institutionalized guidance structures and mechanisms which do not always function in harmony with one another. Outside the spheres and areas of national competencies the European Community has the task of fostering the design and development of harmonized policies of careers guidance and vocational training.

CEDEFOP: Mr Commissioner, the most recent Community text dealing specifically with vocational guidance dates back to 1966. It is the Commission Recommendation to the Member States on the development of vocational guidance. Since then the matter does not seem to have been taken up again. Why?

RICHARD: Without undertaking a retrospective analysis of the last 15 years, I

can assure you that vocational guidance did not die in 1966. In practically every recent Community text concerning education and training the importance of vocational guidance and counselling is recognized. It is, for instance, an integral part of the action programme on the transition from education to working life decided on by the Council and Ministers of Education in 1976. In this context there

The Commission made clear its position regarding vocational guidance in its Recommendation of 18 July 1966, * which was based on articles of the Treaty of Rome which relate directly to vocational guidance and employment. ** Over the years the economic situation has changed drastically from what it was in 1966, and we therefore felt that it might be interesting to learn what consequences have followed from the Recommendation of 18 July 1966. Ivor Richard, Commissioner for employment, social affairs and education, kindly agreed to reply to a few questions.

* See p. 29 of this Bulletin.

** Articles 117, 118, and 128 of the Treaty of Rome.

are a number of pilot projects in Denmark, Italy, the Federal Republic of Germany, and the United Kingdom which are specifically concerned with developing new methods and structures in the field of vocational guidance; a report of developments in the field of vocational guidance during the period 1975-80, one of the series produced since the 1966 Recommendation, is at present in preparation; a

series of seminars in each of the Member States has also been conducted.

CEDEFOP: This Recommendation was drawn up during a period of economic growth, and guidance was then focussing on the individual's aspirations. Do you think that such an approach is still valid in the economic context of the 1980s? What objectives should vocational guidance now pursue?

RICHARD: I think that there has been a shift of emphasis since 1966, although we are still committed to helping individuals to fulfil their potential. But, as you say, the employment situation as well as the prospects for economic growth are now very different. We have to add to the original objective a more sober assessment of a person's possible career profile, more positively we have to relate guidance to the need for flexibility and the assumption that this person will not necessarily be in paid employment during the whole of the working life-span. The final seminar in the series I mentioned earlier, which took place in Dublin in September last year, focussed directly on the very different challenges facing guidance and counselling services in a period of high unemployment.

CEDEFOP: One can see that at present the school system is the main guardian of the guidance function. At the same time the acceleration of the introduction of new technologies in the economy leads us to think that every working person will be facing a compulsory occupational mobility. In your opinion, who should take care of providing adults with the support of vocational information and counselling required to make the necessary choices, and how should this be done?

RICHARD: It is not true that in all Member States the school system is the main guardian of vocational guidance. Certainly it has become increasingly important for pupils in the final years of compulsory education to be more significantly oriented towards the types of job into which people are likely to go. But the role of guidance is of equal importance in the post-school and adult context. Member States are increasingly recognizing the link between guidance, training and employment and are developing a more inte-

grated approach to this triangle of functions. This is a role which the employment services have not always recognized. It requires of them a new and more dynamic approach to their work. It also implies a much closer interrelationship with the other agencies, including voluntary bodies and adult education centres, which are concerned with providing information and support for adults caught up in employment difficulties or otherwise seeking to change their life-style.

CEDEFOP: Taking into account that the labour market offers limited opportunities, especially for young people, would it not be possible to design a type of guidance encouraging people to create new activities and in particular their own job?

RICHARD: Here I would refer back to what I said earlier. Much of what we are doing within the pilot projects with young people and within our preparatory work with CEDEFOP on continuing education and training has precisely to do with the creation of new economic activities by stimulating qualities of independence and entrepreneurship through education and work experience. Quite clearly we cannot continue to see vocational guidance as a means of slotting people into precreated jobs that may or may not already exist.

Young people and adults alike have to be equipped with the skills and information they need to be able to define not only what role they wish to play in society but also which needs in society they can help meet. I placed considerable emphasis on this theme of job creation in the context of local community development in the paper on the problems of unemployment which was discussed by the Standing Committee on Employment in May. I hope very much that in future the Social Fund will be able to contribute more systematically to innovatory projects in this area.

CEDEFOP: In view of the fact that the school plays an important role in the individual's socialization and that it provides the ways of understanding society and its organization models, how can one avoid a situation in which guidance reinforces the social and occupational inequalities and stereotypes, in particular where girls or disadvantaged children are

concerned? How should the whole school system, as opposed to a single guidance officer, play a role in providing fair and equitable guidance?

RICHARD: If guidance officers themselves hold prejudiced views about the capacities of the youngsters they are trying to assist, then of course the guidance provided may reinforce social inequalities and sex stereotypes. It is, however, unwise perhaps to overestimate the influence of a single guidance officer. I think that quite a lot of recent research tends to demonstrate that the peer group, the family environment, and the mass media have a more profound, though maybe more discreet influence on young peoples' aspirations. The school system, involving teachers and guidance personnel alike, has a particular responsibility to provide a learning environment which enables young people to develop their own individual capacities and also to question some of the traditional stereotyping they may see around them in employment and in the home. To develop a realistic understanding of the world of work does not mean to acquiesce in society's injustices.

CEDEFOP: In your opinion, do the social partners have a role to play in guidance? If so, what should it be?

RICHARD: The social partners, it seems to me, should play an active role at all levels, namely, in the context of policy formulation and resource allocation at national and community level and in the actual provision of information and guidance within schools, training centres, and enterprises. I am not suggesting that employers and trade unions should have a common view about careers in the automobile industry or in nursing, for instance. It is precisely their different points of view which can be valuable for young people, who must weigh up different pieces of information for themselves. The social partners also have a very particular role to play in cooperating with local employment agencies to anticipate employment opportunities and difficulties and to provide adequate information and counselling services before redundancies occur.

Towards an integrated approach

A. G. Watts

In recent years the character of careers guidance in schools has been transformed in many countries. In this article * plan to focus mainly on the ways in which the underlying *conceptions* of careers guidance have changed. I will then say a little about the impact on it of the recent massive increase in youth unemployment.

sense in terms of the way in which thinking about guidance, as represented in the professional literature, appeared to have evolved over the preceding decade or two. Like all models, it over-simplifies reality, but hopefully adds something to our understanding of its underlying patterns. It may also be ethnocentric, though my experience of other countries suggests that it has some relevance outside Britain.

Changing conceptions

First, then, conceptions of careers guidance. For this main part of my article I will use as my framework a study which my colleague Bill Law and I conducted in six schools in England and Wales. ** We spent some time in each school, and we did not simply ask how the formal careers guidance system was structured. Instead, we asked: 'What happens in and around this school which in one way or another, explicitly or implicitly, actually or potentially, is concerned with helping the youngsters in the school to prepare for the choices and transitions they will make on leaving it?' In other words, we tried to look at the *whole* school. We talked to some of the pupils, to some of the former pupils, to teachers and to various other people, and we tried to get some impression of what happened in and around the six schools that was relevant to our question.

When we looked at the way in which these schools' approaches to careers guidance had evolved and were evolving, it seemed to us that we could map them in terms of a developmental sequence (figure 1). It also seemed that this sequence made some

FIGURE 1

Stages reached by six schools on a developmental model of guidance approaches		GATBURY	BIGTON	OATLEY	CALVERT	SELSEA	BRITWELL
STAGE	SUB-STAGE						
Information	Cardboard box						
	Library	■	■				
Interview	Advice						
	Counselling		■	■	■	■	■
Curricular	Occupational education		■	■	■	■	■
	Careers education		■	■	■	■	■
Integrated	School guidance					■	■
	Community guidance						■

A. G. WATTS

Executive Director, National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling, United Kingdom

* Based on report given at EEC seminar, Dublin, September 1980.

** Bill Law and A. G. Watts, *Schools, Careers and Community*, London, 1977.

From information and interviews...

Schools seem to start by being basically concerned with *information*. What they say is: if only we can provide adequate careers information for pupils, they will be able to make their career choices in a better and more effective way. This first stage we divided into two sub-stages, and we called the first of these the 'cardboard-box' sub-stage, because we recognized that at the beginning what happens is quite primitive. None the less, tongue in cheek, we said that perhaps the most important moment in the history of careers guidance in schools was the unknown moment when a head teacher, instead of throwing all the careers pamphlets he received from companies and other organizations into the wastepaper basket, put them into a cardboard box. Because this at least opened up the possibility that somebody might actually read them. After that apocryphal moment there was a recognition that careers guidance had *something* – however marginal – to do with what happened *inside* schools. In due time, schools begin to pull the information out of the cardboard-box, to ensure that it is comprehensive and up-to-date, and to arrange it in ways which maximize the pupil's chances of finding what he needs. In short, they move from the 'cardboard-box' sub-stage into the 'library' sub-stage.

But however *necessary* information may be, it is clearly not *sufficient*. A careers guidance service based simply on providing information makes three assumptions: (a) that students are motivated to use the information; (b) that they are capable of understanding it; and (c) that they are capable of relating it to their own needs. All are big assumptions, and of questionable validity. It thus becomes clear that



pupils need other kinds of help, and schools accordingly move into the second stage: the *interview* stage.

The first sub-stage here is basically concerned with advice-giving: what happens is that the adviser talks to the individual pupil, collects some information about him (perhaps, though not always, using psychometric tests for this purpose), matches this information in his mental computer with his perceptions of the various occupations that are open to the pupil, and finally makes some appropriate recommendations. This kind of advice-giving is now a well-established part of the system, and in Britain it is done mainly by the careers officer, who is based outside schools but comes into them periodically to interview pupils. Within the school, careers teachers and other teachers may also give advice in a more or less informed and skilled way.

Even if the advice is informed and skilled, however, there must still be important

doubts about whether an adviser, however competent, can adequately diagnose an individual's attributes in the short interview which is still the main basis of operation in most careers guidance services. There must also be doubt about the objective accuracy of the adviser's perceptions of the occupational world. Even where the microscopic lens of psychometric tests is used to measure the individual, similar scrupulousness is rarely paid to data on occupations.

Moreover, it seems likely that a student who bases his decision on the advice of another will identify less with the decision, and that this may both reduce the effort he puts into the chosen occupation and the satisfaction he derives from it. He will have learned little about the problems of decision-making, or about how these problems can be surmounted. The guidance process will not have developed any skills or any conceptual framework which he can draw upon again in his career devel-

opment. Indeed, the main learning likely to be derived from the advisory process is that the student has little control over his own destiny: decisions have to be submitted to the agency of 'experts' who can mediate the societal forces that ultimately determine the decisions.

Such concerns about the dangers of directive advice lead in some schools to an interest in developing a more client-centred approach to interviewing, focused not on advice but on *counselling*. In this approach, the object of the counsellor is not to diagnose the student's attributes and then recommend appropriate occupations, but rather to help him work through his problem, articulating his perceptions both of himself and of the options open to him, and subjecting them to scrutiny, until he is able to reach his own decision. The skills required of the counsellor, in short, are primarily not diagnostic but facilitative, and are concerned less with the outcome of deci-

sion-making than with its process: as Martin Katz has succinctly put it, they are focused not on helping students to *make wise decisions* (with the assumption that he knows what these should be), but on helping them to *make decisions wisely*.

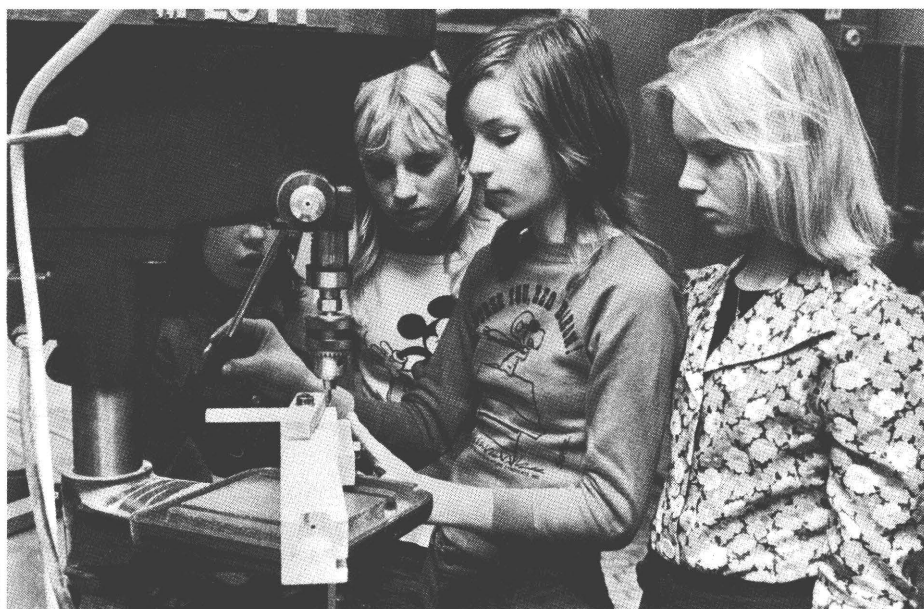
Counselling, however, is of limited value – or at least is likely to be a very lengthy and expensive process – if it takes place in a vacuum. Whereas advice can be offered to students who know little about the options between which they are choosing, helping the individual to make his own decisions presupposes that he already knows a fair amount about the options open to him. Static, factual information is inadequate in this respect: the student also needs a conceptual vocabulary, a range of experiences, and a set of decision-making skills, to draw upon. Such concepts, experiences and skills may develop to some extent in the normal process of social maturation: indeed, the chief insight generated by the influential re-

search of American writers like Ginzberg and Super is that this is the way they do develop, and that occupational choice can only be fully understood in terms of this developmental process. But perhaps such development can be facilitated and even accelerated by programmes of deliberate intervention. And perhaps this is an important educational task, which merits a place within the school curriculum.

... through a curriculum stage ...

When schools start to move to this *curriculum* stage, a profound change takes place. Up to this point, careers guidance has been an essentially peripheral activity in the school. If you go into schools and look for information or interview rooms, you will discover that it is difficult to find them. Schools consist of classrooms, and function by facilitating group learning in classrooms. They are not built for people to have quiet chats in cozy corners. But once a school starts to think about careers guidance as having a place in the curriculum, guidance ceases to be something which happens on the boundaries of the school. Instead, it becomes part of the school's central activity. The change represents the school's recognition that one of its prime *aims* should be to help pupils to prepare for the choices and transitions they are going to make on leaving school.

When schools start to act on this, they are often rather unimaginative. What they frequently do is to set up a programme under which different people come in each week to talk about particular occupations: this is what we termed the 'occupational education' sub-stage. So in the first week there is a talk about nursing, and 95% of the pupils go to sleep, because they are not interested in nursing; the next week



there is a talk about careers in the police, and a slightly different 95% go to sleep, because they are not interested in careers in the police. Gradually, schools realize that a rather different approach is needed.

What has emerged now in many schools in the careers education sub-stage is a curriculum which can be described as having four broad aims. The first is *self awareness*: what kind of person am I, in terms of my abilities, my interests, my aptitudes, my personality, my values; not only what kind of person am I, but also what kind of person do I want to become? It is important not to 'fix' the identities of pupils, particularly as their opportunities to develop their interests and talents have often been limited by the restricted environments in which they have lived. People involved in careers guidance in schools are often amazed by the changes that take place in their pupils after leaving school. It is important to recognize that people are dynamic, and to help them to *understand* that they are dynamic.

Second, *opportunity awareness*. What is the world of work like? How is it structured? What kinds of opportunities are there? What are the demands the different kinds of work make, and what are the satisfactions they offer? Also, what other kinds of roles are there in the Community through which people find fulfilment? Arguably, careers education is not only about paid employment but also about home roles, leisure roles, community roles.

The third aim is *decision learning*: acquiring the skills of decision-making, which will help the individual to relate himself to the world of opportunities that exist for him. This includes skills of clarifying objectives, of collecting and using information, of balancing the desirability of particular courses of action against the possibility of achieving them, and of 'con-

tingency planning' – preparing for the possibility that one will not get what one immediately wants. Perhaps the core aim of careers education, it is also the most difficult to teach at a level of subtlety and sophistication which recognizes the complexity of its philosophical and psychological undertones.

The final aim is *transition learning*. Careers education is not only about making decisions, but also about implementing them. This covers concrete and immediate issues like preparing for selection interviews and for filling in application forms. It also includes coping with transitions: how do the first few days at work differ from life in school? How does the value system differ? What about safety at work and trade unions? and so on. The relationship between this and the other three aims is shown in figure 2.

Once careers education starts to become established, schools sometimes become aware that it is not only in the careers education curriculum that things happen which are helpful to youngsters in preparing for career choices and transitions. Often valuable and highly relevant work is already being done in other parts of the curriculum: in geography there might be work on the structure of local industry, in mathematics on wage packets, in literature on self awareness. Schools also sometimes recognize that relevant activities are going on in other parts of the school outside the formal curriculum: a photography society giving its members a taste of work as a photographer, community service schemes giving a taste of work in the helping professions. They begin to realize not only that there are plenty of relevant things going on, but also that what happens in the careers education curriculum cannot properly be divorced from what happens elsewhere.

. . . towards an integrated approach

So schools begin to move into a fourth stage, which is trying to adopt a more *integrated* approach to guidance work. Pupils go for help not only to someone with the label of careers officer, or careers teacher, or tutor: they go for help to the person whom they trust, whom they regard as approachable, and whom they think is going to be able to help them. In many cases this will not be the teacher officially assigned a guidance role but the teacher whom they know best or with whom they personally feel some kind of affinity. Similarly, in relation to careers education in the curriculum, perhaps the careers teacher should be someone who does not try to do it all himself, but rather sees his role as being to find out where things are happening within the school, and to coordinate and support them. In other words, rather than saying 'don't do that any more because that's *my* empire', he should try to support what is going on already and make it better, and then identify gaps which need to be filled. We called this the 'school guidance' sub-stage.

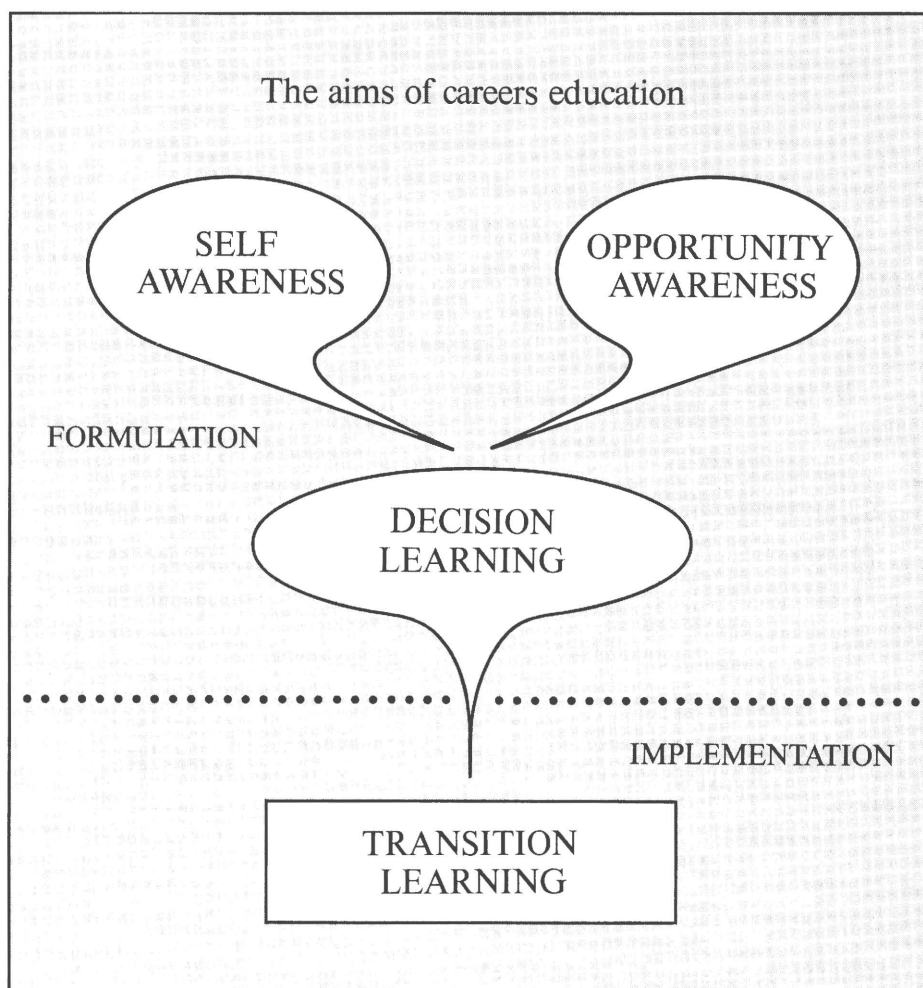
The integrated approach can, however, be extended further, into the 'community guidance' sub-stage, by recognizing that many pupils do not seek help within the school at all. Instead, or perhaps in addition, they use a variety of resources outside the school. Most particularly, of course, they seek help from parents. The research that has been done on the occupational choices of secondary-school-students is virtually unanimous in showing that the most important influence is parents. Not careers officers, or careers teachers or other teachers, but parents. Is this 'bad'? Is it something that we should be trying to change? Certainly, whenever

these research results come out, guidance professionals tend to feel very worried and threatened, because their own influence tends to emerge as being relatively limited. I do not believe that they *ought* to be worried. Indeed, instead of trying to reduce the influence of parents, perhaps they should try to support parents in their roles, to make them better informed so that they will be able to help more effectively, and also to put the students in touch with other resources within the community which might be helpful to them – resources like employers, trade unions, careers officers, youth services, and so on.

The image which I personally like for the role of the careers teacher is not that of an encyclopaedia but that of a switchboard. Instead of aspiring to be a person who gathers all the knowledge and then dispenses it in appropriate doses, he should see his primary role as being to help the pupils to identify their needs, and then to ‘plug’ them into people or other resources which may be able to meet those needs. This coordinating role is actually a very difficult and skilled one, and it demands a lot of confidence. Teachers involved in careers guidance often still feel marginal in their schools, and believe therefore that they have to try to establish themselves. As a result, there is a tendency always to say ‘I’ve got to prove that I have something distinctive to offer’, and this very easily has the effect of undermining the work of others – including undermining their confidence in their ability to help. In my own view, this is dangerous both for the teachers and – most of all – for the pupils.

I have attempted to indicate some of the changes which have taken and are taking place in careers guidance in schools and tried to focus on changes in how guidance is *conceived* rather than how it is *organized*, because conceptions may be

FIGURE 2



more readily comprehensible and transferable across international boundaries than are organizational structures. Three basic themes can be discerned. First, there is a move away from helping to make decisions for people, and towards helping them to make decisions for themselves – a clearly *educational* conception. Second, there is a move away from seeing careers guidance as being peripheral to the school, and towards bringing it closer to the heart

of the school, while maintaining its links with the community. Third, there is a move away from setting up self-validating systems, and towards setting up systems which are closer to the realities of how pupils make decisions: this can be seen both in the movement toward a developmental approach, and in the movement to recognize and acknowledge the variety of agencies that influence pupils' decision-making. I do not want to exagger-

ate the extent to which these changes have taken place in British schools: as figure 1 suggests, most schools are still back in the interview or early curriculum stages. In addition, I do not want to fall into the historicist trap of implying that the trends are both inevitable and inevitably progressive. I believe they *are* progressive, but that reflects my own values. I also believe that the trends have been clearly discernible in Britain; whether they are as discernible in other countries is for others to say.

Unemployment: a challenge to guidance

The major challenge which careers guidance in schools currently has to meet is that posed by unemployment. Consider these two quotations:

'You know all that careers work we did at school. It's just a big waste of time. They never told us how to be unemployed' (a school-leaver).

'I hope we shall never 'educate for unemployment', which is a contradiction in terms and the sort of defeatist realism we can do without' (a headmaster).

One can understand, and sympathize with, the headmaster, particularly if one bears in mind the political implications of preparing *particular groups* for unemployment. Yet if, in a school situated in an area of substantial school-leaver unemployment, a careers guidance programme ignores the issue, proceeding on the assumption that opportunities suited to each student's capacities and interests will be available, it will have failed to prepare the students for the immediate realities that may well face them. Such a programme is likely to lose all credibility in the eyes of students. The suspicion that careers education is 'just another lesson'

– as divorced as most of the others from the world they experience outside school – will be confirmed.

Despite this, it is clear that many schools in such areas *do* ignore the issue of unemployment, partly because they do not know how to tackle it. Should they concentrate on helping students to acquire job-seeking skills? Should they try to broaden the range of employment opportunities which students are prepared to consider? Should they help students to survive if they become unemployed, e.g. making sure they know how to collect unemployment benefits? Should they help students to make good use of their 'leisure' time while they are unemployed? Should they explore forms of work outside paid employment – self-employment, self-sustaining life-styles in communes, etc., other forms of work within the informal economies? Should they help students to understand the economic and political causes of unemployment?

Few teachers will want to embrace all of these possibilities, but a programme which is too narrowly conceived may carry problems with it. For example, schools often react by concentrating on job-seeking skills. This is desirable and valid, but it is important to understand that such skills in net terms do nothing to increase the number of jobs: if everyone stands on tiptoe, nobody sees any better. Moreover, exclusive focus on them can implicitly sustain the myth that there are satisfying jobs available to anyone who has the skills and persistence to find them. This defines unemployment as due to individual inadequacy, and does nothing to help youngsters to survive if they still become unemployed: indeed, it may make it more difficult for them to retain their sense of identity and self-respect.

It is therefore important that before teachers launch into the topic of unemployment, they should be very clear about

what they are trying to achieve. The fact is that unemployment is a highly emotional and political issue, and calls into question some of the most basic concepts in careers education. In particular, it poses questions about the future of work and about the values that our society attaches to it. * It would seem, however, that there is a much greater chance of a creative and positive response to these issues in schools which have taken on board the concepts of 'careers education' and 'community guidance' than in those working in more traditional and limited ways.

* A. G. Watts, 'The Implications of School-Leaver Unemployment for Careers Education in Schools', *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 10(3), 1978.

Aims, tasks, and working methods of careers guidance

■ Background preconditions and double aim

There is great variation in the background preconditions of persons, I shall call them 'career selectors', faced with the challenge of selecting a career on as knowledgeable and independent a basis as possible. Sociocultural background, age, level of education and social maturation all exert a strong influence on the manner and degree of intensity with which young people go about preparing to decide what career they wish to pursue. Experience has shown that a great many of them are neither willing nor well equipped to absorb and put to good use the careers-related information which is so richly available to them. The careers guidance approach must therefore be closely geared to the level of comprehension of the respective target group in order to thus foster, via specific measures tailored to the various levels of need, decision-making ability as well as self-responsibility in career selection ('career selection maturity'). In other words, career selection and careers guidance do not together constitute a one-time, short period of action but rather a time-consuming, reciprocal process of conception, differentiation, and finalization which weighs career-related interests and scales of values against capabilities, abilities, trial efforts, and experience (development of a career-related 'self-concept'). In the course of this lengthy process important, individually relevant career aims crystallize which the career selector must very carefully analyse from the point of view of their correspondence with reality and their chances of realization. Pertinent suggestions and instructive information from within the social environment can considerably animate this process: examples would be the exchange of

experience and knowledge with friends (peer group), brothers and sisters, parents, and teachers; career selection instruction at school; visits to firms and in-firm practical training periods; reading of careers guidance publications; and media exposure (radio and television).

It appears logical that careers guidance efforts should primarily aim at assisting career selectors who are not well able to inform themselves and thus feel helpless in the face of the difficult career decision which they must soon make. Careers guidance has without any doubt the compensatory function of contributions to the elimination of educational deficiencies and sociocultural disadvantages. On the other hand, we have the situation that determined, well-informed career selectors tend to expect guidance professionals to provide them with knowledgeable explanations and helpful suggestions and advice. There appears to be an insatiable demand for topical, detailed, reliable information relating to the education and employment system.

The spectrum of career selectors seeking help and advice thus ranges from passive, helpless persons with only vague career aims to eager persons with clear preferences and a true hunger for full information. The information, guidance, and placement activities of careers guidance services have therefore to be qualitatively designed very carefully to match the entire spectrum of demand on the basis of equitable distribution of offers. It must always be borne in mind that the legally anchored aim of careers guidance work is to enable young citizens to freely select their own careers rather than to limit this freedom of choice by measures of government intervention! However, this aim is not always free of tensions in the light of the second aim, that of counteracting in good time economic and social misdevelop-

L. Müller-Kohlenberg

ments at the level of the individual and at that of the public at large and combating, wherever this is possible at regional level, problems relating to career integration and oncoming manpower supply. On the basis of constant cooperation with parents, schools, training institutions, and business and industry combined with a sober appraisal of foreseeable qualifications demand, careers guidance is making every effort to realize this economic and sociopolitical aim.

■ Activities, working methods, and media

Careers guidance work involves four main activities:

careers guidance events and media, careers guidance for individuals and small groups, placement in in-firm training places, provision of financial assistance for vocational training.

The specific working methods and media involved are as follows:

□ Careers guidance

In order to comprehensively clarify questions relating to qualification requirements and employment perspectives, financial assistance for vocational training, and important career-related developments in firms and public authorities and on the labour market, careers guidance services organize series of group events open not only to career selectors but also to parents, teachers, and the public at large. The purpose is to make available to all interested persons career selection information coming from the working world, such information serving in particular the task of career selection preparation within the family circle or via school instruction.

School meetings

Following organizational and didactic coordination with the schoolteacher in

LOTHAR MÜLLER-KOHLBERG

Head, Careers Guidance Department,
Bergisch-Gladbach Employment Office

charge, the careers guidance officer meets at school with pupils who still have one year of schooling ahead and discusses with them the basics involved in proper career selection decisions. He also distributes printed careers guidance material containing relevant information and decision aids. In this way any shyness in taking advantage of careers guidance is nipped in the bud.

Meetings with parents

In order to enable them to discuss with him difficulties and problems relating to the career selection of their children which are of general interest, the careers guid-

ance officer invites the parents of pupils in their last year of lower secondary school to attend parent meetings, customarily held on the school premises. Usually in the focal point of interest are questions relating to the various possibilities of in-firm and in-school training, entrance requirements, and ongoing changes in the education and employment system.

Lecture series on careers guidance

In public lecture series qualified representatives from business and industry, trade associations, authorities, and training institutions describe in a lively way the job content, qualification requirements, and

promotion opportunities which obtain in their own professional field. Following the lecture the pupils can address questions to the speaker and thus receive an immediate, helpful answer.

Careers information institutions

In careers information centres and agencies which have been established by the employment offices in a number of large cities and conurbations in the Federal Republic of Germany, the first one dating back to 1976, visitors may inform themselves on the basis of audiovisual media (video programmes, slides, sound films, programmed instruction sheets,



information kits, magazines). Objectivized and systematically compiled career information in printed form, supplemented by audiovisual media, is available to the general public free of charge at all times.

Printed material for career selection preparation

Information pamphlets on careers and on university studies, publications systematically organized to support careers guidance and career selection preparation, and also preguidance self-preparation programmes (STEP) are distributed free of charge to various groups of pupils and students, the main purpose being to provide incentives and guidance aids for in-depth career selection planning on the basis of self-responsibility.

Careers counselling

Careers guidance officers, both men and women, place their services at the disposal of individual pupils and students whether or not accompanied by their parents! Coming under discussion are personal-decision doubts and conflicts, information needs, and problems relating to career-specific self-appraisal. Here in the Federal Republic of Germany the principle of voluntary request for careers guidance is strictly adhered to. The type of help given is dependent on the matter involved and the level of problem awareness, which in turn determine the discussion content, the counselling procedure, and the length and frequency of the contact units. Whether or not, for example, a psychological or physical examination should be carried out (free of charge) will depend on whether or not the person being counselled (or his/her parents) so consent(s). The specific obligation of the careers officers is to give personal support to their discussion partners so as to help these partners find solutions to all their

career selection problems and, to the extent that these are of direct relevance to career selection and career development, to school education problems, solutions which are in harmony with the scales of values and also with the recognizable development potentials of these partners.

Placement in training places

Once career selection is made, the next step is to find a training place. Training opportunities vary greatly at regional level. In the dual system of vocational training (learning site: firm, and learning site: part-time vocational school) it is the firm which decides how many trainees it will train and what qualifications they must have. Careers guidance officers therefore undertake to locate open training places and recommend suitable applicants to the firms in question. Here, again, no coercion is exercised; consequently, it is often very difficult to find suitable training places for less capable persons, handicapped persons, and young migrants. Since firms very frequently give male applicants preference over female applicants and since girls still have traditional career wishes, problems arise in this area as well.

Financial assistance for vocational training

Participation in vocational training qualification courses is financed by funds from the Federal Institute of Labour in cases where there is a need for such help. Such help is of particular importance when handicapped young persons come to careers guidance officers for advice in that these persons frequently require costly special schooling and training in preparation for a regular job.

Conclusion

Careers guidance activities take place at the interface of the school and the work-

ing world, maintaining a subsidiary role in each direction *vis-à-vis* the family and school and the training firms. The rich variety of careers guidance working methods and career information vehicles is illustrative of the great effort undertaken to link onto the educational and social background of career selectors and to move systematically and stepwise towards clearing the ground for their first career decision. Yet one thing remains true: if initiative, problem awareness, and the ability to digest the large quantity of career selection-related information are lacking, much of that which careers guidance has to offer is of very little use, if indeed it proves to be of any use at all.

..... This situation calls, in my opinion, for policy reflections (over and beyond educational policy) encompassing all three systems in interaction, for reflection, in other words, on our societies themselves.



Institutional orientation and scholastic guidance

Yves Deforge

We distinguish two types of orientation within a specific school system, namely, institutional orientation, involving the structure, the modalities of operation, and the main objectives of the system, and scholastic guidance, involving the distribution of pupils within the system from the beginning to the end of their schooling. Institutional orientation is determined by educational policy based on scholastic demand stemming from the social system and on vocational training demand stemming from the economic system (on-the-job training being excluded).

It is the quantitative and qualitative data of institutionalized and non-institutionalized demands which policy decision-makers compile, filter, process, and transform into departments, levels, curricula, objectives, and examinations which characterize the school system.

Assuming that the demands are clearly stated and that there is complete coherence between those of the social system and those of the economic system, we would find that the school system is a perfect image of the structure the knowledge and know-how, the expectations, and the ideologies of the society to which it belongs.

However, in most instances there are divergences between the demands to which the school system responds in looking for a compromise solution or in favouring the demands of the one system over those of the other. Where these divergencies are very marked the school system can respond by dividing itself into two sub-systems: general education on the one hand and technical and vocational training on the other hand, with a greater number of private, specialized schools meeting particular demands.

Not only can these demands differ, they can also be very changeable. To the extent to which the school system has time to adapt, it reacts by restructuring itself: it opens or closes departments or entire schools, reforms its curricula, etc.

In extreme cases, however, these reforms are not far-reaching enough to enable the school system to continue to operate properly. It is then necessary either to radically change the institutional orientation or to attempt to respond by modifying the demands of the social system and the economic system or persuading these systems to accept what they have not demanded via measures of inducement or constraint.

We can think of a school system as a marshalling yard where trains are assembled for various destinations, with

passengers gathering who do not really know which train to board. Scholastic guidance, which is a more or less voluntary procedure, consists in directing the pupils to board the various trains, even if they may have to change trains at the next station. The criteria governing such distribution are test and examination results, inclinations and aptitudes, and personal choice, with sociocultural influences likewise playing a role.

Scholastic guidance is complicated by the fact that the guidance personnel and above all the teachers are themselves transmitters of a frequently subjective concept of the social system and the economic system.

In former times, the distinction drawn between mechanical skills and the liberal arts corresponded to a difference in social status. In the military, for example, command was seen as a liberal art reserved for men of high birth living in well-appointed quarters and wealthy enough to buy a command force, whereas military engineering itself was seen as a mechanical skill exercised by capable men coming from the working class. Scholastic guidance was undertaken accordingly.

Towards the middle of the 19th century, when industrial development was leading to an increased demand for training in the mechanical skills, the upper secondary

YVES DEFORGE
Expert at the Council of Europe



STICHA

schools became reserved for the liberal arts and separate schools were established which offered practical training in the field of industry and commerce for gifted young people of the working class. Schools of engineering were likewise opened (in French the term *arts* in the academic titles *arts et métiers* and *arts et manufactures* still emphasizes the former distinction), attended by young people of the middle classes. Scholastic guidance was then undertaken under the double criterion of social origin and the results of entrance and final examinations.

A French author writing at the end of the 19th century * informs us that the *lycées littéraires* (upper secondary schools) were intended for the education of the ruling classes whereas the other social classes underwent training at the vocational schools in order to receive the instruction required to develop industry. Manual labour was done by the 'socially and intellectually disinherited'.

* G. Gin: *Esquisse d'une méthode d'enseignement professionnel*, 1893.

** M. Reuchlin: *Guidance during schooling*, Council of Europe, 1964.

In an article which appeared in 1964 in the publication series *Education in Europe* ** M. Reuchlin analyses the results of ten international meetings on guidance during the period of schooling which had taken place in the preceding years and comes to the conclusion that the demand of the social system is a demand for democratization and general education whereas the demand of the economic system is a demand for highly qualified personnel in the three traditional economic sectors, with demand being unlimited in the tertiary sector.

Throughout Europe the responses of the school systems have thus been as follows:

- institutional orientation
 - prolongation of compulsory schooling,
 - rectification of sociocultural inequalities,
 - introduction of less differentiated curricula at lower secondary school level,
 - continuation of general subjects in the direction of the baccalaureate,
 - development of technical theory instruction (in contrast to practical training),
 - expansion of the school systems (beginning of the educational boom);

■ reinforcement of scholastic guidance through the

- introduction in lower secondary school of activities aimed at observation and guidance of pupils,
- briefing of teachers on the conduct of tests serving to identify inclinations, aptitudes, etc.,
- creation of a corps of careers guidance officers,
- establishment of contact with families (the school assuming part of a family's responsibility in the event that this family cannot meet its responsibility in full).

It is nevertheless important to note that decision-makers in charge of institutional orientation and even the researchers whose work is reported on by M. Reuchlin continue to implicitly reason on the basis of a hierarchy of education stemming directly from past centuries. For them

- long-term general secondary education is better than short-term general secondary education,
- short-term general secondary education is better than technical training,
- technical training is better than vocational training,
- vocational training is suitable for the practical-minded.

The surveys undertaken in 1979 and 1980 on the European school systems within the framework of the Council of Europe's



project 'Preparation for life' have informed us on certain characteristics of current school systems in Europe even though they were not directly concerned with guidance itself.

Seen from the angle of institutional orientation, the European school systems have very similar structures: compulsory schooling, long-term general secondary education, long-term technical secondary education, short-term vocational training and preoccupational training prior to leaving school.

Two significant differences are evident. The first difference relates to the number of pupils in the various streams of education. In some countries 60 % of the pupils have opted for long-term general secondary education whereas in other countries only 10 % have. This seems to imply institutional response to varying social demands. The countries with 60 %, the Mediterranean countries, feel that only those studies are noble which lead to university whereas the countries with 10 % have a social tradition and an economic structure which fosters technical activities so that 50 % of the young people here opt for vocational training.

One remarkable fact is that in all the systems 15 to 20 % of all pupils leave school at the end of compulsory schooling.

The second difference relates to the purpose assigned to technical and vocational training. In some countries such training is seen as an enticement leading on to continuing education. In other countries great faith is placed in basic training and in the ability of the school system to provide solid and thorough instruction even if the period of training has to be prolonged; above all, technical and vocational training are conceived as being preparation for life and not simply training *per se*.

There is now a general trend in Europe towards the gradual elimination of status difference between general education and technical and vocational training. This trend is highlighted by the merger of teaching staff units and in some cases of schools. It does, however, deepen the difference between pupils remaining in school and pupils leaving at the end of compulsory schooling.

The most striking phenomenon of scholastic guidance is without doubt the vitality of non-institutionalized guidance *vis-à-vis* institutionalized guidance. In his 1964 analysis M. Reuchlin predicted that non-institutionalized guidance would soon disappear. Now, 20 years later, it seems as though such guidance is nearly always indicative of a social demand which does not align with that to which both the

school and institutionalized scholastic guidance, apparently out of contact with ongoing major trends, respond.

For example, the ideology of economic expansion which in the social system has corresponded with an ideology of progress has given way to very understandable disenchantment as reflected in the lack of interest in school on the part of a great many young people.

In the 1960s education as an article of consumption which was in very high demand created an ideology that led to the rapid expansion of secondary education, university education, and lifelong learning. This trend is now in reverse.

Paralleling these developments are those in the education systems themselves, which after a period of liberalism and innovation are returning to authority and classicism partly by a natural process of evolution and partly as the result of pressure exerted by society (parents in particular) and by the economy (financial constraints caused by the recession).

The sources of non-institutionalized scholastic guidance are without doubt the media, the parents, the friends, and the community. Contrary to that which might have been affirmed, we found in an enquiry which we conducted with pupils in

1979–80 * that they draw from these sources sensible schooling plans and life intentions which are perhaps more realistic than those proposed to them by their teachers and guidance officers. The persistence with which non-institutionalized scholastic guidance continues to function has led educational policy decision-makers in a number of countries to decide to institutionalize it by tapping the community potential and the media (concept of 'careers education') and by increasing contacts with the economic system via visits to firms and in-firm practical training periods.

As A. G. Watts remarked, ** scholastic orientation is not intended to help a pupil make wise decisions (or help others make them for him) but rather to make decisions wisely.

All this could appear to conform with demands which may be likely to arise in those societies in which democracy and industrialization are joined together. Nevertheless, in all systems dysfunctions occur which are of profound significance.

* Council of Europe: *Report on seven visits and Report on ten visits*, 1979, 1980.

** A. G. Watts: *Careers guidance in Great Britain*, Council of Europe, 1979.

The most troublesome is certainly the marginal group of young people, 15 to 20 %, who leave the school system at the end of compulsory schooling. Well prepared for life and encouraged to benefit from the opportunities of continuing training, they could constitute an interesting population having the possibility of acquiring the skills needed to earn their own living without further schooling. Unfortunately, perhaps because they come from disadvantaged social backgrounds, perhaps because the school system has not devoted enough attention to them, or perhaps because (with their parents) they do not constitute a pressure group capable of pushing their demand, they become in fact a 'risk group' *** marginalized by the labour market immediately after they leave school, there being absolutely no hope of employment for them.

We would do well to seriously consider this scholastic 'disguidance' and reflect on structural and pedagogic modifications which would serve to help those who, as in the 19th century, remain the intellectually and socially disinherited of systems which have among their primary objectives democratization and the narrowing of sociocultural differences.

*** EC seminar in Noordwijk, May 1980.

We turn now to the question of unemployment. We know that all young people are threatened by unemployment, regardless of their school-leaving level, their career choice, or the nature and quality of instruction which they received; neither institutional orientation nor scholastic guidance can do much about this, for we are confronted today with a situation which goes beyond the limits of that which can be demanded of a school system. This situation calls, in my opinion, for policy reflections (over and beyond educational policy) encompassing all three systems in interaction, for reflection, in other words, on our societies themselves.

Alternance – a career selection process

Volker Köditz

Alternance-based training (linked work and training systems), now being promoted in the European Community, constitutes an effort to improve links between work organization and training organization. Its aim is to redesign both the apprenticeship system and the system of continuing training. In the light of quantitative and qualitative inadequacies, alternance is currently concentrating on the basic training of young people, without, however, neglecting the necessary link with the continuing training of adults (see Resolution of the Council of the European Communities of 18 December 1979, OJ C 1, 3 January 1980). In this article I wish to concentrate on alternance-based work and training for young people.

The undisputed advantages of alternance-based training are that young people can thereby simultaneously acquire practical and theoretical know-how and apply this know-how to actual work and also move towards social maturation within the working world. There is no doubt that in this way young people profit from a more realistic understanding of themselves and of the working world environment. Alternance also places new demands on the trainers and teachers of these young people and likewise on guidance officers, whose task it is to provide counselling regarding workplace selection and career selection.

The concept of linked work and training, or alternance, is aimed at enabling young people to experience at first hand this linkage and thus become prepared to navi-

gate a soft landing on the labour market and acclimatize themselves more rapidly to their working environment. Quite often alternance training thus encompasses a career selection process of considerable duration. New types of alternance-based training for young people make provision for the career selection process at three consecutive, mutually coordinated levels:

□ at the point of transition from full-time school to basic vocational training in one of roughly 10 to 20 occupational groups (compare, for example, the EFG system in Denmark, the basic vocational training year in the Federal Republic of Germany, and the grouping-of-skills project of the British Labour administration);

□ at the point of transition from basic vocational training to qualified vocational training, the former lasting one year, the latter lasting from one to two and-a-half years;

□ at the point of transition from qualified vocational training to employment, at which time definitive selection of a career is made.

In the traditional apprenticeship system there are only two levels, one at the beginning and one at the end of training.

Careers information and guidance is particularly important prior to the start of basic vocational training and during the first year of such training.

Whereas at the first level of career selection the careers information and guidance services come into action, during the period of basic vocational training leading up to the second level careers information and possibly also guidance is a task falling mainly to the school or training institution, respectively.

The distinctiveness of alternance with regard to the process of career preselection and career selection is that alongside of schooling in a part-time vocational school a training agreement between the training firm and the trainee is usually concluded. Specific modes of approach and attitudes then crystallize, namely, the modes of approach of the employer in recruiting young people for in-firm training and the attitudes of young people *vis-à-vis* the training firm itself and the training provided.

Perhaps the most important influence exerted by the system of alternance-based training is that exerted on the mode of approach of the employer and on his behaviour *vis-à-vis* young persons applying for a training place or a workplace in his firm. The question as to how young people who are undergoing or have completed training are recruited will therefore now be dealt with.

The following hypotheses on the recruitment approach of employers, involving three dimensions, are drawn from numerous studies on alternance training already available:

□ *The sociopsychological dimension*

During alternance training a much more intense personal relationship between employers and their trainees tends to develop which to a certain extent leads to a moral obligation on the part of the employers to put the young people in training on the payroll as soon as their training is completed.

For their part, the young people in training gradually develop a spirit of loyalty towards the firm and a sense of identification with the products produced or the services rendered. The more time spent in

the firm, the less interest there is in changing over to another workplace or another firm.

□ *The cost dimension*

For many alternance measures the cost risk is rather slight, thanks to government subsidies and relatively low training allowances. The problem of having to employ incapable workers is thus avoided and the employer can make certain that all those young trainees whose capabilities are not the best have a fair chance to improve. When training costs are high and have to be met by the firm in full, the employer is usually interested in keeping the trainees on in the firm after they have finished training.

A true link between work and training does, however, involve cost problems for the training firms in that the trainees are frequently not engaged in production work itself.

□ *The dimension of sensible recruitment*

In general the employer participating in alternance training receives much more objective information on the knowledge and skills of his trainees and on their social behaviour. This enables him to plan his workforce recruitment more sensibly and rationally.

What, then, do the actual career selection processes in the various types of training which can be subsumed under the concept of alternance consist of?

One great advantage of an apprenticeship is that it generally leads to employment. In all countries the young people who have completed an apprenticeship are on the average much less threatened by unemployment than are the graduates of full-time schools (see F. Dossou, 'L'insertion des jeunes dans la vie professionnelle, Conditions et mécanismes de l'insertion', in: *Cahiers du Centre d'études de l'emploi*, No 15, L'entrée dans la vie active). This advantage is, in my opinion, primarily the result of the sociopsychological dimension and the cost dimension as well as the greater degree of occupational stability which characterizes persons who have completed an apprenticeship.

Trainees who hold a training contract with a firm usually enjoy a special status as employees. They can have their interests represented by the firm's works council or the labour union. Neither of these bodies will automatically permit an employer to refuse without good reason to employ a trainee following completion of training in the firm.

The recruitment practice of other employers will also change, for they can, if desired, contact the training firm in the knowledge that they need not rely solely on abstract school marks but can assume that young workers coming from this training firm will have already proven themselves under actual working conditions.

On the basis of a trainee's performance in part-time vocational school the training firm also has access to criteria enabling it to judge to what extent the trainee is capable of climbing up the career ladder within the firm. In the Federal Republic of Germany this factor is clearly illustrated in the two-stage training cycle for the retail trade (two years of training as retail trade salesman with the option of a subsequent year of training as retail trade dealer). Admission to this additional year is dependent on marks received at the part-time vocational school.

However, some problematic aspects of recruitment practice in connection with apprenticeships are reflected in the situation obtaining in the Federal Republic of Germany, Denmark, and the Netherlands. In all three countries the gradual expansion of part-time vocational school instruction and the reduced opportunity of apprentices, partly for this and partly for other reasons, to do productive work has caused many firms to become less interested in taking on apprentices. In the Netherlands the firms have still another reason to shy away from accepting apprentices, namely, the introduction of minimum wages for young people. Actually, however, this measure has affected only certain economic branches (for example, the retail trade) * in which wages have been far below the new minimum wage, with young women in particular being very underpaid.

In the Federal Republic of Germany an interesting phenomenon is noticeable in connection with changes in the practice of recruiting young people with an apprenticeship behind them. Apprentice training has such high standing that one might characterize it as 'minimum training' or 'standard training'. Those young people whose training has been below this level have a very difficult time finding a job. Indeed, the situation sometimes arises that not the training content but rather the apprenticeship certificate itself is very decisive. This applies above all to young

people who have prepared for an occupation for which jobs are scarce and who must therefore take up a job which is alien to their training. In a typical case, for example, a baker journeyman applying for a job on an assembly line of an automobile manufacturing firm will have the advantage that at least he possesses an apprenticeship certificate.

Changes in the recruitment approach of training firms have also occurred as the result of the introduction of the basic vocational training year (particularly when such training takes place in a full-time training institution). A young person who has a whole year in which to familiarize himself with skills in an entire occupational group is in a much better position to select that career which he feels would be best for him. For his part the employer knows that this eliminates one of the frequent reasons for breaking off training and also that he has a better basis for performance appraisal. He thus finds that his recruitment risk is reduced. Problematic from the standpoint of young people is the fact that at the start of basic vocational training they cannot be certain of thereafter obtaining an in-firm training place for their period of qualified vocational training. Above all in structurally backward regions the prospects of achieving this are very slim. Also for this reason the federal *Länder* in which alternance training prevails are undertaking to set up supra-firm training centres for qualified vocational training and/or encouraging the firms to do likewise.

Experiences gained in the Federal Republic of Germany and in the Netherlands are mainly negative with regard to the effect of obligatory part-time vocational school attendance of young workers on recruitment strategies. The firms hesitate to employ young people who are obliged to attend a part-time vocational training school for some hours every week.

This may be another reason for the high level of absenteeism in part-time vocational schools. According to information provided by the EC Commission, * only 70 % of this age group attend. In the Federal Republic of Germany it has frequently been noted that employers do not insist that their young workers attend. One reaction has been to issue individual exemptions or to provide for an occupational preparation year of block-form instruction directly following completion of compulsory schooling.

* J. de Jonge, 'Achtergronden van de jeugdwerkloosheid' in: *Tijdschrift voor Politieke Economie*, 1/1977, p. 100 ff.

* Communication from the Commission to the Council, 29 October 1979.

Other types of alternance training can be classified as measures for unemployed young people. To be mentioned first is the measure of short-term work-training contracts. The purpose of this measure is to give those young people who by virtue of their low educational level have very slim chances of finding employment a chance to work and learn. If the employers are allowed to select whomever they wish, however, this purpose is often vitiated. Studies undertaken in Belgium and France on the practice of recruiting young people for in-firm practical training periods have shown that for obvious reasons the employers prefer to recruit young people who have enjoyed better general education.

These measures are without doubt very effective from the viewpoint of career integration, not only because the advantages mentioned in connection with apprenticeships come into play but also because the firms can recruit on a more knowledgeable basis.

Of broader import are the results of a Belgian study, * according to which the main function of these measures is above all to provide an 'extended probation period' without any cost risk (in the Belgian practical training periods the wage costs are covered by the State). No additional workplaces have been created in Belgium as the result of these practical training periods (*stages en entreprise*), the firms have simply employed as new workers those persons for whom the State has provided subsidies. Quite in line with intelligent personnel management, those young workers with the best qualifications after their practical training period have the best chances of being kept on the payroll.

One advantage of these measures for unemployed young people which provide work experience over those which are implemented exclusively in training centres could lie in the fact that they provide the employer with better information on the qualifications of the young person. Whether or not this advantage alone justifies these work experience measures is an open question. Studies I am familiar with and my own experience in organizing measures of this kind point to other advantages as well.

Of interest in this connection is a study conducted by the British community

industry programmes, ** in which it is stated that the reason young people who have participated in such work experience programmes have better chances of finding employment is that they then have in their hands a career profile which they can show to their potential employer, who then knows that rather than hanging around in the streets or doing odd jobs for the past months they have been working hard to improve themselves.

Within the space allotted this article it is not possible to deal with other types of alternance-based training such as that for older workers, that for university graduates, and others.

In closing it can be said that the many advantages of alternance training likewise lie precisely in the fact that the career selection process is a more continuous one than is otherwise the case. However, in order for this to happen alternance training must be of sufficient duration, preferably from two to three years according to the level of education and training of the participants. This enables the young people to select a career more judiciously and permits the firms to make an optimal selection of full-time workers later on. A conflict of interests always arises which must constantly be managed. One task of the careers information and guidance services is to call to attention situations in which a firm's employment interests prevail to such an extent that training interests and interests relating to the career prospects of the workers involved are unduly neglected. Under this aspect a very important additional task falls to the job placement and the careers guidance services in connection with the development and redesign of vocational training in the direction of alternance training.

* H. Cossey *et al.*, *Evaluatie van de Stages in Ondernemingen*, Leuven 1977. See also Centre INFO, *Stages pratiques et stages de formation*, Paris 1978.

** C. Murray, *Youth unemployment*, 1978.

Vocational training and guidance for adults

Frans Lander

In the context of an enquiry dealing with possibilities of retraining the long-term unemployed I interviewed a number of unemployed people some years ago. The interviews were aimed at finding out individual training requirements, but at the same time they functioned as an information and activation strategy.

That morning I called on a middle-aged unemployed man. He appeared very worried about his unemployment. When I proposed a variety of retraining possibilities, including the Centre for Vocational Training, he answered abruptly: 'I already underwent retraining seven years ago, and now look at me. I'm unemployed again.' As we went on talking, it became clear to me that this man was not capable of making his own way, for instance by taking training and finding new work. The cause of this was not only his unfortunate experience with retraining but also an unclear image of his possibilities and inadequate preliminary education.

Career counselling and job guidance for adults cannot be looked at in detachment from the social and educational situation in which the adults are involved. For certain target groups vocational counselling and guidance need to be part of a broader educational process and therefore an internal function of educational institutions. In the context of this article I shall attempt to deal in more detail with the consequences of this. Here, however, the context of vocational training and guidance in the Netherlands is of great importance, I would therefore like to give a very brief sketch of the Dutch situation. Although this article is concerned with the situation in the Netherlands, the conclusions could also apply to other European countries.

Job counselling and guidance

The initiative for information and guidance on employment in the Netherlands is

FRANS LANDER
Secretary of the Interdepartmental Steering Group for Adult Education



STICHA

taken by the local authorities. The community of The Hague set up in 1906 the Hague Employment Exchange 'to give information and guidance when apprentices report for replacement in jobs'. Later the private employment offices arose, set up on a Protestant or Catholic basis according to Dutch custom. The first Employment Congress was held in 1925. After the Second World War, the State, i.e. the Ministry of Social Affairs, set up public offices, the present-day GAB (regional employment offices). Following enactment of the Mammoet Act * on continuing education in 1968, guidance in the school developed, carried out principally by the heads of schools and characterized by its longitudinal approach.

Adults do make use of employment guidance and ask for information, but there is still hardly any question of a systematic

* The Mammoet Act (of 1963) was aimed at restructuring the whole field of continuing education.

approach to employment counselling and guidance.

The regional employment offices deal up to 31% with private customers apart from registered unemployed (1978); in addition, the private offices have played a role in this field in recent years, although it is still modest in scope. Apart from this external support for adults, there is internal support for persons participating in educational activities which is similar to that given to young people during schooling. In the case of internal support, counselling and guidance is rooted in a broader educative organization. It is striking that this form of support in adult education has greatly increased in recent years.

Statement of the problem

Job counselling and guidance for adults is still in its infancy. Moreover, we are dealing with a complicated matter. The content and methods of job counselling and

guidance for adults, as well as the institutional setting must fit in with the general characteristics which apply in adult education, in particular the relationship between the situation and needs of the participant and the needs of society.

The complexity of job counselling and guidance is determined by its connection with other factors such as the increasing discrepancy between training and the labour market, sharply rising unemployment, and the existence of, or if you like, the necessity for, more part-time jobs, with new role patterns in family, job and leisure.

There is furthermore the problem of the second (or sometimes even the third) job choice, namely, for women who wish to return to work, for the unemployed, and for young people seeking employment. For the latter category there is frequently reference even to a crisis situation.

Job counselling and guidance need to be part of a broad process, the other components of which include information, sensitization, activation, guidance, and follow-up. It is therefore desirable that internal and external support functions in counselling and guidance be brought into close relation not only with each other but also with other activities in the field of adult education.

Content

One of the starting points of adult education as expressed in the memorandum on the principles of adult education recently issued by the Netherlands Government is the right of (potential) participants to have their say in the matter. They must be able themselves to determine their educational needs and to plan their own course of study. On this basis counselling, i.e. guidance in job choice, is indispensable. Only in recent years has a start been made on systematic provision of information in adult education.

The content of this information needs to be such that it connects with the varying

and continually changing needs of adults. (The data must be made accessible in such a way that the adult can pick catchwords which connect with his wishes and thus absorb the necessary information about training courses and careers.)

The information must comprise the following aspects:

- nature of the training (whether aimed at a diploma or otherwise);
- nature of the programme (subjects), possibilities of certificates, streaming possibilities, previous training level requirements (with reference to link and similar programmes), and teaching methods used (multi-media, group meetings, radio, television, written courses, etc.);
- place of training;
- duration of training;
- cost of training, etc.

But even with a perfect information system which disposes of an adequate network for dissemination (with the additional facilities necessary in some regions), in libraries for instance, this is not enough. Information about possibilities of education and training is not enough for many adults, because they lack any clear insight into their own needs, possibilities, and desires.

Moreover, they are scarcely able to grasp the purpose and requirements of specific forms of education, all the more so since for a long time they have had no experience with any sort of systematic education. Moreover, their experiences with schooling are sometimes of such a nature that they are unable without help to step over the educational threshold.

For certain groups of adults help in finding vocational training is indispensable. They have forgotten how to learn, if they ever knew how.

Many adults follow a training course on the basis of information acquired very much at random: a folder, an advertisement, a doctor who advises them to go and find something to do, their trade union, etc.

In most cases we are far from being able to speak of a conscious, let alone a syste-

matic choice. This is shown, among other things, by the large number of participants who drop out during training or who let it be known that the training was not exactly what they wanted. What they really want begins to emerge during the process of education. The large number of drop-outs from written courses shows that they have underestimated study or, as happens not infrequently, overestimated their own capacities.

My experience in working with many groups of adults has taught me that for many participants in adult education an orientation course is a good basis to start with. In France we have the example of the pre-training courses, particularly for women. In the Netherlands the open school projects and the women's orientation (VOS) courses act as a sort of starting course for adult education, although they are not specifically aimed at possibilities of vocational training.

During these courses a process of awareness takes place by which the participants gain a much clearer self-concept, on the basis of which they can make a conscious choice. These forms of 'information', in which information is part of an educative process, are particularly valuable for groups who find themselves in a crisis situation and do not yet have any clear insight into their own needs and into the possibilities of vocational training and the labour market. Moreover instruction, including that on vocational training for adults, needs to take place as close to people as possible, in their own community.

At this level the participants themselves can exercise some control over the information provided, particularly when this forms a part of local educational planning. For many adults, however, information about careers and choice of jobs is not enough. From what has been said above, it will be clear that guidance in choice is a necessary follow-up to information. From talks with those seeking employment, I find that a (second) choice of job, sometimes the first genuine choice,

is made more difficult by a lack of insight into the job-seeker's own potentialities and learning possibilities. The uncertain situation on the labour market also plays a role in this connection. Help in making a choice is part of the educational process.

Self-directed search cannot, for instance, be used for people with a low level of education, although this method has the advantage of bringing the choice of career close to the client, of being cheap, and of taking up little time.

People helped by an employment office or a private office often have to wait for long periods. Many adults do not wish to make a choice directly, but prefer to look around first.

This applies particularly to people who find little stimulation in their domestic situation to go out and start training again for work.

Guidance in choice is not the end of the process. There is also activation, guidance during study, progress control and follow-up, all of which are necessary. But in view of the subject of this article, we shall not go into more detail here.

Methods

On the basis of this content, I shall briefly indicate some consequences for the methods of job counselling and guidance.

As regards instruction it is a question of listing and classifying data and setting up a system of documentation and dissemination.

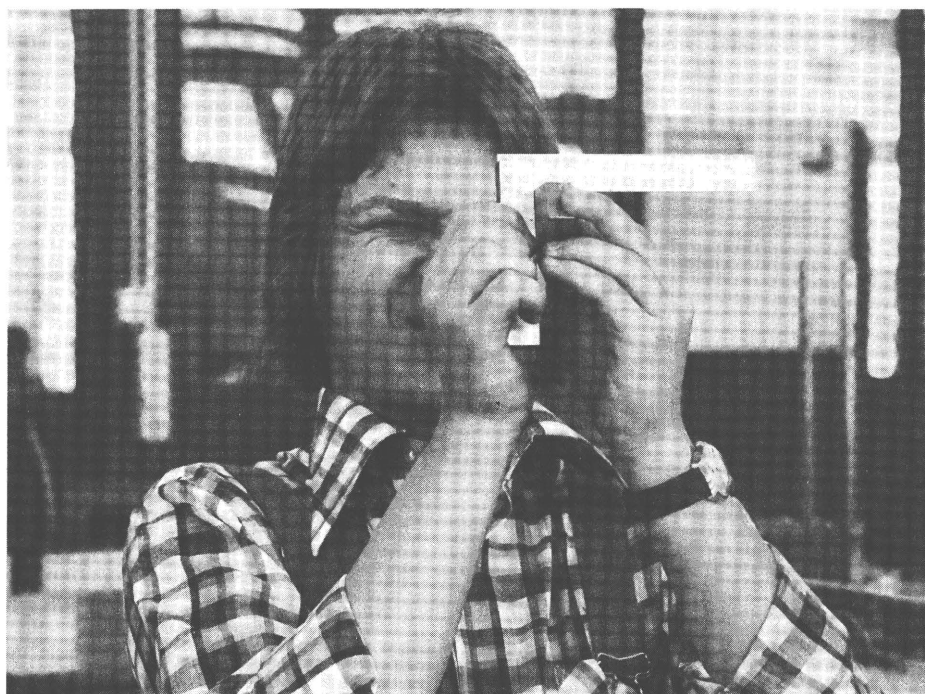
The accessibility of vocational instruction can be increased by creating a network for providing information in the field of adult education.

This information network must be locally available. We may consider local libraries. The information can be stored in computers to which the larger libraries need to be connected.

The regional employment offices, particularly the new-style offices, also need to be part of such a network. In the new-style employment offices the adult can find his

way without help in the registers of applications and vacancies. At the same time he has access to the reading corner (information about business, collective agreements, etc.) and the career shop (information about training and careers).

The reception and intake can direct him to the closed part of the employment bureau which houses the services of job placement, job information, vocational training, vocational choice, and insertion into work.



STICHA

The information, however, does not need to be limited to a passive offer. Active instruction via radio and television (here local and regional broadcasts are of importance), via educative centres, and via telephone services are necessary complements. With the latter, interesting experiments are now being conducted in Amsterdam and Oost-Groningen. A good example of active written information is the bulletin *Flash Formation Continue* issued by the CUIDEP of Grenoble.

Dependent on the target group, specific methods of vocational training and guidance need to be further developed.

For individual adults who have clear pictures of their own possibilities and wishes,

self-help methods and computerizing can be used, although some of these adults may still find difficulty in using them. Adults who have a less clear picture of their needs and potentials are better served by group methods such as the career reconnaissance group, a method used in the Netherlands particularly for younger people.

We can also consider career guidance within firms and organizations.

For adults without employment and/or with little training and little insight into the consequences of a choice, internal support is to be preferred. In the Netherlands increasing attention is being given to such orientation programmes. Many edu-

cational institutions have neither the manpower nor the expertise in the house to be able to carry out internal career counselling and guidance. In the promotion of expertise among workers in adult education the counselling task should be given attention.

Here also stress should be laid on particular high-risk groups such as juvenile unemployed, women who are too often confronted with a stereotyped approach when they choose a job, the handicapped, and older persons. Vocational choice and guidance must find a place in educational institutions, either as an internal function or in the form of adequate possibilities of referral to existing agencies.

The institutional setting

A first starting point for an institutional setting of vocational counselling and guidance needs to be coherence. But this coherence must not erode the specific functions of internal and external instruction and guidance. The second starting point is further regionalization of vocational counselling and guidance for adults.

In December 1979 the Netherlands Government, reacting to advice, authorized five development projects in the form of 'educative centres', based on a possible grouping of external support functions for (potential) participants at local/regional level. Included were information and guidance on job choice as well as activation, recruitment, and study guidance. By means of these three-year projects, the government hopes to find the answer to the following questions, among others:

- What is the best shape for support functions for participants in the educative offer itself, and/or externally?
- What organization form should be chosen for the external support functions (grouping, division of tasks, etc.)?
- At what level can the various support functions best be organized (commune,

region or province) and how can the promotion of expertise in the field of support best be organized?

In this connection particular attention needs to be given to groups which are not visibly interested in educative activities.

Here vocational counselling and guidance are, in view of the target groups, necessarily included in a broader educational purpose which must in its turn be part of a network of services and activities in adult education, with a strong accent on decentralization and local planning.

Therefore in the planning stage the role of local and provincial authorities should also be studied.

Although institutions cannot be forced to cooperate, the Netherlands Government hopes by way of these projects to gain more insight into an organizational structure built from the bottom upwards in which the participants are very actively involved, one which does justice to government policy on adult education.

The government is taking this task seriously, as may be seen from a request for advice directed recently to the Council for Vocational Training, in which the government asks the Council to advise it on the regionalization of job choice activities, the relation of job choice activities to the local educative centres, and the contributions of job choice activities, in terms of content and organization, to adult education.

Jean Vincens

Reciprocal information

The need for orientation

Etymologically speaking, to orient oneself is to relate to the east and the other cardinal points. It is necessary to bear the essential idea in mind that in a very general sense orientation always implies location within a well-ordered system. By definition the cardinal points create a system within the almost infinite points which constitute geographical space. The same concept characterizes the labour market. For the worker the cardinal points are replaced by the jobs and the firms or offices which offer these jobs. Here orientation implies location in relation to these jobs and these firms and offices. It implies becoming aware of oneself, one's preferences, and one's possibilities and gathering information on jobs in order to determine which jobs provide the best opportunity to achieve the objectives which one has selected for oneself. In a free labour market every worker should, theoretically, be able to orientate himself at all times. If his intention is to derive maximum benefit, he must know at all times where he stands in relation to the totality of other jobs which might bring him greater benefit. It is not only those workers who must change jobs who need to orientate themselves. The assumption is rather that a worker is always ready to change jobs if this is to his advantage. There is thus a permanent need for guidance and orientation. The firm likewise has need of orientation. If the firm has open jobs or if other firms can absorb more manpower, it is not likely that the competitive situation will be identical. Consequently, a firm will probably not be able to employ all the workers it needs simply by slightly increasing wages. It

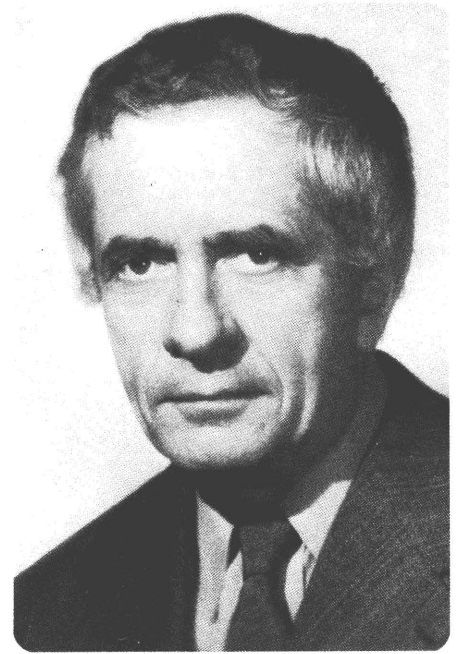
must therefore seek to orientate itself in relation to the various sources of manpower supply in order to know how to tap each source skillfully.

Economic theory itself leads to the conclusion that the need for orientation is both a general and a permanent one.

Orientation and information

Orientation is based on information, but its main purpose is to prepare to gather supplementary information. In order to find one's location within the social system to which one belongs, it is necessary to become well-informed on this system. But such information does not suffice to determine action. Returning to the original meaning of orientation, one might say that the information provided by the compass enables one to go north but reveals neither the obstacles along the way nor the distance which has to be travelled. The need of the labour market for orientation must not be confused with the need for information which a worker looking for work has. He must know where open jobs are and what they involve. The purpose of orientation is thus to facilitate this search for information. The search for information on open jobs is influenced by the type of job sought and the job situation in general. Three aspects can be distinguished.

■ Job search and manpower search are not haphazard actions. They are the direct consequence of orientation. Before starting his search, the jobseeker must have information on what jobs are open for him. Since this search is costly, the worker has little reason to search haphazardly. He must begin by gathering information on the jobs or the firms which correspond to his preferences. If he is well orientated, he may learn that his chances of finding a job which satisfies his preferences are not good, in which case he can immediately



start searching in another zone of the working world. For its part the firm, having decided what type of worker it needs, starts to search for manpower there where it feels it has the best chance of finding what it needs. The search of workers for labour market information is of a similar nature. Decisive are (i) the preferences of the workers and the employers and (ii) the information which enables them to orientate, to locate themselves.

The existence of such a system, however imperfect it may be, is of consequence to the process of information search and to the functioning of the labour market. One of the best known applications of this idea is the theory of filter in education economics. Employers classify according to stream of education and educational level and are then inclined to recruit those young people who have the best certificates or diplomas.

■ The search for information is also organized on the basis of criteria which serve to ensure maximum efficacy. Three criteria can be distinguished.

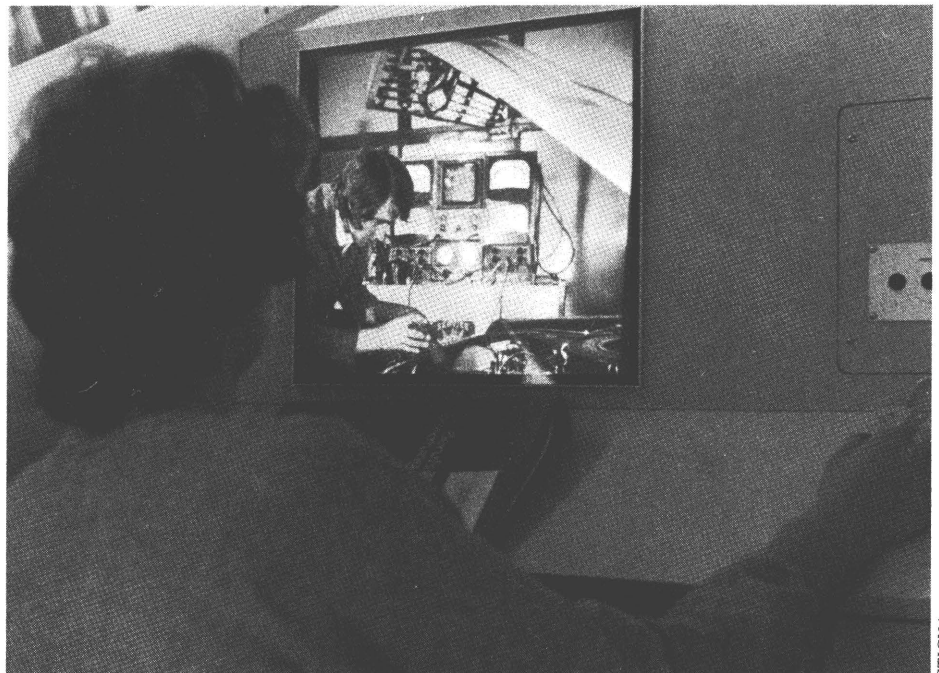
□ The information must be reliable. For example, firms sometimes ask applicants to renew their applications, say once a year, for the purpose of updating the files. The information must also be correct. The worker or the firm supplying information may be tempted to make a false statement, counting on the relative irreversibility of a decision: an employed worker

does not always change his job even when he has realized that the advantages promised him at the start do not exist.

□ The information must be pertinent to the needs of the information seeker. We can use here the distinction drawn between inspection goods and experience goods. For workers jobs are experience goods in the sense that a job has to be held in order to recognize its advantages and disadvantages. For firms workers are also experience goods in that they need time to be able to judge the true quality of a recently employed worker. Consequently, not all the pertinent information can be gathered prior to employment. Both the employed worker and the firm must eliminate uncertainties and supplement the information.

□ The information must be of sufficient volume. The firm which has an open job wishes to choose among several applicants and the jobseeker wishes to choose among a number of open jobs. The greater the volume, of course within certain limits, the more advantageous the position of the person searching. A large volume of information enables better comparison and this in turn improves the quality of judgment and also makes for a better negotiating position. One must remember that the search for information does not of itself lead to employment. It does lead to readiness on the part of the worker and the firm, and whoever has less need to sign is in a better negotiating position. Greater volume implies precisely greater freedom of choice. The firm negotiating with several applicants is stronger than when it negotiates with only one, and the worker who can choose one job from many is better off than he would be as 'captive' of his firm.

Thus the usefulness of information depends on its characteristics. Here the problem arises of comparing formal methods of search drawing on official information networks and informal



STICHA

methods drawing on personal relationships.

■ The third problem raised by the search for labour market information stems from the fact that each searcher must at some time during the search process provide personal information. This is necessary because employment is an agreement of intention and goodwill. It is therefore possible that by giving information one has a good chance of receiving desired information in return. The attitude of a seeker of information is likewise the attitude of a receiver of information. This is true of all exchanges except when only a cash price is involved. On the labour market this characteristic of information search gives rise to three widely differing attitudes.

□ The attitude of mere response. The jobseeker or employer searching for information confines himself to answering announcements appearing in newspapers,

utilizing the employment office's services, or drawing on other information sources. A jobseeker does not reply to announcements which offer jobs he finds interesting but which he feels he cannot fill. The attitude of mere response is one whereby the jobseekers or firms decide (i) that the offers open are so numerous and interesting that they need not make any special effort or (ii) that their offers are not likely to evoke good response. It is thus wiser to save the cost of an announcement.

□ The attitude of broad offer. It consists in making as widely known as possible what is being looked for. A worker or a firm gathers in enough replies to make a decision. The broad offer can be more or less precise and thus enable the respondents to easily decide whether or not it is of interest to them.

□ The attitude of selective offer. It consists in giving information only to those who might really be interested. For

example, a firm sends a list of its open jobs to certain training institutions only or a worker applies directly for a specific job. The purpose of a selective offer is to reduce the number of replies in order to guarantee better quality of response. This attitude makes sense only when the search for information is not haphazard and when the worker or employer involved is well orientated and knows his location within the labour force or the economic branch.

Thus orientation on the labour market precedes and influences information search for open jobs or manpower. The information then obtained enables orientation corrections to be made by revealing the quality of the orientation.

Labour market situation and worker orientation

The role played by the guidance and orientation of workers during their working life and the forms these take are linked to the education and production systems and the economic cycle.

■ Structural influences

To orientate oneself is to know what chances one has of getting this or that job. But what do these chances depend on?

□ They depend first of all on the skills needed by the firm at the time of employment. The problem is to know how to acquire these skills. The two methods of acquisition are training within the education system and on-the-job training. Since numerous links exist between these two methods, they can substitute for or complement each other. Orientation on the labour market thus joins with guidance at school level. The complementarity of training and job experience or their mutual substitution depends in part on the organization of the education system and its relation with the firms.



□ Access to employment also depends on the regulations established by collective bargaining or by custom. If a number of jobs within a firm are reserved for the firm's employees, labour market orientation is strongly affected by this internal labour market. A worker should therefore know what his chances on this market are. Only then should he look into chances for employment elsewhere. Naturally, if all firms have an internal labour market, every change within the firm can spell unemployment, particularly so if the worker leaves his firm in the hope of finding a job with another firm. A worker must also bear in mind the costs of mobility involved in changing jobs, these costs differing according to population density and geographical size of the country.

■ *Economic cycle influences*

We distinguish two relationships between careers guidance and the labour market situation.

□ For the average jobseeker the need for guidance is most probably much greater and much more deeply experienced in times of economic depression marked by widespread unemployment. This has an impact on scholastic guidance. The young people ask not only what type of training would be best for them and most easily available, they also wish to know how good their chances of employment really are. This need for careers guidance stems from an acute awareness of the difficulties ahead. If there are not enough jobs for all, each jobseeker makes a greater effort to find one for himself. A spirit of competition and individualistic reactions thus come to the fore. In fact, guidance seems to be even more necessary in times of economic slack. And yet even the best guidance cannot improve the employment situation itself.

□ The second relationship existing between guidance and the economic situation is the much greater uncertainty

which marks periods of slow economic growth when the labour market is slack. When economic growth is slow, the business situation of every firm becomes more and more unstable, particularly in an open economy where technological progress continues. This instability bounces back on every worker, not only because he risks being discharged but also because his chances of finding another job are small indeed. Since occupational orientation is the art of locating one's place within the whole, it is evident that this art becomes more difficult to practice when the overall situation becomes unstable, when the environment becomes turbulent. This fact is well known to all who are concerned with the guidance of young people within the educational system. The concept of labour market orientation does not duplicate that of information. Instead, it allows for a more precise and clearly formulated description of the stages of an unending process of search for work by the unemployed.

COMMISSION RECOMMENDATION

of 18 July 1966

to the Member States on the development of vocational guidance

(66/484/EEC)

Basis for action

Collaboration in the field of vocational guidance and job placement among interested administrations of the Member States, already launched at the initiative of the Commission, has led to the early establishment of a joint programme in this field. Among the first studies completed is a comparative analysis of the vocational guidance activities in the six Member States. This analysis identifies a number of factors characterizing the development of vocational guidance, including the growing importance of guidance in each of the Member States. At the same time the analysis stresses the need to foster the development of vocational guidance activities and structures at both national and Community level.

1. For some years now the role of vocational guidance has tended to develop within the framework of national policies relating to education, vocational training, and employment. Population growth, economic advance, and continuous technical and social progress are all exerting a profound influence on the division of labour and the nature and level of manpower qualifications; both the public authorities and the private organizations, taking into account the new types of education, are expanding guidance activities ⁽¹⁾ in the interest of facilitating vocational preparation and lifelong occupational adaptation.

In increasing measure vocational guidance is being thought of as an institution of educational, social, and economic character which responds to the needs of the individual desiring to obtain employment which is in line with his inclinations and skills and also with the needs of the labour market in general. Vocational guidance is supportive of a free and better choice of occupation and also of subsequent skill changes made necessary by economic, technical and social circumstances; its fuller justification lies in the fact that one of the factors which is now indispensable to a stable employment situation is occupational and geographical mobility.

2. In spite of the tremendous progress made in the course of the past decade, however, the basic objectives of vocational guidance have been only partially realized in a manner varying considerably from Member State to

Member State. Progress made has in no way sufficed to meet all the needs for guidance, in particular neither the guidance needs of physically, mentally, or psychologically handicapped persons who have special training, occupational adaptation, placement, or requalification problems nor the guidance needs of rural populations and, in general, persons, including migrant workers, who are faced with reorientation, training, or job promotion problems.

It is necessary to systematically make certain that difficult cases of guidance and placement are thoroughly examined in order to ensure that those involved receive all the help they can absorb, taking into consideration their situation and their particular problems.

Above all, the fact must be borne in mind that a very large majority of the users of vocational guidance services live in urban areas (large cities and their surroundings), where the services are usually located. Most of the persons not yet being able to profit from the services live in rural areas and generally earn their living in agriculture. In most of the Member States, therefore, the sphere of activity of the vocational guidance centres appears to be very restricted at the present time.

This fact highlights the great need to improve the structures of the vocational guidance services and to promote these services in rural areas. This is all the more necessary in view of the fact that the main migration trend, one being supported and encouraged, is from agriculture and rural areas to industry and services in the urban centres and in the semi-rural and semi-urban zones.

It is very important not to deprive young people and adults whose greatest need for guidance is precisely when they must prepare to change over to another job, of this information and counselling, for they then usually find themselves forced to take up within a new environment a low-skill job or one that is poorly suited to their capabilities.

3. Collaboration among the Member States in the field of vocational guidance is of even greater import in view of the fact that there is a general desire, although varying in degree, to improve the organization and operation of vocational guidance services. Furthermore, since the problems involved in improving and expanding the vocational guidance services which the various Member States are

⁽¹⁾ Guidance is understood here in the broader sense of providing information and counselling during schooling and working life.

confronted with have a number of aspects in common, the six countries are interested in comparing experiences in order to draw conclusions which are of general application. Their converging concerns have already been taken up in various international organizations and in the member States of these organizations. At international level a number of measures have already been adopted. In addition to Recommendation No 87 of the International Labour Organization, Geneva, July 1949, mention should be made of the European Social Charter, Turin, October 1961; Recommendation No 56 of the International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, July 1963; Recommendation of the Council of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development on manpower policy as an instrument of economic growth, Paris, May 1964; and Recommendation No 122 of the International Labour Organization on employment policy, Geneva, June 1964.

4. For the reasons given above, the Commission of the European Community has drawn up the following Recommendation. It is based on articles of the Treaty of Rome which have a direct connection with vocational guidance and employment, in particular the following: Article 128 and the general principles governing the implementation of a common vocational training policy laid down in pursuance to this Article, third principle, Decision of the Council of 2 April 1963; Article 117, which stresses the need to promote improved living and working conditions for workers; Article 118, which assigns to the Commission the task of promoting close cooperation in the social field, particularly in matters relating, among others, to employment and to basic and advanced vocational training, and finally all other provisions of the Treaty in which guidance measures for workers are presupposed, in particular those articles which deal with the social aspects of the common agricultural policy. Among the objectives of this common policy, Article 39 calls expressly for the achievement of an optimum level of employment.

The Commission of the European Community has called for the opinion of the Economic and Social Committee ⁽¹⁾ and the European Parliament ⁽²⁾, both of which have welcomed and approved the present Recommendation.

Recommendation

On these grounds the Commission of the European Community, pursuant to the objectives and terms of the

Treaty establishing this Community, above all Article 155, and the Decision of the Council of 2 April 1963, and after consulting Economic and Social Committee and the European Parliament, recommends to the Member States that they

1. support the development of vocational guidance activities for young people and adults

(a) The development of free, publicly run vocational guidance services, in cooperation, where appropriate, with private vocational guidance services operating on a non-profitmaking basis, should be pursued with the intent of placing these services at the disposal of all interested persons as rapidly as possible. It is necessary to increase the number of young people and adults benefiting each year from vocational guidance up to the point where all persons capable of benefiting may do so. This increase must take into consideration the needs of the categories of interested groups, above all the needs of the rural inhabitants and the migrants as well as the needs of persons, including handicapped persons, who, for whatever reason must undergo retraining or desire to undergo advanced training or qualification upgrading. In order to determine these needs and possibly to establish an order of priority for vocational guidance activities, the vocational guidance services of the six Member States should each simultaneously undertake every three years, in cooperation with interested authorities and services, an in-depth review of the guidance situation in their country. On the basis of the results of this review each Member State should update its programme of vocational guidance activities. Any expansion of this programme should be based in part on a survey of users classified according to age and region; at the same time the possibility of increasing the volume of funds available should be looked into. The annual review of vocational guidance activities should indicate progress made and the number of users reached in comparison with the total number of users envisaged. This basic data will enable each Member State to identify perspectives for the development of its vocational guidance services and determine what financial, technical, and personnel means would then become necessary.

⁽¹⁾ Opinion unanimously adopted on 23 February 1966 at the 52nd Plenary Session (OJ No 70, 20 April 1966, p. 1047).

⁽²⁾ Resolution adopted on 11 March 1966 at the 1966 Constitutive Session (OJ No 53, 24 March 1966, p. 779).

(b) At the same time qualitative improvements should be researched, particularly as regards the following points:

- information and documentation on the role, structure, content, earning potential, and current and envisaged state of the various occupations; on labour law and social law in force in the Member States; on employment market trends, according to branch, occupation and region; and on the types and structures of basic and advanced vocational training;

- specific information on aptitudes and skills required in the various occupations, bearing in mind current or anticipated changes at economic, technical and social level;

- vocational guidance and counselling methods, drawing on the knowledge and experience of participating specialists, in particular educators, psychologists, sociologists, physicians, and representatives of professional organizations and employment services;

- appropriate ways and means of disseminating information and documentation on the perspectives and possibilities of guidance to individuals, specific groups, and the public at large.

Studies on these various points should be conducted at regular intervals in order to determine ongoing needs and arrive at concrete conclusions. These studies and their results should be passed on as soon as possible to the vocational guidance services. In their turn the services should correlate the dissemination vehicles of the systematically processed data (publications, cinema, radio, television, and educational and technical competitions, especially those run by schools and professional and social organizations) with the various categories of users. Particular attention should be given to employment forecasts in order to provide timely guidelines for vocational guidance measures.

2. adapt the organizational structure and the means of vocational guidance services to the needs of the population

(a) Structure

The organizational structure of the vocational guidance services must be adapted in such a manner as to:

- correct where required unequal geographical distribution of these services in terms of the real needs of the

population, these needs to be determined in each of the various regions, the rural regions above all;

- strengthen where necessary the general organizational set-up of the vocational guidance services;

- enable the services to directly approach users, even in remote rural centres, via mobile units and hours of work so arranged that all who desire, in particular the parents, can call on their services;

- facilitate cooperation at different levels among authorities and services carrying responsibility in the field of vocational guidance.

(b) Means

In order to expand to the degree necessary vocational guidance activities, the funds needed to adequately finance the technical and administrative means required, particularly the guidance personnel, must be available. This should be studied primarily with a view to the following aims:

- recruit personnel in such manner as to ensure staff growth and higher qualification level in keeping with guidance needs;

- give this personnel that professional status which will guarantee staff stability;

- improve the basic and advanced training of the various categories of guidance personnel; launch regular, systematic training measures, bearing in mind, among others, the guidance problems of the rural populations.

3. ensure greater continuity of guidance action, establish close liaison with the employment services, and strengthen the general coordination of guidance activities

(a) More equipment and more personnel should contribute to transforming the vocational guidance process into a more comprehensive and continual one. This should facilitate the stepwise transition, very often criticized, from schooling to vocational training to employment in a specific occupation to subsequent job changes calling for retraining or skill adaptation. In order to properly prepare this transition it will be necessary to provide the possibility of repeating infor-

mation and counselling work each time that general circumstances or the individual situation of the young person or the adult concerned calls for renewed examination of the problem of guidance.

(b) It is advisable, furthermore, to make certain that there is effective liaison between participating institutions, namely, general education; vocational training; scholastic guidance and careers guidance for young people and adults; agricultural extension services dealing primarily with socioeconomic problems; and employment services. Such liaison should take the form of exchanges of information on work programmes. At individual level this implies communication, given the consent of the persons concerned and within the limits set by national regulations, of counselling and aptitude tests results.

In order to strengthen this collaboration, it will be necessary to overcome certain obstacles such as the fragmentation of competences, the differences in methods used, and the fact that the scholastic and vocational guidance officers have no common terminology.

In general coordination of vocational guidance activities should be participated in by all relevant services at national, regional, and local level in order to achieve a more harmonious linkage of efforts on the part of authorities competent in this field and other participating organizations and groups.

4. strengthen collaboration at Community level

The need to strengthen collaboration at Community level is dictated by the trend of economic and social development in the six Member States; this development renders vocational guidance all the more necessary, the more rapidly obstacles in the way of free movement of manpower within the Community are eliminated.

In order to facilitate intercommunication among the national vocational guidance services and to stimulate efforts aimed at vastly improving the entire network of vocational guidance services in the Community, it is above all necessary to establish regular exchanges of information and experience gained with pilot projects, whose results can be jointly evaluated, and to launch joint initiatives for the benefit of displaced workers migrating to and from the Community. Within the framework of these exchanges a synthesis report is to be prepared and published each year on vocational guidance activities and on progress made during the year in question. The services of the Commission are to prepare this synthesis on the basis of information which the relevant services of the Member States provide them with.

The Commission recommends to the Member States that they:

- take all steps necessary to ensure that the above objectives are realized;
- make certain that this Recommendation is made known to all interested services, organizations, and groups;
- provide information at regular intervals on measures which they undertake to implement in the field to which this Recommendation refers, on progress made, and on difficulties encountered.

Done at Brussels, 18 July 1966.

For the Commission

The President

Walter HALLSTEIN

**Salgs- og abonnementskontorer · Vertriebsbüros · Γραφεία πωλήσεως ·
Sales Offices · Bureaux de vente · Uffici di vendita · Verkoopkantoren**

Belgique — België

Moniteur belge — Belgisch Staatsblad

Rue de Louvain 40-42 — Leuvensestraat 40-42
1000 Bruxelles — 1000 Brussel
Tél. 512 00 26

Sous-dépôts — Agentschappen :

Librairie européenne — Europese Boekhandel
Rue de la Loi 244 — Wetstraat 244
1040 Bruxelles — 1040 Brussel

CREDOC

Rue de la Montagne 34 - Bte 11 — Bergstraat 34
- Bus 11
1000 Bruxelles — 1000 Brussel

Danmark

Schultz Forlag

Møntergade 21
1116 København K
Tlf. (01) 12 11 95

Underagentur :

Europa Bøger
Gammel Torv 6 — Postbox 137
1004 København K
Tlf. (01) 15 62 73

BR Deutschland

Verlag Bundesanzeiger

Breite Straße — Postfach 10 80 06
5000 Köln 1
Tel. (0221) 21 03 48
(Fernschreiber : Anzeiger Bonn 8 882 595)

Ελλάς

Γ. Κ. Ήλευθερουδάκης Α.Ε.

Νίκης 4
Αθήνα (126)
Τηλ. 3226323
Τέλεξ 219410 elef

Πρακτόρευση :

Βιβλιοπωλείο Μόλχο
οδός Τιμιμακή 10
Θεσσαλονίκη
Τηλ. 275 271
Τέλεξ 412885 limo

France

*Service de vente en France des publications des
Communautés européennes*

Journal officiel

26, rue Desaix
75732 Paris Cedex 15
Tél. (1) 578 61 39

« Service de documentation »

D.E.P.P. — Maison de l'Europe
37, rue des Francs-Bourgeois
75004 Paris
Tél. 887 96 50

Ireland

Government Publications

Sales Office
G.P.O. Arcade
Dublin 1

or by post

Stationery Office

Dublin 4
Tel. 78 96 44

Italia

Libreria dello Stato

Piazza G. Verdi, 10
00198 Roma — Tel. (6) 8508
Telex 62008

Nederland

Staatsdrukkerij- en uitgeverijbedrijf

Christoffel Plantijnstraat
Postbus 20014
2500EA 's-Gravenhage
Tel. (070) 78 99 11

United Kingdom

H.M. Stationery Office

P.O. Box 569
London SE1 9NH
Tel. (01) 928 69 77. ext. 365

España

Libreria Mundi-Prensa

Castelló 37
Madrid 1
Tel. 275 46 55

Portugal

Livraria Bertrand, s.a.r.l.

Rua João de Deus — Venda Nova
Amadora
Tel. 97 45 71
Télex 12 709 — litran — p.

Schweiz - Suisse - Svizzera

Librairie Payot

6, rue Grenus
1211 Genève
Tel. 31 89 50

Sverige

Librairie C.E. Fritzes

Regeringsgatan 12
Box 16356
103 27 Stockholm
Tel. 08-23 89 00

United States of America

European Community Information Service

2100 M Street, N.W.
Suite 707
Washington, D.C. 20 037
Tel. (202) 862 95 00

Grand-Duché de Luxembourg

**

Andre lande · Andere Länder · Άλλες χώρες · Other countries · Autres pays · Altri paesi · Andere landen

Kontoret for De europæiske Fællesskabers officielle Publikationer · Amt für amtliche Veröffentlichungen der Europäischen Gemeinschaften ·
Υπηρεσία Έπίσημων Εκδόσεων των Ευρωπαϊκών Κοινοτήτων · Office for Official Publications of the European Communities ·
Office des publications officielles des Communautés européennes · Ufficio delle pubblicazioni ufficiali delle Comunità europee ·
Bureau voor officiële publikaties der Europese Gemeenschappen

L-2985 Luxembourg - 5, rue du Commerce · Tél. 49 00 81

Prices (excluding VAT) in Luxembourg

Single copy	ECU 6.20	BFR 250	IRL 4.20	UKL 3.65	USD 8.70
Annual subscription	ECU 14.65	BFR 600	IRL 10.20	UKL 9. –	USD 21. –



OFFICE FOR OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS
OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES

ISSN 0378-5068

L-2985 Luxembourg

Catalogue number: HX-AA-81-006-EN-C