

# Approximation of training levels

## Editorial

Mutual recognition of diplomas of occupational qualification: A utopia? *P. G. de Biase*

Levels of vocational training in Europe: Is a process of approximation ongoing? *G. Fragnière*

Vocational training systems in the European Community – who or what stands in the way of approximation? *W. Mickel*

Occupational qualifications: a scenario for the future. *F. Taiti*

## DOSSIER

Young migrants: the 'less equal'.  
The vocational training situation  
in Belgium: *A. Bastenier, F. Dassetto*  
in the United Kingdom: *M. Cross*  
in France: *J.-M. Raimond*  
in Luxembourg: *A. Spineux*  
in Denmark: *F. Morgan-Gérard*

Bibliographical file

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## EUROPE

Skilled workers: approximation of diplomas of vocational training within the Community

Commission of the European Communities. Free movement and the mutual recognition of diplomas. *FMG – CEDEFOP*

The academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study. *R. G. Martin*

The Council of Europe and academic mobility. *J.-P. Massué*

International Labour Office  
Second generation migrants. *FMG – CEDEFOP*

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Contents	Page
Editorial .....	1
Mutual recognition of diplomas of occupational qualification: A utopia? . <i>Paola Gaiotti de Biase</i>	3
Levels of vocational training in Europe: Is a process of approximation ongoing? .....	7
<i>Gabriel Fragnière</i>	
Vocational training systems in the European Community – who or what stands in the way of approximation? .....	10
<i>Wolfgang Mickel</i>	
Occupational qualifications: a scenario for the future .....	14
<i>Fabio Taiti</i>	
DOSSIER	
Young migrants: the 'less equal'. The vocational training situation in Belgium .....	18
<i>Albert Bastenier, Felice Dassetto</i>	
in the United Kingdom .....	22
<i>Malcolm Cross</i>	
in France .....	24
<i>Jean-Marie Raimond</i>	
in Luxembourg .....	28
<i>Armand Spineux</i>	
in Denmark .....	31
<i>Florence Morgan-Gérard</i>	
Bibliographical file .....	34
Open space .....	36
EUROPE	
Skilled workers: approximation of diplomas of vocational training within the Community .....	37
Commission of the European Communities: Free movement and the mutual recognition of diplomas .....	40
<i>FMG – CEDEFOP</i>	
The academic recognition of diplomas and ob periods of study .....	43
<i>Ronald G. Martin</i>	
The Council of Europe and academic mobility .....	46
<i>Jean-Pierre Massué</i>	
International Labour Office: Second generation migrants .....	48
<i>FMG – CEDEFOP</i>	

The approximation of levels of qualification and the recognition of vocational training diplomas and certificates have been the subject of discussion ever since the principles of free movement were proclaimed in the Treaty of Rome. The gradual elimination of mercantile protectionism was seen as a top priority objective to be pursued by means of appropriate Community legislation. The other form of protectionism, that imposed by formal qualifications in the various trades and occupations, and which also limits free movement, constitutes a further deficiency.

We shall not concern ourselves here with the legal and political interpretation of the Treaty of Rome, but would refer our readers to the analyses made by Gaiotti de Biase in her article.

This issue comes off the press in a period in which the Commission is preparing a communication on this difficult subject which it intends to submit to the Council of Ministers. As the contributions to this issue of 'Vocational Training' show, the question has by no means been dealt with conclusively.

Approximation of levels of qualification and recognition of diplomas and certificates: how and why?, questions of fundamental importance.

## How?

There are several approaches possible:

One approach would be to remove the obstacles which block the way to mutual recognition, in particular a great institutional diversity of the training systems.

This approach appears to be impracticable for a number of reasons, including

■ the interdependence of training systems and the social systems which have produced them, the result being that any modification

of the former would necessarily have impact on the latter;

■ the inherent resistance of the institutional systems to change;

■ the apparent lack of any great advantage to be drawn from the levelling out of institutional diversities in the various countries;

■ the impossibility, in the last analysis, of designing a training system which could serve as a prototype for all Member States.

One could find a *common definition* of professional qualifications and hence achieve the mutual recognition of diplomas and certificates on a simple *fictio juris* basis, on the basis of politico-legislative action, disregarding training duration and content. However, it seems very unlikely that this could be done without first having implemented common vocational training policies and in particular without first having initiated processes of approximation as regards the content and objectives of vocational training. Furthermore, it seems improbable that the Community labour market would accept such a solution without first bringing into question the real values of levels of training as attested by training certificates and diplomas and indeed the very aspect of *professionalization* upon which the levels of productivity of the worker rests.

A scientific approach might be initiated with the objective in mind of identifying via comparative analyses of training content common denominators upon which to base approximation. In fact, this approach has already been pursued with great seriousness. It has become evident, however, that such an analysis can not be conducted at a level involving nine or ten Member States.

At the request of the Commission and in close cooperation with the Advisory Committee on Vocational Training, the Euro-

pean Centre has adopted a pragmatic approach. It consists in verifying concrete possibilities of defining the technical operative skills required to exercise a specific operation. The advantage of this method is that it is based on an existing situation.

It also has the advantage of arriving within a relatively short period of time at common definitions of levels of qualification, which in turn facilitate the process of approximation. On the basis of sound work undertaken by a group of experts from various fields, the method can lead to immediate results, even though they may be of limited range. If this work is to have any effect on the existing situation, a minimum number of common objectives must be defined at a political level. This is the aim underlying the initiatives the Commission is currently developing.

As a fifth approach one could assume that levels of qualification are also subject to the process of integration and harmonization of the means and methods of production in the Member States of the Community. Not being extraneous to this process, new technologies would make it necessary, among other things, to link a new training content with the relevant qualifications. The training systems of the various Member States must also endeavour to assimilate new developments, integrating them smoothly in the pedagogical and curricular framework. However, much still has to be done in this area.

It is obvious that none of these approaches alone has any real chance of succeeding and that the answer to the question of 'how' lies in combining a number of them.

It would also be foolhardy if attention were not directed to the *diversities* which characterize the training systems of the Member States. Such *diversities* will constitute a favourable factor of development only if they are embedded in constructive, ongoing dialectic confrontation rather than simply existing in a static, sterile framework.

## Why?

Why should we seek to approximate levels of qualification and work towards the mutual recognition of diplomas? The simplest reply which comes to mind is that given by the Treaty of Rome. It should be noted that the mutual recognition of diplomas and other certificates is explicitly called for in the Treaty of Rome for self-employed persons only. The approximation of levels of qualification in the interest of eventually achieving the mutual recognition of diplomas is an objective closely linked with the more general objective of the free movement of workers. If the mobility of workers within the Community is not to be simply *migration*, it must likewise rest on formal recognition of the right of workers to draw

full use from the vocational qualifications which they have obtained. There remain two hypotheses for the future:

■ The first hypothesis is that of the 'relative usefulness' of the homologization at European level of qualification levels. This hypothesis is based on the conviction that the increasingly rapid development of job content calls in turn for the continual re-design of what Fabio Taiti has called in his article 'erratic jobs'. On the one hand, this would lead in turn to the creation of a formal framework of well-defined qualifications (permitting the establishment of a 'European training diploma') and on the other, to the development of a non-formalized system of levels of professionalization; this latter would, however, extend beyond the limits of this framework.

■ The second hypothesis is that of the acceleration of the trend towards the polarization of qualifications. In this context the upholding of diplomas and certificates attesting a whole range of technical and operational skills would be a means of countering the progressive disappearance of jobs requiring intermediate qualifications.

Approximation of levels is thus not merely a formal act, but a continuous process through which existing differences may be evaluated and exploited in the interests of progress and not treated as insurmountable obstacles.

The approximation of qualification levels is an urgent need, for it constitutes a most significant element of the long-lasting and still continuing process of integration which is called *Europe*.

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# Mutual recognition of diplomas of occupational qualification: A utopia?

*Paola Gaiotti de Biase*

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We are not concerned here with a utopia in the historical sense of the term, understood as an effort to escape from reality or to introduce order into chaos. The mutual recognition of diplomas of occupational qualification is in fact already mentioned within the overall context of obligations and regulations laid down in the Treaty of Rome establishing the European Economic Community. The interpretation which I propose as the first part of this analysis is that this mutual recognition of diplomas of occupational qualification awarded to wage, and salary-earning workers is covered by the Treaty just as is the mutual recognition of diplomas, certificates, and other evidence of formal qualification awarded to self-employed persons. Title III of the Treaty guarantees the free movement of persons, services, and capital, as is well known. Chapter 1 of this Title deals with workers and Chapter 2 deals with the right of establishment, whereby the terms governing the abolition in progressive stages of restrictions so as to ensure the free movement of workers differ technically from terms of the same nature laid down for persons intending to take up activities as self-employed persons.

In Chapter 1 of Title III dealing with workers, the accent rests above all on the abolition of administrative and legislative restrictions and the guarantee of both direct remuneration and indirect compensation (benefits). This understandable line of emphasis devolves from the composition of the labour force of the late 1950s character-

ized by a high percentage of non-specialized jobs filled by geographically mobile labour and some few specialized jobs and managerial posts filled by persons less interested in moving from one country to another. In a certain sense it can be said that the image of a wage or salary-earning labour force as envisaged in the Treaty is an image which presupposes a homogenous, interchangeable, compact economic reality in which the labour market is not fragmented and in which quantitative data tend to obscure qualitative differences, an image typical for the years of economic expansion, which the latter came to an end with the advent of the segmentation of the labour market characterized by a qualitative misbalance between manpower demand and manpower supply.

Nevertheless the Treaty does not fail to take the dynamic phenomena of change into account. Article 118 of Title III assigns to the Commission the task of promoting close cooperation between the Member States in the social field, particularly in matters relating, among others, to vocational training. Article 128 calls upon the Council, acting on a proposal from the Commission, to lay down principles for 'implementing a common vocational training policy capable of contributing to the harmonious development of both the national economies and the common market'. By virtue of the inclusion of Article 128 in Chapter 2 on the European Social Fund, the Fund being dealt with in Articles 123 to 127, this policy acquires an importance much greater than that also attached to series of Community

actions in this field such as pilot projects and cofinancing at Community level.

We have not yet dealt specifically with the mutual recognition of diplomas. The only reference hereto in the Treaty is found in Title III, Chapter 2, Article 57. This article states that the Council shall, 'acting unanimously during the first stage and by qualified majority thereafter, issue directives for the mutual recognition of diplomas, certificates, and other evidence of formal qualifications'.

This forthright text, which no doubt underestimated the difficulties stemming from diverse national traditions and from resistance exerted by professional organizations, constitutes paragraph 1 of Article 57. Paragraph 2 deals with two categories of self-employed persons, namely, those active in the field of credit and banking and those exercising medical professions. The medical and allied professions constitute a sector in which public intervention is more prevalent. With regard to these professions, as paragraph 3 of Article 57 states, 'the progressive abolition of restrictions shall be dependent upon coordination of the conditions to their exercise in the various Member States'.

What is the purpose of this long and perhaps apparent digression? The purpose has been to point out that the mutual recognition of diplomas of formal qualification is dealt with in the Treaty where the text is concerned with the activities of self-employed persons not because these persons alone come into consideration but



It is evident that behind this convention-based recognition process a good deal of legal fiction would knowingly have to be accepted. But is it not so that a certain amount of legal fiction is inherent in all national systems? Are they always the same products which the vocational schools, the training firms, the schools of the formal education system, the polytechnics, and the universities turn out? The market, also the national labour market, draws justification from diversity, attributing to this or that training, first high distinction and then mediocrity or vice versa, as the case may be. A Community labour market would have acted in the same manner, compelling the national authorities to make the necessary adjustments.

Certainly no one would ignore the fact that by virtue of its exposed position the labour market plays a role in qualification verification which involves risks and both human and social costs of considerable dimension. It reminds me of the old method of teaching babies to swim. Also my grandmother believed in tossing babies in the water: either they swam or they drowned. Usually they swam. In any event at least one process would thus get under way: backward training content would have to be updated and a reform of the training system at Community level would be launched, perhaps moving forward on the wrong foot but at least moving.

The second approach, a more rigorous and responsible one, would be that of thoroughly analysing the contents of existing qualifications against the background of ongoing technological and scientific innovation. This work would go forward at a prescribed speed and cover the entire area of titles confirming ability to exercise a specific trade or profession, thereby drawing no distinction between formal and informal systems, between academic titles and vocational qualifications. Some work has already been done in this field, as Cedefop, busy for some time in this field, well knows. However, the work undertaken appears to be too narrowly aimed at verifying *a posteriori* elements of homogeneity in curricula and launching specific action of adjustment. This is bound to be tiresome and lengthily because all existing variables are involved, originally six, then nine, now ten, and hopefully soon twelve.

This second approach, a serious and rigorous one, cannot consist simply of an empirical exercise of adjustment involving all existing systems. On the contrary, it presup-

because here mutual recognition involves complex content which must be specifically defined.

In the chapter on the free movement of workers, on the other hand, no mention is made of the mutual recognition of occupational qualifications, it being considered a matter forming a constituent part of the body of measures aimed at ensuring the free movement of workers and of progressively abolishing qualifying periods hindering such movement. The common vocational training policy, serving to raise the average level of qualifications for workers, plays not a static but rather a dynamic role in moving towards this objective.

To recapitulate, inclusion of the call for the mutual recognition of diplomas and other titles of formal qualification in the chapter on the right of establishment in no way limits its reference exclusively to self-employed persons but simply identifies a much more complex procedure of recognition, giving the highly formalized nature of the titles involved. Paragraph 3 of Article 57, which stipulates a special procedure for abolishing restrictions hindering the free movement of self-employed persons in the medical and allied professions, has in fact rendered the process of mutual recognition of titles easier in these than in other professions. It is thus evident that we have here a

procedure of Treaty application which paradoxically completely reverses Treaty provisions. Instead of a relatively simple procedure as initially intended, we are confronted with a complex procedure, and yet only or practically only where such complexity is given special attention in the Treaty have positive results been achieved. This explains why I feel that the question of the mutual recognition of vocational training qualifications must not be politically overshadowed by that of the mutual recognition of diplomas of formal qualification, even though admittedly extremely diversified technical aspects are involved in this latter case.

The fact is that with regard to the mutual recognition of academic titles, certificates, diplomas, and occupational qualifications two approaches were from the very start open, each with its own advantages and disadvantages. What could not and should not be done but instead was done was to select neither approach, even though selection was essential to the central task of establishing a common market of manpower supply and demand.

The first approach which could have been and still can be selected is the simple and rapid one of convention-based recognition involving assumed equivalency of large categories of diplomas and other titles of qualification.

poses and indeed demands a common educational and vocational training policy conceived in dynamic terms and involving the constant redefinition of objectives and of Community-wide minimum curriculum content within the context of social change and the transformation of the European production system.

To believe that it is possible to achieve a mutual recognition of titles and qualifications which is not simply convention-based legal recognition without having made some progress towards, perhaps not integration but at least convergence and systematic interpenetration of training policies, in other words, moving towards a redesign at Community level of training systems, would be tantamount to doing precisely nothing. Indeed nothing has been done during the 25 years which separate us from the Treaty of Rome establishing the European Economic Community.

Let us assume that the Treaty intended to achieve three things in particular: the creation of a common market also for labour, one which functions across national borders; the expansion of this labour market on the basis of economic growth and steady, balanced employment; and the guarantee that all workers will be able to work within this broad economic and social area under conditions ensuring personal security, professional dignity, and the existence of contractual agreements carrying more force than would be the case at national labour market level.

The lesson of the past 25 years which we have learned is that very clearly these objectives towards which we have moved cannot be fully achieved simply by eliminating border barriers and administrative restrictions and harmonizing labour legislation. The Community labour market is more segmented than ever. The very concept of

marginal labour consisting primarily of migrant workers and their families renders apparent an otherwise hidden reticulum of barriers spreading throughout the entire Community. Even though the discussion on the relationship between training, employment, and development continues unabated, the problem of how and with what qualifications a worker enters the labour market remains from a macroeconomic viewpoint (a provisional series of basic political hypotheses in this field is now in preparation, as I indicated in a report on Community educational policy recently approved by the European Parliament) the key not only to geographical mobility but also to mobility between productions and vertical mobility.

In my opinion it is above all the market segments which speak clearly of the impossibility of arriving without the help of a common labour policy at manpower mobil-



*Title III of the Treaty guarantees the free movement of persons . . . as is well known.*

ity which is not exclusively geographical in nature and hence conducive to a condition of marginality.

The link between basic education and vocational training is becoming increasingly closer. When we speak of this link, however, we are thinking not merely of the number of compulsory school years required before entering training but likewise of the efficiency, content, and objectives of vocational training itself. Workers must pay dearly for deficiencies in their basic education, for the fact that basic education content is not clearly specified. In many instances the difficulties which migrants have in learning a second language can be traced to the fact that they have not even learned their mother tongue properly. Educational programmes for young people must obviously count among their objectives the placing of greater emphasis on basic abilities, including literacy and numeracy. The rates of illiteracy in Europe, certainly high even if the level is disputable, at a time in history when all citizens should be initiated into the intricacies of informatics and the automatic processing of information pushes even the problem of mobility into the background. Without a redefinition of basic education within a concerted action guaranteeing such instruction, the mutual recognition of formal qualifications cannot be pursued under the umbrella of legal convention without drastically departing from reality.

A further problem complex lies in the changes which all training systems and in particular vocational training systems continue to experience. Problems in connection with technological innovations, even severer problems resulting from the economic recession, and difficulty in finding employment of any kind all combine to make it necessary to place emphasis in training on

the ability to adapt rather than in mastery of skills for a specific occupation.

To conclude, there are those who feel that a dramatic alternative is involved in these two approaches and that one must choose either the first or the second approach.

In point of fact, however, the ability to adapt and to transplant to a different soil vocational experience gained is not schooled in a vacuum, and the prescribed stream of training leading to a specific occupation remains the specific site of such training, one rendered diverse and more flexible. A person who has learned one thing well is much better equipped to learn something new, provided this learning is paired with understanding. For some time now and indeed even before the economic recession set in titles giving evidence of formal qualifications were taken into consideration on the labour market not so much for the purpose of matching but rather in awareness that holders of such qualifications were capable of self-improvement.

In a certain sense it can be said that before tackling the problem of mutual recognition of a qualification a preliminary choice must be made in joint action regarding the concept of the qualification itself and its broadness of application from the point of view of effective utilization. This does not imply that the qualification must become less specific, even though we all know that such specificity varies from economic sector to economic sector, from the primary to the secondary and on to the tertiary one. What is implied is that professionalism at all levels now presupposes flexibility and the ability to adapt within a specific sector.

This in turn serves to empty of all meaning many variants such as those which divide the organization of vocational training into formal and informal systems and those which splinter the definitions of various

qualifications, from building to mechanical engineering and on to farm work. Two preconditions must in fact be met, that of improving the quality of basic education and reaching agreement on specific, guaranteed, fixed curricular objectives, primarily linguistic communication, numeracy, and civics, and that of insuring that all career profiles, whatever their duration, meet the prerequisites of flexibility, adaptability, and a capacity for self-improvement, if the mutual recognition of titles of formal qualifications is to be achieved in strict, logical form.

On the basis of these preconditions, or in other words, by means of a Community educational policy based not on centralization but rather on convergence and cooperation and on a common vocational training policy an effort can be made to move forward towards convention-based recognition of qualifications, limiting the effort perhaps to minimum adjustments. If these two preconditions can be met (and perhaps even if they cannot), it is possible and indeed now necessary to provide a 'European' definition for each newly-emerging qualification, above all for those in new tertiary occupations and in the field of innovative technology. Only when these preconditions are met will it be possible to achieve the obvious objectives of the Treaty which I have mentioned above, objectives which still evade us because we have feared to proceed in the direction of integration.

It may be that integration itself is the real utopia and that in order to turn this utopia into reality there is no other answer than again to resort to the political battle wisely and logically planned and involving all social groups, all political parties, and all parliamentary groups: the grand battle for the reform of the institutions and the subordinate technical and parliamentary combats.

# Levels of vocational training in Europe

Is a process of approximation ongoing?

**Gabriel Fragnière**

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For over ten years now I have been following at the European Community Institute for University Studies two in-depth research studies on vocational training problems which have as their objective the mutual recognition of diplomas and qualifications and the approximation of training levels within the EC. The one study is concerned with the training of engineers and the directive aimed at actualizing for this profession Article 57 of the Treaty of Rome, whereas the other study takes the form of a systematic approach to the problem of the approximation of vocational training levels, thus constituting a first step towards a Community definition of the structure of levels of vocational training.

Calling to mind the most recent works produced by experts in this same field, I have the impression that Europe has made no progress and that the Community is still being plagued by the same problems and the same bottlenecks. Divergences in the education systems and their structures, differences in the duration of schooling for young apprentices and pupils, and the wide gap between curriculum and programme concepts constitute obstacles which still exist and which we continue to grapple with. All formal approaches to the problem appear to be doomed to failure, now as before.

## A new approach

There are nevertheless certainly some fresh ideas concerning ways of thought and a general approach to the problem. Emphasis is now being placed on the need to take as

the point of departure practical occupational requirements, those which derive from actual work experience, rather than the formal definition of qualifications acquired during training, and this is indeed the clearest proof of a new approach. What counts is that which the skilled worker or employee or the high-level professional is able to do, what counts is his career profile and not that which he has learned, his so-called 'scholastic' profile of training.

This attention directed to occupational requirements does not result exclusively from a desire to find a more simple way of approach to the approximation of vocational training levels in Europe but is likewise motivated by a general awareness of the frequently severe misbalance between certain streams of training and the occupational activities which they are presumably preparing for. If the question of training is raised in confrontation with the rapid change in technical skills required in the working world, then it is not training but rather the job tasks themselves which serve to identify common denominators within the Community. The skills required to operate and repair a jet engine are dictated by the engine itself and not by the training content. The point of focus must be the engine. Since there are no national systems of jet engine function, there is practically no fundamental difference between the occupational qualifications in the various Member States held by workers involved in the operation and maintenance of these engines.

It would nevertheless be naive to believe that things are this simple. Since everybody

knows this, we can pass on to a formalization or common description of the required skills, a task for which we need definitions. It is here that the language of the experts gets entangled, and once again we have the impression of being sent back to square one.

The main problem thus remains the formal definition of occupational qualifications, and it is on this problem that the experts must focus their attention. Apart from this I believe quite firmly that for various reasons there is such a thing as spontaneous approximation.

## The impact of technological development

The first reason has been briefly illustrated by the example of the jet engine. One obligation common to all our vocational training systems is that of adapting to the rapid technological advance typifying our epoch. I do not feel that it is necessary to dwell on this point, which is surely clear to all of us. What I do wish to stress is that this technological advance requires that not only the content and level of training in certain occupations change but likewise the occupations themselves undergo change. New types of occupational activities are brought into existence with the development of new techniques of production. As examples I might mention robotics, telecommunications, and transport. These activities are essentially non-national in nature; they root in hardware and production procedures common throughout the

entire world. Hence any decisions taken by national education authorities aimed at formalizing training in these sectors must perforce respond to the same training requirements, the same indispensable theoretical knowledge and skills know-how. It is precisely this situation which is leading to a gradual, generalized rise in levels of training.

The second reason, one linked to the first but quite different in nature, is the steady increase in the number of networks of production, distribution, and services maintained by multinational concerns. The development of these networks is flanked by a package of complementary training and retraining programmes which tend to render the skills and qualifications of the workers in various countries comparable and interchangeable at least at certain levels and for certain jobs in such manner that the construction and quality of the products are

essentially uniform throughout the entire body of networks.

Within the context of the European Community the impact of this process is indirectly twofolded by the need to achieve, at least in certain sectors, the standardization of technical requirements, a measure prerequisite to the free movement of goods and the harmonization of subsidization and productivity levels in the interest of not distorting competition.

It is important to stress at this point that the impact of economic integration on the approximation of vocational training levels is indirect and that its influence is primarily dependent on the degree of ability of the training systems to respond rapidly to the changing requirements of working life. This ability is in turn conditioned by two principal factors. The first relates to the structure of the systems and the organization of the

decision-making process within the systems. The closer the organs competent for vocational training reform decisions are sited to the occupational milieu themselves, the more rapidly will these organs initiate the necessary reform measures. Secondly, the quantitative importance in various countries of occupations in economic sectors undergoing change will play a determinant role in this entire adaptation process.

A third reason justifying my belief in a spontaneous, gradual approximation of vocational training systems is the development in the field of education in general and the need, now being increasingly recognized, to provide polyvalent training. It has become quite commonplace to say that a worker, whatever his level of qualification, will change jobs and even occupations several times during working life. It is no longer even possible to imagine that the



*This technological advance requires that not only the content and level of training in certain occupations change but likewise the occupations themselves undergo change.*

qualifications required for an entire lifetime can be acquired during an initial period of vocational training or apprenticeship. All training systems in industrialized countries must respond to this challenge. They are all moving inevitably towards a radical reform which will affect them even more deeply than did the reforms launched in haste in the 1960s. It is important to remember that all educational reforms implemented in European countries since the last world war have led in each country to the gradual upgrading of educational levels. It can be said without taking recourse to the nostalgia of elitism that the general level of education in our countries today is far superior to that which prevailed 40 years ago (and this is a very short period in the evolution of a society). Parallel to this general rise in the level of education, all European vocational training systems must now redesign training on the basis of polyvalence, thus moving inevitably towards level upgrading in each stream of training. The social demand for education and policies for satisfying this demand will thus lead within Europe to an upward tendency in training levels. The reforms in Belgium and in the Federal Republic of Germany implemented in the early 1970s (ingénieur-technicien and Ingenieur-graduiertes) illustrate this trend, one affecting all vocational training systems.

### **Impact of the crisis**

Certainly budget constraints which characterize the economic crisis we are now passing through and which deeply affect training programmes and also the Malthusian reactions of certain professions appear to counteract this trend. However, this is easily explained.

In times of economic crisis budget constraints automatically impact on those public sectors which react less forcibly and threaten less directly the social order. It is therefore no longer felt that these sectors constitute an investment sector which can bring relief in the short term. Schools and universities are today no longer centres of revolt such as was experienced in the 1960s,

and the obsession with the problem of worldwide technological competition has been relegated to the past by the interest now being taken in basic research, above all in the social sciences. Educational policies are thus no longer in the vanguard of public interest. Improvement in the employment situation appears to be more urgent than the output of graduates who run the risk of not finding a job upon completion of their studies. The attitude of certain professions is explained by the threat to their privileges and their social status which they fear. This is an important factor in any comprehension of the problems of a profession, one which often proves an obstacle in the search for acceptable formulas between European countries aimed at approximating the systems of vocational training and the mutual recognition of diplomas. The social status of a profession and the scholastic or academic level involved are not correlative. A number of values, roles, relations, and images are not necessarily reflected in the content and level of training undergone. To be an engineer in Italy or in the United Kingdom implies being part of a social group which in each of these two countries has a totally different role to play and enjoys a totally different social image, whereby such differences have nothing whatever to do with the level of training. All efforts aimed at achieving the approximation of levels and systems of training will not change the manner in which in various countries the profession of engineer is differently comprehended. It is this difference which nourishes the policies of the professional associations and explains at times their Malthusian bias. A person is more inclined to change his programme of study than his life-style. It is therefore important to enlighten the professions and to convince them that the one is not necessarily linked to the other.

### **Approximation and diversity**

A further factor inevitably playing a role in the spontaneous approximation of training systems is the rapid increase in the number of studies and comparative analyses on the

systems themselves. Not only at the instigation of specialized international organizations such as Unesco, OECD, and the Council of Europe, not to mention the work undertaken by the European Community in an effort to implement relevant provisions of the Treaty of Rome, but likewise by virtue of a growing desire to gain a better understanding of neighbouring systems, the recent decades have experienced a rising flood of studies on training systems. It has now become common practice for one country, once a project aimed at the reform or development of specified streams of training has been launched in another country, to initiate an enquiry on experience gained by that other country in order to itself find new avenues of approach. These developments and these ongoing exchanges of information and documentation, coupled with the unfolding of a gradually less sovereign attitude in realization that solutions found by another country can have value, cannot fail to gradually bring about approximation. In the long run the work of the European organizations will not have been in vain. Certainly this process will take time, but an observer who has been in charge of monitoring it over a good decade, as in my case, is obliged to substantiate real impact.

The final reason for which I believe that the approximation of training systems in Europe is gradually becoming a reality is realization on the part of many persons in positions of responsibility that approximation is neither harmonization nor uniformity. This would be not only impossible but also useless. It would bring to an end that European diversity which above all implies richness, implies the ability to obtain by different means the same results. It is after all results which count. There is certainly no valid reason for wanting to eliminate the differences and discredit the creativity of those who have developed the various ways of approach. In linking the concepts 'approximation' and 'diversity' in connection with the European training systems, we have everything to gain and nothing to lose.



# Vocational training systems in the European Community:

Who or what stands in the way of approximation?

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The highly industrialized Member States in the EC (exceptions: Ireland, Greece, later on Spain and Portugal) are structurally very similar and can look back on a common tradition of historical, cultural, scientific, and technical levels. Nevertheless there are a number of country-specific controversies which appear to be so serious that they cannot be led to a solution. One of these is the cardinal problem of the concept of vocational training, i.e., the relationship between education and training and also teaching content, teaching methods, and titles of qualification. In most of the Member States it has now been realized that at all school levels there is urgent need to integrate instruction relating to vocational preparation and familiarization with working life into the curricula in varying form and with varying emphasis (from institutionalized work science and polytechnic subjects, prevocational training, and in-firm practice to pertinent theoretical subjects such as language (mother tongue likewise), history, geography, and civics). Of eminent importance for the training of coming generations is, in addition to cognizance of respective national traditions, knowledge of the current state of development of the national economy. One could argue that the status of the EC Member States as highly industrialized nations automatically implies a high degree of uniformity as regards vocational training,<sup>1</sup> the application everywhere of the same or similar techniques. This is not the

case, however. Considerable differences exist, ranging from occupational field-specific vocational training (basic, general, specialized) on the one hand to narrower, occupational-related, school-based training on the other (see below). Some Member States produce universal workers, others produce workers specialized in a certain occupation. Correspondingly the duration of training varies, specific interests become apparent, a technologically highly sophisticated industry in constant transition opens its doors to semi-skilled workers eager to learn (in-service training for migrant workers), handicrafts and administration direct their attention in awareness of the growing complexity of techniques and administrative rules and regulations and provisions to the recruitment of workers who have a longer period of higher-quality training behind them, etc.

## Characteristic aspects of vocational training in EC Member States

The question of attainment of occupational qualification experiences, an answer which varies as to both form and content. Training takes place at one or two learning sites, in the firm and/or in the (vocational) school. Decision-determinant is the placement of bias on either manual or intellectual skills.

Only in the form of skeleton legislation can the State interfere. The industrial, commercial, and handicraft sectors have all established chambers and trade associations (in the Federal Republic of Germany under public law) for the purpose of coordinating action on the basis of self-discipline and cooperation. Trade unions participate in this coordinated action as representatives of labour, the social partners thus becoming obligated to cooperate with each other.

Characteristic for vocational training in EC Member States are two principal systems:

■ apprenticeship combining practical training within the firm with theoretical instruction provided by the school or training centre;

■ full-time vocational training within the general school system, combined with in-firm practice.

● The first training system prevalent in Germany, Denmark, the United Kingdom, and Ireland, takes place primarily within the firm, paralleled generally by four hours a week (in Germany eight to twelve hours a week) of theoretical instruction, courses running for about three years.

● The second training system prevalent in Belgium, France, Italy, and the Netherlands, takes place primarily in the full-time vocational school.

Only in Germany is schooling of some kind compulsory up to the age of 18. In the

Netherlands young people must undergo schooling for one year after completion of regular schooling. In France, Italy, Luxembourg, and the United Kingdom obligation to attend vocational school is anchored in the indenture of apprenticeship. The various training models also differ with regard to the percentage distribution of theory and practice. In most Member States greater worker mobility on the labour market is now being attributed to more emphasis being placed on theory. The trend in basic vocational training is therefore to provide more subject matter of general education content in the curriculum.

In contrast to other Member States, Germany has an economic system which can exert only little influence on vocational school curricula and on the other hand a body of vocational training teachers who can exert only little influence on apprentice training content, including final apprenticeship examinations. The reason for this situation is that the vocational school is from the legislative and organizational viewpoint completely distinct from the apprenticeship system and the apprenticeship system is based exclusively on a contract under private law between two parties. There are, however, a number of legal regulations governing training, for example the Vocational Training and Training Place Promotion Act (1969, 1976), the 1970 Action Programme of the German Federal Government (calling for more theory, closer interlocking of school and firm, training leave, improved opportunity to enter streams of secondary schooling, and increased use of the block system), and the annual official vocational training report. With regard to the German dual system of vocational training in only roughly 150 out of a total of 400 apprentice occupations within 13 occupational fields has it been possible to date to achieve country-wide adoption of mutually coordinated vocational school curricula and vocational training codes. Comparability of vocational training qualifications at Community level is not yet feasible in view of existing socio-economic differences, varying production methods and procedures, and divergencies in the quality and content of training. Indeed, only for three occupations have internationally equivalent training profiles been finalized. The above and other differences between vocational training systems derive of course from the divergent course which development, impregnated with its respective ideological bias, has taken in each Member State. However, the growing interdependence of

the national economies, as called for in Article 2 and Article 3 of the Treaty of Rome establishing the European Economic Community, and the resultantly necessary mobility of the labour force has made the achievement of the approximation of training profiles an absolute must. Approximation is not harmonization. Efforts in the direction of harmonization are no longer an objective of Community education policy.<sup>2</sup> In the action programme in the field of vocational training of 1965 the term 'adaptation' was used; in the action programme in the field of social policy of 1973 (see below) the term 'compatibility' was used; and since the action programme in the field of education of 1976 the term 'correspondence' has been used. Here comparative research must come into play. The first step is to analyse the current situation<sup>3</sup> with regard to socio-economic and historically determined education and training conditions at Member State level. The next step is to examine international possibilities on a comparative basis in consultation with the Treaty of Rome, compile desiderata, and identify supranational bases of negotiation. The mistake must not be made in pursuing integrative efforts in the field of vocational training to ignore the political positions of the various EC Member States in the matter of the unification of Europe. The fact that countries such as France, Denmark, Greece, and the United Kingdom would in all probability accept at the most a confederation of western European nations, whereas countries such as Germany, Italy, and the Benelux countries would prefer to see unification assume a federative form, leads in turn to differences in the readiness to achieve more or less close cooperation in the field of vocational training, a field which by nature belongs to the most carefully protected and prized of all national possessions. Likewise to be taken into consideration are existing bilateral and multilateral agreements. To the extent that joint actions are envisaged, the Treaty of Rome must be consulted first (primarily because of the legalistic attitude which some countries have towards treaties and in particular towards passages therein which displease them).

### **Integrative activities of the EC in the field of vocational training**

Vocational training in accordance with the Treaty of Rome<sup>4</sup> must be approached within the framework of the EC social and

employment policies and likewise in connection with problems involved in the free movement of workers primarily from the aspect of the exercise of an economic activity, Articles 118 and 128 of the Treaty of Rome deal with vocational training. They fall under Title III, Social Policy, of the Treaty. Chapter 1 of Title III deals with social provisions, Chapter 2 with the European Social Fund. Vocational training 'shall serve to promote improved working conditions and an improved standard of living for workers' (Article 117). Article 118 calls for close cooperation between Member States in the field of basic and advanced vocational training. In Article 128 it is stated that 'the Council shall, acting on a proposal from the Commission and after consulting the Economic and Social Committee, lay down general principles for implementing a common vocational training policy capable of contributing to the harmonious development both of the national economies and of the common market'. For the sake of completeness Article 42 of the Treaty calling for 'an effective coordination of efforts in the spheres of vocational training . . .' and Article 9 of the Treaty establishing the European Atomic Energy Community calling for the setting up of 'schools for the training of specialists . . .' should be mentioned.

The EC Commission launched very shortly afterwards a series of studies on vocational training, and in the 1960s the problem received unusually extensive treatment. Thereafter fewer studies appeared. The early studies were conducted within a climate favourable to the concept of integration. They provide, however, no adequate methodological basis for subsequent comparison but are instead limited in general to a (statistical) diagnosis of the then current situation and to phenomenological, monographic description, whereas what is urgently needed now are scientifically conducted societal and structure-specific analyses which are compatible.<sup>5</sup>

With its decision on the establishment of general principles for the implementation of a common vocational training policy of 2 April 1963, the Council began its work early on, and in the same year the Commission set up an Advisory Committee on Vocational Training. (Prior to this the Council of Europe, to which at that time six Member States belonged, guaranteed in Article 10 of the European Social Charter the right to vocational training.) In the ten general principles contained in the Council's decision of 2 April 1963 everything is

stated in essence which later documents up to the present have dealt with in detail: guarantee of the right to freely enter an occupation and select training facilities; close cooperation among the EC Member States; guarantee of the right to appropriate vocational training facilities; the taking into account of technological, social, and economic development; promotion of continuing education and training; coordinated descriptions of basic requirements at the various levels of training, comparability of final examinations, and mutual recognition of diplomas; exchange of information, training documentation, and teaching materials; provision of international study seminars and field visits; improved teacher training; provision of flanking vocational guidance services; etc. The second general principle is of fundamental importance to the identification of vocational training objectives. Of special interest in Section (c) is the fact that personal growth and development of the personality is given priority over technical progress, modern production methods, and social and economic development. Likewise of fundamental importance is the call in Section (d) for promotion of mental and moral development, civic education, and the physical development of young people in particular. However, there is as yet no international consensus on the concept of civic education (understood in the emancipatory, affirmative sense of the term), in particular as regards questions of co-determination at labour and management level. In contrast to the situation in Germany and the United Kingdom, in other EC Member States the entrepreneur relationship prevails as regards training, in-firm training policy being primarily subordinated to the commercial interests of the firm. Only in Germany is civic education oriented towards the interests of the worker recognized as an obligatory subject in the vocational schools. As a matter of fact, the extent to which the general principles are legally binding is controversial, since neither Germany nor France has as yet formally accepted them. The forward-looking decision of the Council of 1963 received detailed specification in the action programme in the field of a common vocational training policy in agriculture of 5 May 1965.<sup>6</sup> Several years then followed before the European Community again turned its attention to vocational training policy matters. On 26 August 1971 the Council adopted the general guidelines for the development of a common action programme in the field of vocational training in which the action pro-



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gramme of 1965 found its legitimization. In a document of 25 October 1972 on initial measures for the implementation of a common vocational training policy the Commission reported on the planned projects: development of the national policies and the national systems.<sup>7</sup>

The Janne report on proposals for a Community education policy (1973) contains a number of interesting comments. Janne places emphasis on polyvalent training at various levels in the conviction that this can lead to lifelong occupational mobility. He calls attention above all to the dialectic tension between equality of opportunity in the field of education and training and equality of opportunity in working life.<sup>8</sup>

In this same year (1973), ten years after the appearance of the general principles, Ralf Dahrendorf, at that time German Member of the Commission, submitted a working programme on research, science, and education which he had elaborated on the basis of available working documents. This programme activated discussion on a common policy in the field of education. In the same year a directorate-general for research, science, and education was established (DG XII; competent today as DG V, Employment, Social Affairs, and Education). Among the tasks falling to the European Community the coordination of vocational training was stressed by Dahrendorf. 'In the light of new trends in the formal school system (combining of theory and practice, block instruction, lifelong learning) on the one hand and industrial policy aimed at continual structural adaptation on the other, this field is becoming increasingly important. The coordination and harmoni-

zation (in part) of vocational training constitutes a flanking policy and is hence of importance for other fields of Community activity as well.'<sup>9</sup>

The vocational training programme received further flanking impetus from a document entitled: 'Guidelines for an action programme in the field of social policy' submitted to the Council by the Commission on 19 April 1973, in Section 26 of which resources for the retraining of adults and for the continuing training of unemployed school-leavers were called for. Also called for (similarly to the Dahrendorf programme) was the 'establishment of a European vocational training centre serving the development of research and information exchange, the approximation of vocational training standards, and the development of training programmes'.<sup>10</sup>

The Resolution of the Council and of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 13 December 1976 concerning measures to be taken to improve the preparation of young people for work and to facilitate their transition from education to working life has annexed a report of the Education Committee which contains comments of considerable interest on relevant measures in the field of vocational training.<sup>11</sup> These comments, supplemented by the Communication from the Commission to the Council on youth employment<sup>12</sup> of 17 October 1977, lead back to the 1976 action programme in the field of education policy, in Chapter IV of which 22 action programme-specific measures are given top priority. In a Communication of the Commission to the Council of 3 October 1978 an urgent problem within the framework of the

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action programme in the field of education policy is given emphasis, namely, 'equality of opportunity for girls in general education and vocational training (secondary level)'.<sup>13</sup> In a Council Resolution of 18 December 1979 on linked work and training for young persons a model calling for alternating periods of training and employment is recommended. The target group consists of young school-leavers with poor school-leaving certificates who take up jobs (as helpers) which offer no training opportunity. By means of such alternating periods they are to be prepared for an apprenticeship on a contractual basis.

Of prime importance for the unification of Europe is contact with other workers at the workplace. The Council recognized this need at an early stage and in accordance with Article 50 of the Treaty of Rome (Member States shall, within the framework of a joint programme, encourage the exchange of young workers within the Community') established on 8 May 1964 the first joint programme aimed at encouraging the exchange of young workers within the Community. Under this programme young men and women between the ages of 18 and 30 could undergo an in-firm practice in another Member State lasting from six to eighteen months. The second practice programme (1979) reduced the training period from four to eight months respectively three weeks to three months. In 1982 a total of over 1 000 young people participated in the programme. The Council and the Ministers of Education of the EC Member States have met seven times since 1971. At their most recent meeting in Brussels on 24 May 1982 they recommended pilot schemes which focus on: the use of out-of-school environment as a learning resource; involvement of adults in activities taking place within the school; coordinated provision of information and guidance for young people; development of practical cooperation between participating bodies and institutions; development of flexible certification systems and credit units; and development of continuing training and personnel policies for teaching staff.<sup>14</sup> In view of the questionable legal nature of these recommendations<sup>15</sup> it is difficult to say anything definite concerning their application in the individual Member States. Disputes may be taken to the European Court of Justice for clarification.

The fact must not be overlooked that the education and training system in the EC Member States has in the past two decades been caught up and continues to be caught

up in a reform process impelled by changed framework conditions in the social field (more equality of opportunity, trend toward higher occupational qualification status, increased democratization, etc.). All in all (with the exception of the internationally recognized medical and paramedical professions), EC decisions as regards vocational training qualifications take on (have taken on) the character of postulations only. Alongside semantic confusion as to definition of terms and the formulation of general statements it is strikingly evident that ever since the general principles of 1963 all subsequent documents have simply repeated themselves again and again, and because the Ministers of Education must arrive at a consensus with regard to even the smallest item of concern, no new solutions have been forthcoming, not to mention any solution implementation. On 11 March 1982 the European Parliament adopted a 28-point resolution 'on a programme in the field of education' in which vocational training is also dealt with. At its meeting in Brussels on 29–30 March 1982 the Council dealt with the problem of employment and in its communication<sup>16</sup> likewise devoted detailed attention to the vocational training of young people.

## Conclusion and desiderata

There is in all Member States of the European Community consensus as regards the high importance of the jointly developed improvement and intensification of vocational training in its role as part and parcel of education and social policy at national and international level. And yet neither the Ministers of Education nor the EC Commission have at their disposal a finalized common vocational training concept. It is therefore urgent that the vocational training systems of the various Member States be studied on the basis of comparative analysis (as regards types of training systems and their degree of efficiency at education and social policy level, vocational school curricula, possibilities of access to training, scales of value, social and economic structures, etc.). Complete harmonization of all systems is considered to be neither feasible nor desirable. Nevertheless quite a good deal has been achieved,<sup>17</sup> namely, recognition in principle of polyvalent training; training and continuing training of trainers; development of European job descriptions; stronger encouragement and support for career guidance services; inclusion of

migrant workers of the first and second generations in training and retraining measures; increased public awareness of the need for occupational qualification; improved curricular balance between vocational training theory and practice. A number of desiderata remain to be mentioned, namely, elaboration for western Europe of a vocational training concept (minimum requirements) together with strategies for its implementation at political level (with the help of the European Parliament); universal demand for academically trained vocational teachers; development and promotion of adult vocational training (educational leave, etc.); establishment of continuing training facilities for retirees; improved integration of general education and vocational training; establishment within the competency of the EC Ministers of Education of offices of international cooperation; legal delimitation of the competencies of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council insofar as such competencies involve financial decisions (expenditures); and finally the mutual recognition of periods of vocational training and of training certificates.

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Occupational qualifications:

# a scenario for the future

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During the early years of the 1960s, when the institutions of the European Communities were coming into existence, the countries of Europe were marked by strong differences:

- in terms of economic structure, economic systems already highly industrialized contrasting with countries with a still largely agricultural economy;
- in terms of production systems, systems dominated by large-scale manufacture contrasting with countries characterized by the overriding presence of small and medium industries and craft enterprises;
- in terms of revenue, the variation ratio spreading from 1 to 2;
- in terms of consumption structure, systems characterized by the mass exchange of standardized goods and services contrasting with countries still maintaining mixed models combining home production and market consumption;
- in terms of life-styles, systems of urban behavioural patterns (time schedules, city rhythms, exchanges, business) contrasting with countries retaining traditional conviviality.

The tremendous, undisputed progress which nevertheless characterized Europe up to the mid-1970s has contributed considerably to the unification of western Europe of today. In the course of economic expansion, itself both the instrument and the consequence of such unification, the two principles of a common European policy, namely, the free circulation of goods and the free movement of persons, had considerable impact.

Within this general process of unification an important social system, that of vocatio-

nal training, was in a sense allowed to limp behind. In fact, even in the early 1980s we must admit that each Member State is still operating its own well established, distinct vocational training system and that no significant efforts have to date been made to harmonize these various systems to the maximum degree possible. Thus it could happen that the much lauded freedom of movement of workers which came to function within western Europe with increasing effectiveness was nevertheless plagued by two major handicaps:

- firstly, only in periods of economic expansion during which there was a quantitative misbalance between manpower de-

mand and national manpower supply could the migrant workers from the Mediterranean countries find easy access to the labour markets of western Europe;

- secondly, at the lowest levels of vocational training the diversities of the national systems of occupational qualification rendered any freedom of movement difficult and to a certain extent even pointless.

## Neoprotectionism and the harmonization of qualifications

During the second half of the 1970s, as is well known, Europe slid into an economic



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*Technological innovations (informatics, office organization technologies, . . .), taken together, acquire a horizontal character in that . . . they all converge within individual economic activities.*



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*The expansion of the tertiary sector is easily predictable.*

depression, the end of which is not yet even in sight. It is therefore not by chance that precisely during these years two trends which are only apparently contradictory in nature emerged:

- the revival of neoprotectionism on the commodity markets;
- efforts to ensure the mutual recognition of vocational training qualifications.

Neoprotectionism in connection with the free movement of goods finds expression today in occult and sophisticated ways and is frequently camouflaged by noble explanations in defence of consumers. In times of fierce international competition technical standards tend to become increasingly complex, subtle, and diversified, and now in the 1980s they are in fact taking over the role played by trade barriers in the 1950s. Theoretically any product can now circulate freely on the markets of the Community, but in actual practice no piece of clothing, no food product, no agricultural product, no mechanical tool, and no electrical appli-

ance can pass customs which is not accompanied by a certificate confirming compliance with the technical standards of the country of destination. It therefore suffices to vary a technical standard only slightly in order to surreptitiously reintroduce a quota system. The brave efforts of Community offices to achieve Community standardization are from time to time vitiated, particularly during an economic crisis when there is above all need to protect national products.

For their part, workers are now being confronted with the problem of diverse vocational qualifications resulting from the extremely varied systems of vocational training now in operation in Europe. Using apparently identical terminology, each system describes dissimilar training content and skills. The result is that a mechanic, a dental technician, a chemical analyst, or a turner is indeed not everywhere the same 'beast' in fact as he is in name, and labour markets vary accordingly.

In times of rising unemployment such as Europe has been experiencing in recent years the trend towards protectionism resurfaces with increased vengeance, particularly on national markets. Not until Europe has emerged from the current crisis of economic slack and high unemployment will it be possible to speak of the harmonization within western Europe of vocational training qualifications, the diversity of which exceeds that of products subject to technical standard regulations, harmonization which goes beyond technical encouragement and statements of intent.

### **A scenario for the future**

Not all the scenarios now available foresee rapid recovery. But if we place our sights on the year 2000 and beyond and if we assume that no catastrophe will occur, we can anticipate quite realistically that by that time Europe will have passed through a long period of renewed economic growth, on the

basis of which we can reason that around the year 2000 the harmonization of occupational qualification titles will have become a reality.

What can we in fact expect?

Expressed with maximum simplification, there appear to be two main thrusts of development which will characterize the coming 20 years. On the one hand world demand for internal and external resources, institutional links, and accumulation is apparently destined to increase at a slower rate than was experienced between 1950 and 1970.\* On the other hand there is in the offing a period a rapid technological innovation (at least in the advanced countries) which will provoke a sudden increase in work productivity.

These two thrusts of development combined foreshadow a phase of contraction or containment of manpower demand. Technological innovations (informatics, office organization technologies, various forms of automation, substitution of materials and components, new techniques in the field of energy production, etc.), taken together, acquire a horizontal character in that although operating with varying impact, they all converge within individual economic activities.

The technologies in microelectronics in particular are pervasive in character, capable of introducing into all economic sectors rapidly and facility of information dissemination via systems of varying levels of complexity. There is therefore a potential of increase in productivity which covers all sectors and touches many functions and many professional groups.

By way of exemplification of the effects on employment levels and the impact that a resultant reorganization of the employment structure could have, we turn to take a look at what may happen to the employment structure in selected large economic sectors.

□ In the *agricultural sector* the new trends appear destined to have impact more in depth and perhaps more directly than in other sectors, with limited influence being exerted on the complex balance of employment. The determinants are various in nature, namely:

\* A recent econometrical forecast estimates that the average annual rate of growth of the world gross product will stand at 1.2 % for 1981-82 and at 3.3 % for 1982-87 as compared with a rate of 5.5 % for 1960-73 and 4.3 % for 1975-80 (Wharton, Econometric Forecasting Associates).

- technological innovations (new food technologies, introduction of informatics in installations, expansion of research activity, etc.);

- organizational innovations, above all as expressed in tendencies towards the integration of installations, expansion of research activities, etc.;

- development of demand for integrative services (communication services, social services, cultural services, etc.).

These determinants converge with conditions in the sector that will lead to a drop in the rate of employment.

Along with a quantitative change it is reasonable to expect a radical change in the pattern of agricultural occupations leading to substantial modification of skills and working conditions, integration with tertiary activities (technical assistance, research, commercialization and management of agricultural enterprises), and absorption of low-skill farm workers from the reservoir of immigration for tasks not willingly undertaken by indigenous labour.

□ In the *industrial sector* various scenario authors have described the coming years as a period:

- of increasing international competition paralleled by a slackening of the growth rate at international level;

- of tighter competition in the field of innovations (at product level and above all at processing level).



In the agricultural sector the new trends appear destined to have impact in depth.

European industry is at present burdened by various problems (delays and limitations of accumulation, organizational and commercial rigidity, crises in the public sector of industry, weaknesses in the field of research and development, etc.), but at the same time it is displaying a number of positive features (reactivation of small and medium enterprises, the ability of SME to make flexible use of innovations, innovative experimentation, etc.). It is thus probable that the now ongoing process of technological innovation, with its strong impact at occupational and at social level, will proceed at a pace slowed down by contradictions in its own inner logic (inadequacy of centres of motivation and paucity of the cultural humus) and by external constraints.

A number of innovative processes have already been launched, many of them diffusive in nature and impacting at worker level and also at salaried employee level in two directions:

- drop in the rate of manpower absorption in the sector;

- transformation of career profiles at both wage-earning and salary-earning level.

The introduction of new occupations and new vocational skills in the internal advanced tertiary sector appears on the one hand incapable of stymieing the practice of eliminating traditional jobs but does seem capable on the other hand of underpinning the heterogenous character of the future employment structure as compared with the composition of the current structure and the outputs of the current training system.

□ Some of the observations made in connection with the industrial sector also apply to the *tertiary sector*. This is the real growth sector, particularly as regards the so-called advanced services (communications, financial services, insurance services, etc.), even though the introduction of new technologies involves conflicts in

- sectors with high manpower levels marked by management inefficiency and low earnings (commerce, transport);

- public administration.

The expansion of the tertiary sector is easily predictable, fitting nicely into the historical pattern which is clearly delineated in accordance with two principles:

- 'horizontal' tertiarization implying a multiplication of tertiary skills inserted into production sectors;

- expansion of existing tertiary sectors (demand for services in connection with

leisure time, tourism, culture, etc.) and creation of new tertiary sectors.

To summarize, the trends in manpower demand move along three axes:

- reduced capacity to absorb manpower supply;
- increasing divarication between demand and supply;
- influx of pockets of redundant manpower who will require retraining in the wake of restructurization.

These trends are indicative of growing tension on the labour market and together lend top priority to the matter of occupational mobility with all its implications (at institutional, cultural, training, and commercial levels).

Added to the dimensions of manpower supply and manpower demand is a third dimension, that of growing self-awareness of the labour force and a budding work culture, both moving in the direction of overcoming the predominance of work in personal life and finding ways of rendering work compatible with other needs of growing self-awareness. The emergence of autonomous behavioural patterns of workers is a sign of this trend.

The interaction of this third dimension with the first two (manpower supply and manpower demand) suggests probable development between now and the year 2000 along one of two imaginary lines:

- concentration of productivity to maximum degree with the minimum number of workers coupled with formation of three complementary reserves (marginalized unemployed, helper occupations, and migrant worker supply for the filling of undesirable jobs) and the retention of current system rigidities;
- distribution of work tasks among a maximum number of workers by drawing on processes of mobility (mobility via work plus non-work: combination of training and work when entering, leaving, and/or re-entering working life; sabbatical leave; partial retirement; etc.; on-the-job mobility: flexible working hours, part-time employment, job-sharing, home-based piecework, work at a prescribed pace;

profession-based mobility; residence-based mobility).

The first imaginary line of development implies a maximum degree of continuity from today. It has a very evident effect: a prolongation of current trends is very improbable, since that would involve the accumulation of tensions which would automatically lead to a breaking point long before the year 2000. However, this breaking point would be imaginary in the sense that as it approached, countermeasures could be implemented in order to make adjustments and at least relieve the tensions which had built up.

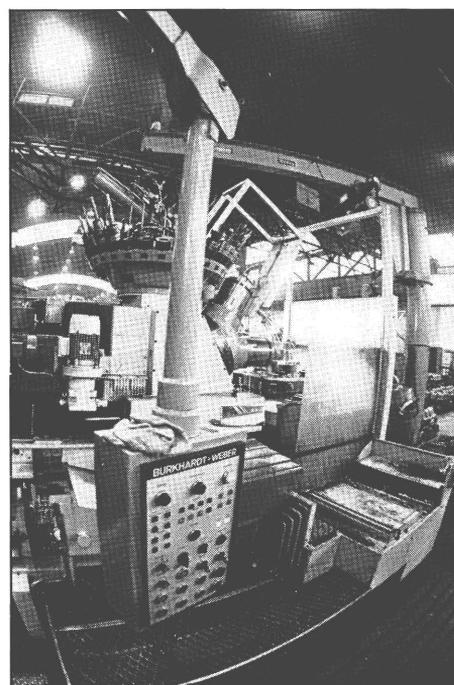
The second imaginary line of development implies not only discontinuity but likewise innovation. The roots of such development have in fact already been sunk (subjectivity and self-awareness of workers, new job composition, functional ambivalence of new technologies). From these roots those adjustments can evolve which are required in order to eliminate the increasingly rigid encasements which a simple projection of the present into the future would otherwise produce.

### **Harmonization of training titles: a zero effect**

If these are the most probable scenarios of the European system of work around the year 2000, we can tranquilly admit that the harmonization of vocational training titles which perhaps in the meantime could have been accomplished would have had no effect whatsoever.

The system of work around the year 2000 thus envisaged is characterized by extreme fluidity, large areas of tertiary sector dominance, few rigidly defined jobs, great prevalence of broad-skill jobs, prominence of the pattern of combined work and non-work employment alternance in its various forms throughout working life, few clearly defined sectors and occupational groups, i.e. highly flexible career profiles insuring a high degree of mobility.

The mutual recognition of diplomas, on the other hand, presupposes clearly delineated branches, precise knowledge of specific job



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*It is probable that the now ongoing process of technological innovation, with its strong impact at occupational and at social level, will proceed at a pace slowed down by contradictions in its own inner logic and by external constraints.*

content, and accurate skills description or in other words, a system of exact job and skill match.

If our future holds for us, as now seems probable, the retention of an erratic jobs system, job skills must be made subject to flexibility and continual adaptation to change.

It is in fact quite realistic to assume that the same system of parascholastic vocational training (courses, trainees, teachers, job profiles, etc.) which, in its many variants, we now see in operation in many European countries, will not continue to exist beyond the year 2000.

In conclusion we can likewise with a considerable degree of justification imagine that from now until the year 2000 the civil flag of the European harmonization of vocational training titles will continue to fly at high mast in the castle yard, even if from now until then the castle workers will all have gone elsewhere to do something else.

## Young migrants: the 'less equal'

### The vocational training situation

Current political and cultural discussion is centred primarily on the economic crisis and on ways and means of mastering it. Interest

in social aspects, which dominated discussion during the years of economic growth, seems to be waning. The worsening econ-

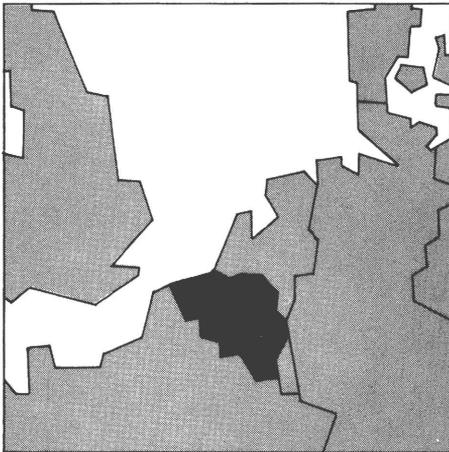
omic situation leaves little room for concerns which do not relate directly to problems of employment and measures to re-activate the economy. The subject matter of this *dossier* could therefore very well appear out of place and indeed marginal.

Young migrants are confronted with all the problems of youth and above all with that of employment. They come to this problem with such an accumulation of cultural and social disadvantages that the possibility of their finding employment is very small indeed. Vocational training can and indeed must contribute to the redistribution of employment opportunities, playing thereby an important role in the task of redressing the social disadvantages of the excluded, the 'less equal'. The European Centre has invested no little amount of effort in this task. In 1980 it concluded a research study on the training situation of young foreigners in the Federal Republic of Germany. A publication providing information on the results of this study\* has received broad circulation, and the research report is now being printed. Drawing on certain significant facts emerging from the study covering the Federal Republic of Germany, five studies were subsequently conducted covering the situation of young foreigners in Belgium, the United Kingdom, France, Luxembourg, and Denmark. The articles contained in this *dossier* are extracts of the respective studies which are now being printed. Regardless of the institutional and socio-political *diversity* of the national situations within which the problem complex involved is sited, certain common aspects have emerged which characterize the situation of young migrants residing in all Community areas of immigration in significant fashion. Although fully aware of the danger of oversimplifying in comparing situations characterized by diverse social contexts, we feel that it might be useful to provide by means of this *dossier* an overall picture of such situations.

\* Cedefop: *It can be done . . .* (DA, DE, GR, EN, FR, IT, NL).



JACOBI



## in Belgium

*Albert Bastenier*  
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In 1981 there were roughly 900 000 foreigners in Belgium (9% of the population) of whom 425 000 were less than 25 years of age (218 000 boys and 207 000 girls). Some 75% of these foreigners belong to those immigrant nationalities who traditionally constitute the low-level socio-occupational categories.

The extremely uneven regional distribution of immigrants throughout the country (23% of the regional population of Brussels, 13% in Wallone, and 4% in Flanders) has reflected up to the recent past the likewise extremely varying level of manpower demand in these three economic regions of Belgium. This imbalance in migrant manpower distribution reflects in turn the now more or less grave difficulties involved in finding employment for these migrants, second-generation migrants being the most disadvantaged.

It was not until around 1973–74 that the 'second generation' problem became an issue in Belgium. During the years before the widespread conviction that the migratory phenomenon was only a temporary one had led to either complete ignorance or grave underestimation of this aspect of the situation and to no real sense of responsibility towards the transplanted populations. Indeed, during these previous years one was content, in spite of the recommendations and regulations established at Community level and the simple substantiation that there could be no cultural and social integration of migrants if this group remained marginal, to just let things run their course in the hope that natural adjustments would suffice. Today the problem is in the forefront of concern and the second generation of migrants has become a major factor in a new phase of the history of migrations.

Young migrants are fast being pushed into symbolizing the negative function which until now has been exercised by the term 'migrant workers' and compelled to act as scapegoats in an economic crisis which has turned completely upside down the facts of a problem which one had hoped could be simply left in abeyance.

The current unnerving situation of the second generation, particularly with regard to their vocational training, is no doubt the result of a serious and long existing lack of social foresight. How can we today analyse its various components?

### Very inadequate schooling

Schooling of the young generations has been and remains, many decades after the onset of the large flows of migrants to Belgium, more than problematic. The school, often denounced by members of the Belgium working class as being unfair to their children, has become an 'école massacre' for migrants of the second generation. This initial scholastic inadequacy has grave consequences for their vocational training. This can be illustrated by the following data:

- an enquiry conducted by the Ministry of National Education shows a pronounced disparity between the scholastic situation of young Belgian nationals and that of second generation migrants throughout primary education. In the first year of primary education 26% of the foreign pupils are at least a year behind (in comparison with 13.5% of the indigenous pupils). This disparity increases throughout primary schooling, at the close of which 55% of the foreign pupils are behind as against roughly 30% of the indigenous pupils;

- The exact percentage of foreign children who hold no school-leaving certificate at the end of compulsory schooling is not known. A partial enquiry does show that among the foreign pupils undergoing vocational training 33.5% had no such certificate (national differences being as follows: Spaniards: 17%; Italians: 34%; Turks: 35%; Moroccans: 41%).

This very disturbing scholastic situation, with some persons holding the view that it is the source of what is today called the 'mouflage euro-parias', is without doubt the cause of a whole series of socio-cultural disadvantages afflicting second generation migrants. It likewise points to the fact, however, that the Belgian school system is helpless in the face of the influx of foreign pupils. The school, by nature a guardian of tradition, has not adapted itself to the new situation, and no government measures aimed at coordinating immigration policy with school policy have succeeded in correcting the problem. This is not because measures have not been taken but rather because great confusion reigns in the field of classes of adaptation, special classes, language courses, and courses of bicultural instruction. This lack of structural adaptation still prevails in Belgium, primarily because successive governments have failed to follow through properly on initiatives announced. There is a flagrant lack of coordination between various initiatives, and one must conclude that no clearly defined objectives have been set as yet.

### Vocational training

A review of those streams of training which can enable young migrants to qualify for a

# Dossier



nish the economy, as was the case with their parents, with a reservoir of low-skilled and non-skilled labour.

Young migrants who are at least 14 when they leave primary school can undergo vocational training in a small firm on an apprenticeship basis. Although frequently criticized, this type of training obtained under good working conditions appears to be qualitatively at least equivalent if not superior to training received in vocational school at secondary level. However, only a small number of young migrants benefit (roughly 2800, or 20% of all apprentices), and many of them fail or abandon training. The reasons for failure are similar to those encountered at school (literacy and socio-cultural problems).

The National Employment Office (ONEM) also undertakes to provide young migrants with the opportunity to acquire a basic occupational qualification. Of those young persons under 25 who benefited from these courses in 1980, 1800 were foreigners (15% of the total number of trainees). The training courses run by ONEM are generally considered to be of good quality, but it is the number of available training places which causes trouble. Young migrants are often turned back because they cannot meet the basic requirements felt by ONEM to be essential to the maximum efficiency of operation of its training centres. A report published by Cedefop in 1980 called for rethinking on courses of this type, which had proved to be ill adapted to the needs of those who are less qualified at the start, as are young migrants, and who therefore face extreme difficulty in acquiring vocational skills and thus become again marginalized (this is particularly noticeable in the case of Turkish migrants: from 1972 to 1977 only 181 of the 53 059 trainees in ONEM centres were of Turkish nationality). There is obvious a great need to give thought to concrete possibilities of intervention open to an agency such as ONEM, conceived primarily as a tool of adjustment between manpower demand and manpower supply on a relatively stable labour market within the context of rapid economic growth. Since this has no basis of reality today, ONEM is playing an increasingly modest role in connection with needs stemming from the persistent economic crisis. It should therefore now turn its attention to the task of restructuring the traditional training apparatus so as to enable young migrants to also obtain a qualification. At present the policy of strict selection in view of the limited number of

job likewise reveals a most defective situation.

In the vocational school system (which in Belgium accounts for a very large percentage of all vocational training provided for young persons), young migrants continue to face difficulties which differ in no fundamental way from those encountered during their primary schooling.

It should be stated first of all that the body of research studies carried out on post-primary schooling choices for young migrants indicates that at secondary school level the number of young migrants attending greatly exceeds that of young Belgian nationals. This tendency of young migrants to make

less use of the opportunity to continue on in general schooling can be traced back to their primary schooling. At the beginning of secondary schooling figures show 38% in vocational training (as against 17% of young Belgian nationals) and 29% in technical training (as against 23% of young Belgian nationals) as against 33% in general education (compared with 60% of the indigenous young people). There are no studies on performance results achieved by young migrants in secondary vocational and technical schools, but estimations are that between 40% and 60% of them fail to complete their schooling and leave without a certificate. All evidence thus shows that the second generation of migrants will fur-

training places available discriminates strongly against them. Even though this stream of vocational training is considered by young Belgians to be a 'last chance', it could very well become a 'first chance' for young migrants disadvantaged by not having been enabled to undergo vocational training in earlier years. Must we admit that we are again face to face with a system which is incapable of responding to the specific needs of young migrants? Or must we suspect that ONEM's efforts *vis-à-vis* the younger generations and *vis-à-vis* second generation migrants in particular is nothing more than an operation of symbolic political impact offering no real answer to the needs of today?

Until now the multiple inadequacies characterizing the vocational training of young migrants in Belgium have not yet culminated in the development of viable systems of pretaining, as is the case in other Member States. However, a number of private initiatives have been launched to close this gap by offering 'catch-up courses' (in French, Dutch, maths, etc.) prior to actual vocational training. These are the only measures which have led to a system not designed exclusively for individuals considered capable of recuperation, thus plunging young people of lower educational level further into a process of social marginalization. Unfortunately these initiatives succeed in reaching only a minute fraction of the second generation population and thus do not constitute an overall solution to the problem at hand.

## Work and unemployment

Statistics on the vocational training qualifications of Belgium's working population provide insight into the results of the Belgian system of vocational training, which is shown to be qualitatively and quantitatively more disadvantageous for second generation migrants than for young Belgian nationals: 91% of all employed young foreigners under 19 years of age are workers (as against 80% of all employed indigenous young people); for employed second generation migrants between 20 and 24 the figure stands at 83% (as against 58% for indigenous young people of this age group). Although somewhat imprecise (the state of statistics being as it is), these percentages do reveal that young migrants do not appear destined to occupy a place on the labour market which is fundamentally different from that occupied by their parents.

On the contrary, the employment situation of second generation migrants appears to be worsening from day to day. Without satisfactory qualification, they are exposed to more than one type of unemployment. For young Belgian nationals under 25 the rate of unemployment now stands at about 10% whereas for young migrants this rate rises to roughly 17%. Thus, the number of young migrants is increasing who, having not found employment, tend to understand their social environment only fragmentally in terms of, for example, the placement office or the police office. This can only mean that these young people feel rejected by society, and this can very well trigger off

an aggressiveness more ill-fated than any stemming from xenophobic or racist agitation.

The situation of second generation migrants is in fact very different from and much more endangered than that of their parents, who faced no unemployment problems and who could retain a link, albeit symbolic, with their home country seen as a haven to which they could return in case of failure. It is in the face of a feeling of great emptiness and the impossibility of true social integration that a long process of negative socialization begins for young migrants and leads to their proletarianization. That which fundamentally differentiates migrants of the second generation from the rest of society is the problematic character of their social integration at all levels:

- at cultural level they continue to be 'strangers' burdened by the problem of identification;
- at social level they continue to pay the price of marginality fed by a migratory environment;
- at occupational level they are more vulnerable than others to the effects of the economic recession, and their links with the world of production are more fragile.

This trend towards becoming socially ostracized is nothing other than a process of progressive subproletarianization. What, then, are the lines of approach second generation migrants will take in an effort to obtain at least a minimum of social recognition, without which existence is not possible?



## in the United Kingdom

*Malcolm Cross*

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To many people familiar with the population structure of Great Britain, it may come as a surprise to use the term 'young migrants', except for small numbers of young people from Italy, Spain or Greece. And yet the term 'immigrants' is frequently employed to refer both to those who actually *migrated* to the UK from Asia or the Caribbean and to their offspring. In fact, as larger and larger proportions of migrant workers in the rest of Europe opt to stay on, and as more of the so-called 'second generation' appear, the parallel between the 'ethnic minorities' of Britain and 'migrant workers' becomes clear. About four out of five 16–19 year olds of West Indian origin were born in Britain, compared with nearly one in two young Indians and one in four young Pakistanis or Bangladeshis. Within ten years the vast majority of this age group will not be 'migrants' in the literal sense and, of course, neither can they be regarded as 'foreigners' since nearly all are British citizens.

While these young people are equal in theory before the law to the indigenous citizenry and despite the existence of powerful anti-discrimination legislation, these youngsters do not enjoy equality of opportunity. Ethnic minorities as a whole comprise about 2.2 m or 4 per cent of the total population but because of their age distribution they form approximately 7 per cent of the 16–19 year old age group. However, they are not equally distributed throughout the country being heavily concentrated in the inner city areas of Britain's main conurbations. Racial discrimination and the effects of inner city concentration are the two main barriers to equal opportunity that ethnic minorities face.

Perhaps the single most important symptom of these difficulties is the rate of

unemployment amongst ethnic minorities. In the current recession the number of unemployed has doubled but amongst ethnic minorities the rise between 1971 and 1982 has been more than 150. For young people in general, and for ethnic minority youngsters in particular, the position is much worse. Without government intervention, it is unlikely that more than one in five West Indian or Asian youngsters leaving school at the minimum age of 16 will find permanent employment. The need to supply some form of further education and training is therefore paramount although there is no evidence to suggest that the peculiar difficulties faced by these youngsters are the direct result of poor educational qualifications. Although qualifications help in the search for work, the *relative* disadvantage suffered by minorities is at least as great at higher education levels as at lower.

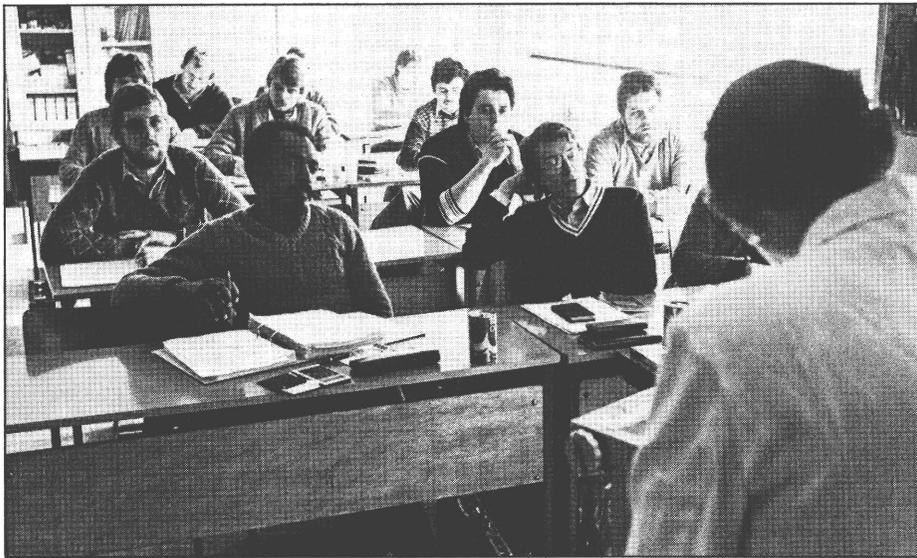
Unlike many other European societies, language training is not the central issue, although there is likely to be a place for teaching English as a second language for a number of years. Ethnic minority youngsters tend to stay on longer in school than the indigenous population but West Indians in particular tend to do less well. Taking literacy in English as a yardstick, we can see the expected positive correlation between years of schooling and literacy for Asians but for West Indians greater exposure to the British school system appears to worsen their relative performance. This problem, together with their level of overall performance in examinations, has prompted a recent official enquiry which has tended to support those who argue for more sensitivity and awareness on the part of teachers and the school system.

One likely effect of these difficulties is that

West Indian youngsters seeking vocational training have, if anything, higher levels of ability than others, since they are less likely to have been selected for academic courses. Certainly both West Indians and Asians show more enthusiasm for vocational training than indigenous youngsters and they are more likely to prefer a career in a skilled trade. The traditional way that trade skills were acquired in Britain was through the time-serving apprenticeship. Unfortunately the number of apprenticeships in British industry has fallen by 46 per cent over the period from 1968 to 1980 and the evidence is highly suggestive that migrant descended youngsters fare very badly in the competition for those that remain. This is not associated with their enthusiasm or their abilities but appears to be a reflection of discrimination on grounds of race and traditional patterns of recruitment that favour young people from certain geographical areas and social backgrounds.

Recent policy developments for work preparation and vocational training have to be seen against this background. In 1978, the British government through the offices of the Manpower Services Commission (MSC) launched the Youth Opportunities Programme (YOP) which is a complex package of work preparation courses and work experience schemes designed for unemployed school leavers and other young people under the age of 18. Sponsors for these courses and schemes are drawn from industry, local government and voluntary bodies and in 1981–82 there were approximately 550 000 entrants to the programme, each of whom stayed for an average of six months.

As an inevitable consequence of their over-representation among the ranks of the



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unemployed, ethnic minority youngsters are more likely than others to be on these schemes. Evidence from a recent report co-authored by the present writer for the Manpower Services Commission\* suggests that ethnic minority young people enjoy their time on these schemes and find them a worthwhile experience. However, they tend to be over-represented on work preparation courses which are less likely to lead to permanent employment than is work experience. Moreover, they are very critical of the low level of skill training that they receive and it is quite apparent that much more remains to be done in this area. The demand for high level provision is perhaps greatest amongst minority young people, who have imbibed the aspirations and expectations of their parents for demanding and worthwhile employment.

It is now very clear that even after the current recession, the employment prospects for all young people with only minimal schooling are going to remain very poor. Moreover, there is a realisation in Britain that, particularly with the decline of the apprenticeship system, the supply of skilled manpower is likely to be inadequate. Comparison with the rest of Europe shows that a greater proportion of young people enter the labour market after compulsory

schooling from Britain than is true in any other EEC country. Britain has nothing to compare in scope or coverage with the West German apprenticeship system or with vocational education in Belgium, France or Italy. For these reasons a radical assessment is currently under way which – in the absence of any specialized facilities for migrant workers – is likely to have profound implications for ethnic minority youngsters.

The experience of YOP, together with some more limited provision for the longer term unemployed in older age groups, has prompted a national debate on the problem of vocational training which started with the publication by the MSC of the 'New Training Initiative' in May 1981. This was followed in December by 'An Agenda for Action' and a government White Paper entitled: 'A New Training Initiative: A Programme for Action'. In more recent months the MSC has produced a Task Group Report (April 1982) which is specially concerned with the implications for young people. The outcome of all this activity will be an enhanced and strengthened programme in which all unemployed young people below the age of 18 will receive one year of work preparation and work experience. The new programme entitled The Youth Training Scheme (YTS) will replace YOP and also aim for the first time to incorporate an assessment of competence and standards attained.

A central question to ethnic minority youngsters is whether the new scheme represents an enhanced possibility of high level skill training and vocational preparation. If so, it would constitute another chance to fulfil aspirations after what for many has been a difficult and frustrating experience at school. Clearly the doubling of the length of the programme is a step in the right direction but there are still worries that what will be provided falls well short of the integrated education and 'on-the-job' training that was found in the old apprenticeship system. It cannot be said as yet that any of the new proposals represents a replacement for the places lost from industry. There will also be concern to see that West Indian and Asian youngsters are fully represented on the better parts of the new package and that they receive an equal opportunity for subsequent employment.

One factor of great importance is age. Partly because they stay on in school longer and partly because of the greater likelihood of unemployment, West Indians and Asians are over-represented in the ranks of the unemployed young adults between the ages of 18 and 24. In the past there has been a small programme (30 000 places) for these young people originally known as the Special Temporary Employment Programme (STEP) and more recently as Community Enterprise. Now, however, it is proposed to replace this scheme with a Community Programme for 130 000 people drawn from the long term unemployed. This proposal, which will cover about one in eight of those unemployed for more than a year, is specifically designed to operate at minimal cost and there is widespread concern that the small amount of vocational training in the earlier programmes will now disappear in the rush to cope with the scale of the unemployment problem.

The descendants of migrants to Britain are not then in a very happy position. They are more likely to be unemployed and less likely to benefit from the educational system than are the indigenous population. They are particularly keen to acquire vocational skills and anxious to participate in worthwhile employment. However, the hurried attempt to institute an adequate system of vocational training at a time of massive rises in unemployment threatens to undermine the need for *quality* in the rush to ensure the necessary *quantity* of provision.

\* The Quest for Training: Unemployed Minority Youngsters and Special Programmes.



## in France

*Jean-Marie Raimond*

Consultant

**'On the other hand we have had many problems with the third, who failed this year to pass his CAP as a turner and cannot repeat anything because he is already over 18. He has no work and I am worried about him. He has already been arrested twice by the police, who demanded to see his personal documents. This has all happened because he was not properly advised and guided upon arriving in France. He will never be able to catch up.'** \*

This quotation covers of course, as others following in this text, only one aspect and is furthermore biased – and it is important to guard against hasty generalizations, but it nevertheless very effectively brings to attention the various problems which I wish to discuss in this article, namely, the presence of foreigners and in particular young foreigners, schooling, the search for a job, the possibility of eventually returning to the country of origin, and the problem of being torn between two cultures.

**'There is no need to send migrant workers back to their home countries, but it is necessary to refuse new workers entry to France.'**\*\*

### The immigrant population: a structural datum

Although statistical figures on the presence of foreigners in France are confusing, often outdated, and indeed in some cases not reliable, it can be said that with an assumed presence of more than 4 000 000 foreigners accounting for at least 7% of the total

\* Kebira, a Moroccan interviewed by the revue *Autrement*, No 11/77.

\*\* SOFRES opinion poll of 1981; 71% of the respondents agreed with this statement.

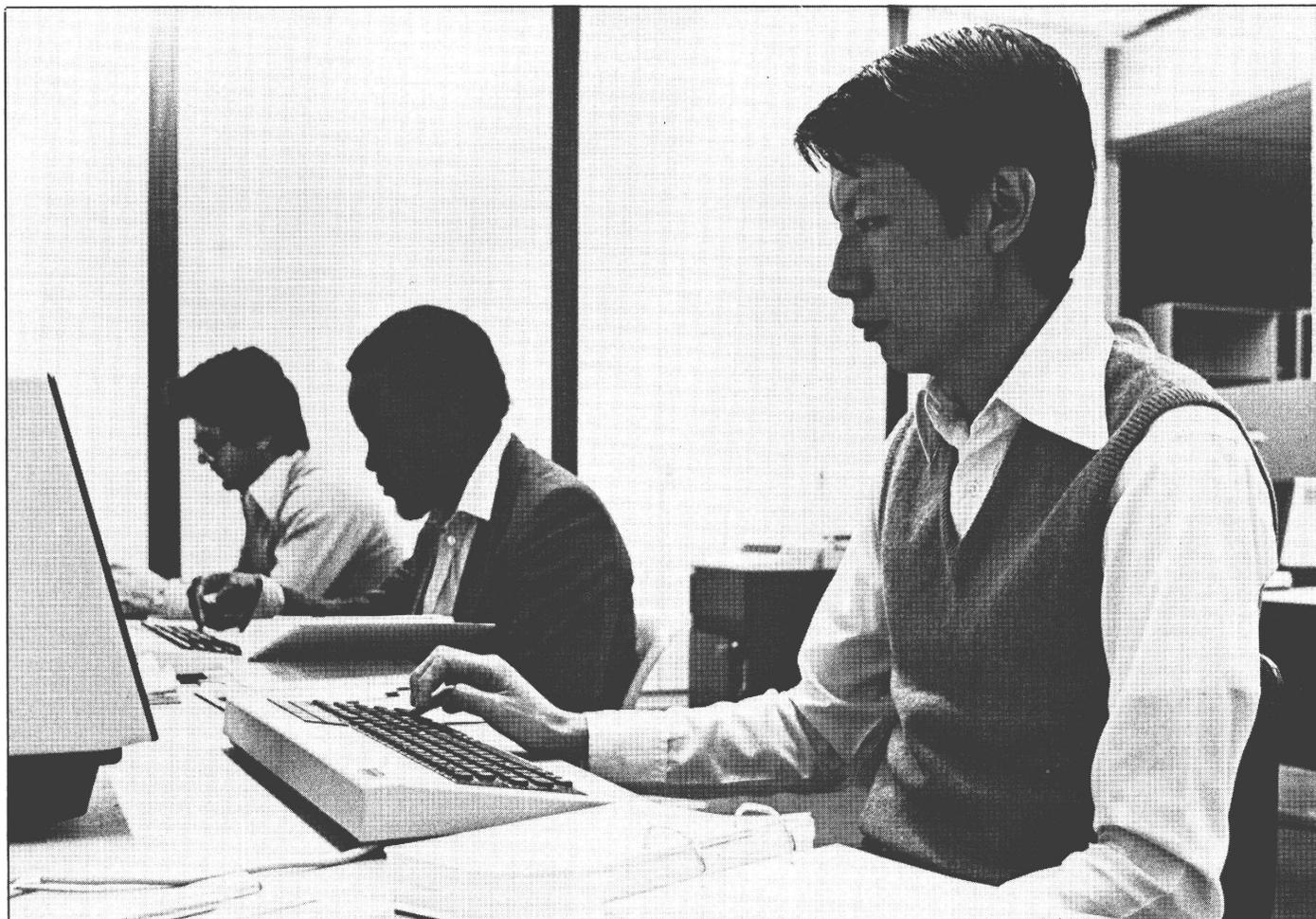


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population, the importance of immigration is clearly documented. Portuguese and Algerians lead the list with approximately the same number each (totalling together 42.7% of all foreigners). Spaniards and Italians follow, seven out of every ten of whom are migrants. It should also be mentioned that one-fourth of all immigrants are Maghrebians. Formerly known as 'foreigner workers', they have now become an 'immigrant population'. What was formerly a social fact has now become a structural datum.

Of all migrants those of the second generation (from 0 to 24 years) whom we prefer to

call 'young people of foreign extraction' total approximately 1 400 000. Within this category the number of young people between 16 and 21 years of age is estimated to increase during the period from 1979 to 1984 by 23%, the number of girls rising much faster than that of boys. The estimated rate of increase of Maghrebians ( $\pm 39\%$ ) and Portuguese (34%) is even higher. Around 1 000 000 second generation migrants are in school and roughly 300 000 are now of working age, with this figure expected to increase to 25% in the coming five years. A social threat? A social challenge?



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**Young foreigners from 15 to 24 years of age according to sex and nationality (1975)**

(*'000*)

Nationality	15 – 19 years			20 – 24 years			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Portuguese	28.5	26.9	55.4	29.4	31.7	61.1	57.9	58.6	116.5
Algerians	25.0	23.0	48.0	17.5	17.7	35.2	42.5	40.7	83.2
Spaniards	20.0	18.9	38.9	12.2	12.2	24.4	32.2	31.1	63.3
Moroccans	6.9	6.3	13.2	23.1	9.4	32.5	30.0	15.7	45.7
Tunisians	3.8	2.9	6.7	14.0	5.7	19.7	17.8	8.6	26.4
Turks	1.1	0.8	1.9	2.2	1.6	3.8	3.3	2.4	5.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>112.4</b>	<b>105.8</b>	<b>218.2</b>	<b>138.8</b>	<b>113.1</b>	<b>251.9</b>	<b>251.2</b>	<b>218.9</b>	<b>470.1</b>

Source: SEDES.

Migrants of the second generation are very disturbed people. They experience in various environments difficulties similar to those facing young French nationals of the same socio-economic milieu. However, they are additionally burdened by the need to tackle inequalities and difficulties within a social context which provides them with no roots and leaves them captive to the migra-

tory project of their parents at a time in their lives when they are searching to find their own identity within a two-culture world. For them the problem is not one of integration or assimilation but rather one of 'insertion' as seen from the angle of their native culture and the eventuality of one day returning to the country of their parents. The challenge raised is certainly political

and economic and obviously also social in nature, but it is furthermore cultural in nature in the full sense of this term.

**'School, I did very poorly . . . I completed the sixth form and the fifth form . . . , I left during the fourth form. Then I entered the vocational preparation course for young foreigners (Préparatoire jeunes travailleurs) . . .'**\*

Schooling proves to be selection via failure. For second generation migrants born in France or arriving here during adolescence schooling constitutes a fundamental factor determining future chances of insertion. At 16 years their future is practically decided. It is in earlier years that the switches which decide are set. Roughly 1 000 000 young foreigners have to be accommodated by the school system and their number is increasing constantly, with nodes of geographical concentration rendering the phenomenon itself and concomitant problems even more acute.

\* Quoted by Ahzène Zehraoui, *Le Monde*, Sunday, 30 May 1982.

# Dossier

The obstacles are of diverse nature, their repercussions numerous. The main obstacle is of course that of knowledge of the language of the host country. The tremendous challenge of arriving at the age of 8, 10, or even 13 in a foreign country without any knowledge of its language and perhaps even without having pursued schooling in the country of origin is easily appreciated. But for those young migrants born in France the family environment within which the native tongue continues to predominate constitutes an even greater challenge, and one cannot insist too strongly on the need to provide these children with instruction in the native language of their parents.

This language problem leads in turn to slowness in learning on the one hand and orientation problems on the other. Only one-third of all children of foreign extraction undergo primary education; of those entering the sixth form, only 29.3 % are not behind in years (as compared with 54.3 % for French children), and the age gap between the foreign and the indigenous youngsters widens throughout the rest of schooling. Many young foreigners are soon put in special classes as victims of the fact that their language difficulties have been misunderstood as learning problems. Socio-cultural constraints and inability of parents to grasp the nexus between schooling and vocational training lead to a whole series of misguided advice being grafted on to the already shaky tree of departure. The consequence is failure in school, under-representation in the so-called 'normal' or 'elite' streams of education, and over-representation in short-term streams leading to proficiency in a manual occupation (with differences according to the ethnic group involved) or in other words to courses of training leading to socially somewhat

scorned occupations and condemnation to a type of marginalization *vis-à-vis* the normal school system.

The table below is self-explanatory, and many authors have emphasized the various causes of this negative balance, which we will now deal with. There is first of all the pervasiveness of the family milieu, which, varying according to the country of origin, weighs heavily – and how could it be otherwise? – on the future of the young person. Family conditions (situation at home, size of family, health, etc.) which may hinder chances of insertion come next. For its part, geographical concentration leads to segregation and the growth of ghettos, with a resultant drop in educational level. There is then the dilemma faced by the parents, torn as they are between the desire to see their children achieve that which they have dreamed about but have themselves not achieved and the haunting threat of existence which reduces that which is possible to the financial need to find any type of job whatsoever. Finally, it is often the school system itself which is at fault. The volume of failures and drop-outs raises doubts about the system. Equipment not adapted, instruction methods not adapted, lack of contact between the family and the school, etc., all this surely stands squarely in the way of planned preparation for working life. To summarize, young migrants often acquire at school only a very basic education which opens for them no hopeful road to the future but rather condemns them to the same socio-occupational status as their parents have, one which they had hoped to one day leave behind.

**'If we have no job and nobody wants us anywhere, the only thing left for us to do is to steal.'**\*

\* Extract from an interview with Michèle Reverbel, journalist, August 1982.

Transition from school to work is difficult. It constitutes an important step in life for those most advantaged young people of foreign extraction who have benefited from completed schooling in France and launch out into life at the age of 16. What opportunities are open to them? The lucky ones can perhaps continue their studies at a university. It is true that 13 % of all university students are foreigners, but no statistics are available which enable us to differentiate between holders of home-country scholarships, children of diplomats, children of fathers in managerial positions, and children of parents holding down lower-level jobs. It is very likely that the last category is scarcely represented at all.

What training opportunities are open to the 300 000 young people of foreign extraction in the 16 to 21 age group?

First to be mentioned are a series of private and public measures of pre-vocational training financed in various ways. Characterized by generosity, ingenuity and flexibility, these full-time and part-time courses of pretraining are nevertheless too few in number and cannot cope with the enormous demand. Although they have undergone impressive development, they are still faulty in many ways: orientation too selective and not sufficiently geared to the long term; training content too strictly differentiated according to target groups, institutions, and environment; stress on practical skills to the detriment of human growth; pedagogic methods emphasizing the acquisition of knowledge and skills rather than the ability to think and reason; objectives sited on levels which can rarely be attained; and lack of coordination with further streams of training. In brief, there is a richness of experimentation constituting a considerable package of efforts which unfortunately remain without adequate impact in the face of a very grave situation.

What further efforts exist in answer to this pressing social need? There are a few privately run training centres, some training schemes based on the accumulation of credits, and above all a body of public training schemes open to both young Frenchmen and young people of foreign extraction. The pivotal institution is the Association for the Vocational Training of Adults (AFPA). Although there are precise statistics on the number of foreign trainees accommodated (10.1 % being the lowest figure and 15.5 % being the highest figure for the period from 1970 to 1979), there are unfortunately no figures on attendance

Secondary education (including training) according to type of schooling and nationality (1978/79)

(in %)

Nationality	First cycle	Classes of transition	Second cycle short	Second cycle long
French	60.0	4.3	14.6	21.1
All foreigners	58.5	8.4	21.6	11.5
Algerians	58.3	8.5	24.5	8.7
Moroccans	56.8	13.5	21.6	8.1
Tunisians	59.9	8.5	21.6	9.7
Spaniards	55.9	5.7	19.5	18.9
Portuguese	60.3	11.2	22.9	5.6

Source: SEDES.

increase in terms of age groups. Generalizations which can be made emphasize the preponderant occupational orientation of foreign trainees towards the building industry and since 1974 towards the metalworking industry, the low rate of participation of young women of foreign extraction, and the predominance of Maghrebians in comparison with Spaniards and Portuguese. Also, scholastic deficiencies frequently dictate occupational choices which, although perhaps realistic, are not desirable and also long periods of waiting for employment.

The in-firm training of young people of foreign extraction must at least be mentioned here. This combination of work plus training is recognized as being of high quality, but there are far too few openings. Pre-vocational training and post-school training opportunities are, to sum up, far too limited.

Although no exact statistics are available, there is strong evidence that in the target group of unemployed young foreigners up to 25 years of age the number of unemployed is steadily increasing, with the number of unemployed young women increasing overproportionately. Everything points, however, to the fact that although young people of foreign extraction are extremely vulnerable to the fate of unemployment, their period of waiting for employment is apparently no longer than that of young French nationals.

Some young foreigners do have a chance of finding a job after a while, in spite of handicaps standing in the way. It is difficult to give a figure, but it is known that their number is less than that of young French nationals who are in the same disadvantageous situation. Young migrants who find employment are isolated in a low-skill labour market, just as are their parents, facing all the consequences such as low pay, little possibility of career advancement, and captalization in economic sectors and regions gravely impacted by the economic recession. An ever-increasing number of young women of foreign extraction are succeeding in penetrating the tertiary labour market, even though their average rate of employment remains below that of young

French women. All these observations are general ones, and it would be well worth the effort to undertake to differentiate accord-

ing to nationalities. For example, there is a great difference in attitudes between the Portuguese and the Algerians.

Socio – occupational categories according to sex and age

(in %)

	Men		Women		Total
	17 – 19	20 – 24	17 – 19	20 – 24	
Self-employed	0.4	1.3	0.2	0.7	0.9
Helpers	2.1	1.2	0.3	0.3	1.0
Public employees	2.1	0.9	3.9	4.1	2.2
Salaried workers	4.9	8.1	21.3	23.2	12.5
Wage-earning workers, apprentices	90.5	88.5	74.3	71.7	83.4

### That which is neither measured nor measurable

**‘There is always a frontier, a distance, a period of time which separates us. Never is the entire world which one loves a whole in itself. There is always a frontier at one side or another.’\***

Within the limitations of an article it is of course not possible to bring nuances into the picture and cover the entire reality of the various situations. There is nevertheless every reason to remain uneasy in view of the fact that although already of threatening magnitude, the number of young people of foreign extraction is increasing while that of their counterparts, young French people, continues to decrease and likewise in awareness that first-level vocational qualification remains stagnant, weak, and socially discriminatory *vis-à-vis* second-level vocational qualification. In fact, the most important point to bear in mind is that basic education is not based on equality of opportunity. Measures of positive discrimination are required, at least for the time being, in order to move not toward equality but rather toward equalization.

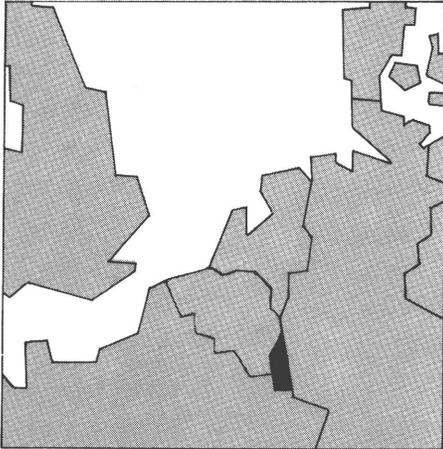
The pre-vocational training courses and ongoing education courses which follow basic education of varying duration are both quantitatively and qualitatively completely inadequate to the task of writing off the mortgage which forces young foreigners, locked within a sort of fatality dictated by poverty and precariousness, to take up

the same low-skill occupations in the same sectors as did their fathers before them, their expectations disappointed, their chances vitiated by deficiencies in education and training.

This reality cannot be dealt with in terms of statistics, nor can it be taken in hand by administrative provisions.

The problem of the training of young people of foreign extraction calls for action at other levels, for other plans and programmes. Quite apart from those difficulties and problems which the economic crisis only worsens is the serious problem of personal identity facing young foreigners. Nowhere do they have an opportunity to benefit from the three pedagogical domains which combine to form a personality, that of the family, that of the school, and that of the social body. They have neither the ability nor the power to deal with the shock of the clash between the culture of their country of origin and the culture of their host country and with the shock of contrast between their family environment with its strengths and weaknesses and their own environment with its opportunities and its constraints. They have as yet no roots and no personal identity. They are truly, as some authors have said, the ‘zero generation’. What can we do? Certainly reflections and deliberations at political level are urgently necessary, but beyond this and in a much broader perspective which opens up prospects of a multicultural human adventure our task is to create a new type of relationship among countries with divergent resources and at the same time to change our way of thinking.

\* Young Italian girl. Television programme, Spring 1982.



## in Luxembourg

*Armand Spineux*

Social Development Centre  
Catholic University of Louvain



GLASER

Frequently overlooked is the fact that the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg has a higher percentage of foreign workers than any other Member State of the European Community, this percentage standing at 25 % of the total population. It is even easier to appreciate the great economic and demographic importance of this foreign population in the Grand Duchy when it is realized that the annual birth rate of the Luxembourg population is among the lowest of all industrialized countries and that the population percentage for the elderly age group is particularly high.

Even since 1975 total population figures have been dropping, and even though this trend reversed somewhat in 1979, the very slight increase registered was attributable

exclusively to births in the foreign population which overcompensated for a low birth rate in the indigenous population. It is evident that this situation must in the long run lead to a complete upheaval in the socio-economic structure of the country.

In 1979 more than 92 000 foreigners were registered in Luxembourg, whose total population at that time was 333 661. If the international officials and their families resident in Luxembourg are discounted, the percentage of foreign workers stands at 22 %, or nearly 30 % of the working population.

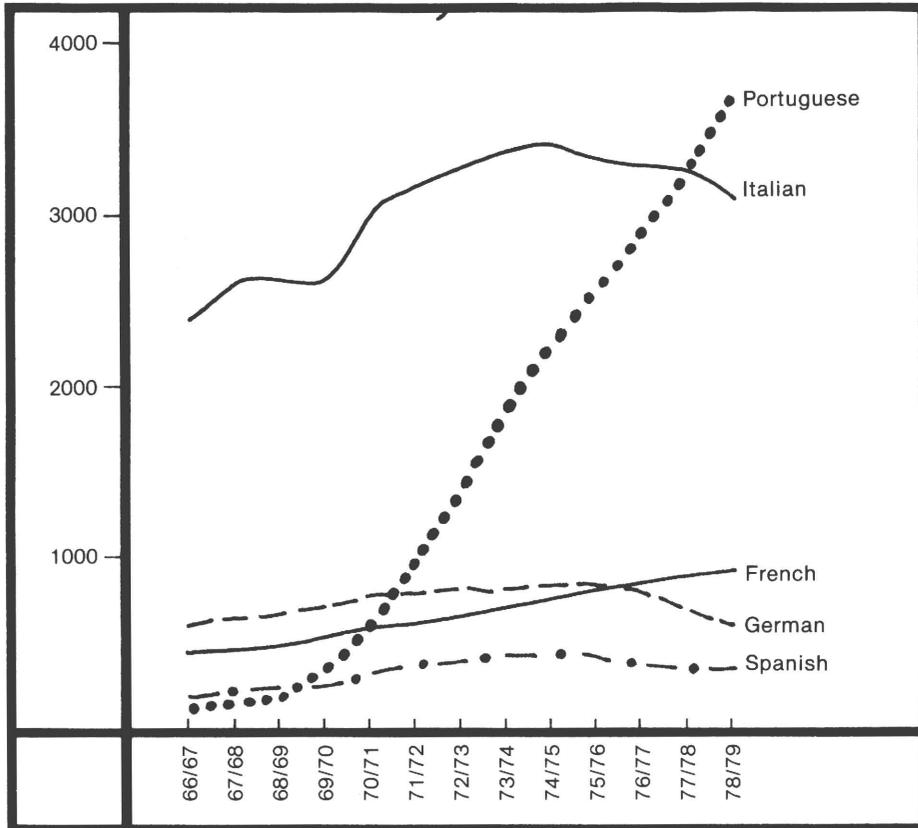
In certain industrial branches the large majority of workers are of foreign extraction; foreign workers account in the building industry for 90 %, in the craft industry

for 63 %, and in industry in general for nearly 52 % of the respective total labour force.

If against this background of data the education situation of young migrants in Luxembourg is examined, the following facts emerge:

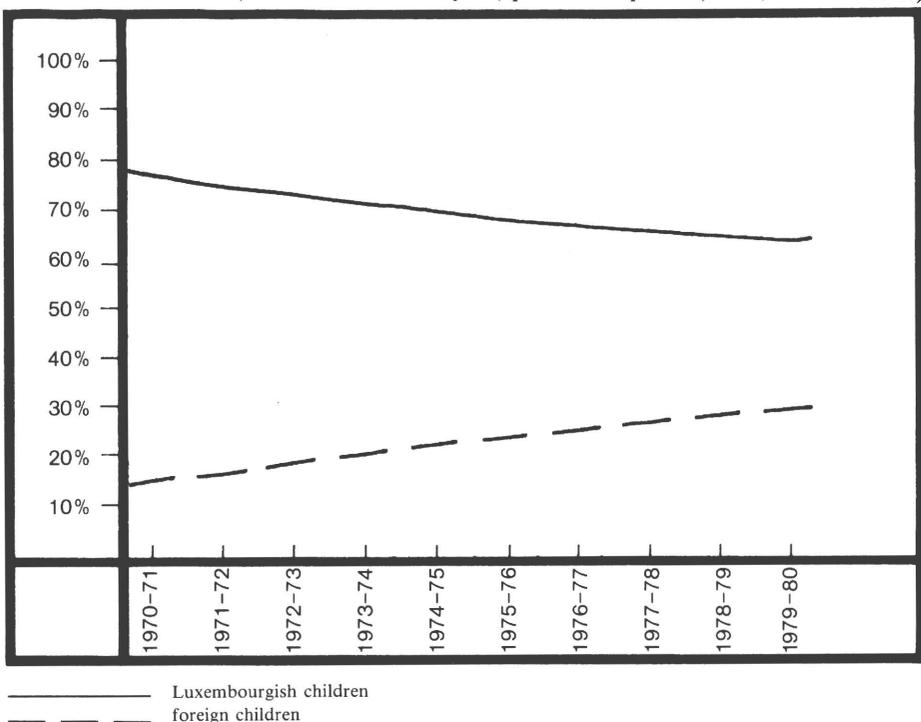
■ There is a constant percentage increase of young foreigners, in particular Portuguese and Italians, attending pre-primary and primary school (Graphs 1 and 2). This phenomenon is attributable in part to the current practice of reuniting migrant families in Luxembourg but above all to the number of births registered in these families and demographic decline in the indigenous population.

Foreign pupils in primary education, 1966-79  
(predominant nationalities)



Source: Dissertation of M. Jérôme Levy: *Schulprobleme von Kindern ausländischer Arbeitnehmer in Luxemburg.*

Percentage of children of Luxembourgish and foreign nationality in primary schooling  
(first to sixth school year, public and private) (total = 100%)



■ There is a sizeable drop in attendance at post-primary level. Practically no young foreigners undergo formal secondary schooling, and the number of young foreigners undergoing full-time technical/vocational training is far below that of the total number of young foreigners of the same age group.

Young foreigners between 12 and 15 years of age may enter special catch-up programmes conceived as complementary streams of training enabling participants to fill educational gaps and prepare to move forward to vocational training leading to skill qualifications required to exercise a trade.

The percentage of second generation migrants attending such a three-year course of training is quite high, and yet most of these youngsters discover that although the course of training is intended to automatically lead into vocational training, it does not in fact provide them with the prerequisites needed to take up an interesting type of vocational training. There is thus a high rate of drop-out in the transition from this complementary training to vocational training.

For better or worse, but mainly for worse, young migrants attend school up to the age of 15 (end of compulsory schooling). Not being equipped to continue even in the less-demanding streams of the Luxembourg school system, most of these young people then find themselves shut out for good from all training processes.

It is therefore not possible to speak of a transition from school to vocational training. The second generation migrants, having left the school system without a school-leaving certificate and not having any vocational training certificate, have no other choice than to enter the production circuit at the lowest skill level.

One of the studies which deals with this problem, the MAGRIP study,\* indicates that 40% of all pupils leave school without having acquired any qualification. Since we know that 36% of all second generation migrants attend complementary training courses and since we furthermore know that the majority of these young people will not be able to continue on in schooling or in vocational training, we can reasonably assume that most of the young people leaving the school system without a qualification are second generation migrants.

\* BAMBERG, M.; DICKES, P., and SCHABER, G.: *Étude MAGRIP, First Synthesis Report 1977*, 4, 103 pp., Institut Pédagogique, Luxembourg, Walferdange.

## Command of four languages

The difficulties which young migrants have in obtaining schooling and vocational training in a host country can be traced back to several causes which are common to most of our countries. They include the problem of insertion into another local community, frequently unsatisfactory living conditions, social-cultural integration difficulties, etc. Specific to the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, however, is a difficulty which tends to aggravate all these other difficulties, that of the need to learn not *the* language of the host country but all *three* languages in use.

The Luxembourgish language is not used in written form; it is the vernacular of the country. The two official languages, French and German, are used in the school system, with German being used almost exclusively in technical instruction. It is therefore very easy to sympathize with the young migrants, including those born in Luxembourg.

In addition to the mother tongue spoken in the family, a young migrant must learn to speak German in school, with French being an indispensable second language, and to use the Luxembourg language in everyday life. This major obstacle almost automatically leads to a preference for young people of Luxembourgish nationality in all aspects of life and above all in the domain of vocational training and scholastic instruction in the broad sense of the term.

In the face of the number of language difficulties which they must overcome in order to proceed through the various stages leading to acquisition of a certificate of occupational qualification, many young migrants become discouraged. In an effort to muddle through in French, German, and the Luxembourg vernacular, they end up by not knowing any of these languages well, and certainly not well enough to obtain a certificate of occupational qualification.

These young people are in general well informed on the mechanisms of training. Information is available and opportunities are open, but in the face of the need to use several languages motivation suffers. Knowledge of these languages, above all German, is after all indispensable to the acquisition of vocational training.

Up to the present, at least, another factor comes into play which hinders most of these young people from looking for a chance for higher-level training. The rate of unemployment in Luxembourg, is relatively low (less than 2% of the population). Until 1980 there was little difficulty in finding employment. Even without a CAP or a CAPT qualification young people could find employment as manual labour in the crafts (building construction, etc.). The need to earn money also tended to keep them from striving for higher occupational status.

The employment situation has now changed for the worse and will continue to worsen in the coming years. Technological development in all the economic sectors is bringing with it the elimination of jobs and demand for higher-level skills.

Workers most severely affected by this (r)evolution will be those who have no occupational qualification whatsoever, namely, young Italian and above all young Portuguese migrants.

The risks of social tension are now all the greater since the labour market is tight and the number of young migrants is proportionally very large indeed, with young migrants in the largest age groups not yet having completed primary schooling.

## Three suggestions

This brief summary of the vocational training situation of young migrants in Luxembourg impels us to make three suggestions. They are certainly not capable of solving the entire complex of problems raised, but at least they can perhaps serve as platforms of reflection on how to break the stalemate.

■ The first suggestion is to introduce in the pre-primary and the primary school years instruction in the young migrants' mother tongue. This would firstly permit parents to participate actively in the schooling of their children instead of feeling left out as they do now. It would secondly help to further accultural communication and understanding between indigenous and foreign nationals living in the same community. Demographic trends are in fact highly favourable in this respect.

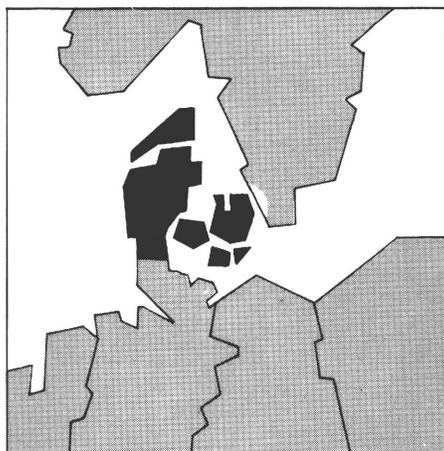
■ The second suggestion is to stress instruction in the German language. Knowledge of this language, used almost exclusively in technical instruction, is a key to entry into vocational training. Rather than teaching French in the first primary cycle with the intent of enabling young foreigners of Latin descent to better grasp instruction content, it would be wiser in our opinion to provide instruction in the respective mother tongue and to teach German, the main language needed in vocational training.

Knowledge of French is of no practical use in the vocational training system, which for many reasons is based on a good command of the German language. For young migrants things would then become much easier. Knowledge of their other tongue would enable them to preserve their cultural identity. Vocational training opportunities would then open up for them by virtue of their command of German and they would no longer risk the danger of being limited in career selection to low-level occupations or not having the opportunity to obtain a 'diploma at a discount'.

■ The third suggestion is to establish training centres for second generation migrants of both sexes. Many trainers feel that this would be a most effective approach. Such centres would enable young migrants coming to or having been born in the host country to familiarize themselves with a large number of occupations. Contact with the working world would be closer, enabling them to make a career selection most favourably compatible with their inclinations, talents, and aptitudes.

To conclude, provision of a type of vocational training adapted to the specific characteristics of second generation migrants would enable these young people of foreign extraction to compete on the labour market on an equal basis with young Luxembourg nationals. It would also, in the case of Luxembourg, enable a large part of the population to obtain occupational qualifications and thus avoid being condemned to become the ostracized of tomorrow.

As a final consideration it should be borne in mind that to postpone action in favour of young migrants until the time comes when immediate economic benefit falls far short of social costs engendered from having excluded them from society would be folly indeed.



## in Denmark

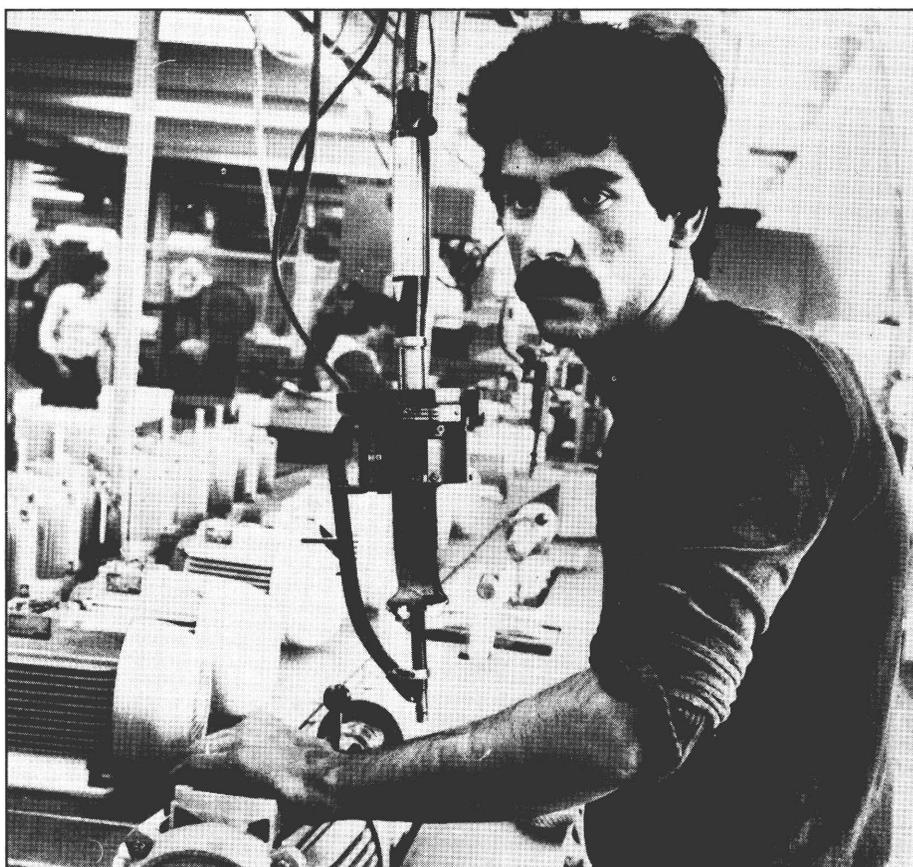
*Florence Morgan-Gérard*

CEDEFOP

The presence in Denmark of migrants of the second generation is a phenomenon of recent date, thus explaining the lack of in-depth studies on this subject. It has acquired growing importance primarily because the principal form of migration to Denmark today is the bringing together of migrant families. Nearly half (45 %) of all foreigners in Denmark, totalling 101 600, are less than 25 years of age. However, it must be stressed that 50 % of this foreign population group have come from other Scandinavian countries, EC Member States (mainly the United Kingdom and the Federal Republic of Germany) and the USA and hence do not constitute migrants in the exact sense of the term.

### Turks, Pakistanis, Yugoslavs

These three nationalities account for more than half the migrant population. In the case of young foreigners under 25 years of age the proportion is closer to two-thirds. For this reason the national groups are usually lumped together in statistical tables, quite in spite of the fact that the national characteristics are extremely varying in nature.



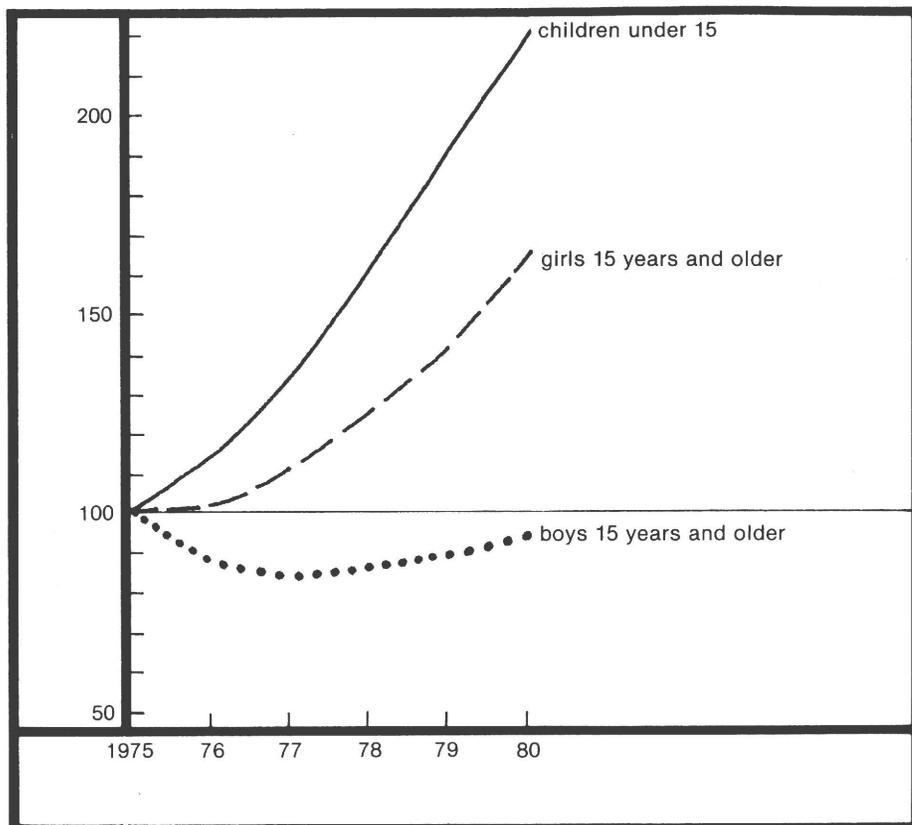
GLASER

Nationality	Age			Total
	0 - 6 years	7 - 15 years	16 - 24 years	
Turks	3 302	2 995	3 203	9 500
Pakistanis	2 084	963	729	3 776
Yugoslavs	1 306	1 049	919	3 274
Moroccans	569	336	318	1 223

Source: Population census, 1 January 1981.

# Dossier

Between 1975 and 1980 the number of young people of these nationalities under 15 years of age more than doubled, as the following graph shows:



## School and languages

This rapid increase in the migrant population of school age, including children born in Denmark of foreign parents (10% of all births in Copenhagen), has direct impact on the Danish school system, which is now examining the possibility of reproducing the Swedish model of providing instruction in the respective native tongue. In order to facilitate the integration of young migrants, emphasis is currently being placed on the provision of instruction in the Danish language, most of such instruction taking place in special classes of reception. Although conceived for new arrivals, these classes are also open to young foreigners born in Denmark who do not yet have a command of Danish. In a first phase the pupils attend full-time classes of reception. As soon as they have commenced to understand and use the Danish language they may, in a second phase, attend certain courses (practical exercises, music, etc.) in the regular schools. In a third phase they are integrated into the formal school system but remain in contact with the teachers of the classes of reception. For young foreigners arriving in

Denmark who are over 14 years of age, the curriculum of the classes of reception combines instruction in the Danish language with instruction in subjects covered in the eighth, ninth, and tenth school years.

Furthermore, the communes are legally obligated to conduct native language courses for young migrants totalling 12 or more in a certain location who are of the same nationality. According to the Ministry of Education, 39% of all young migrants follow such courses. In Copenhagen the rate of participation of young Yugoslav migrants reaches 80%.

## Which transition?

In the commune of Copenhagen\* an enquiry conducted on young people who had attended classes of reception in 1976-77 shows that in 1979:

- 73% had found a low-skill job paying minimum wages;

\* This city has the highest concentration of immigrants, along with Frederiksberg and Århus.

- 18% were in training or participating in a training programme for unemployed young persons;

- 9% were unemployed.

Three out of every four young migrants stated that they had little or no knowledge of training or apprenticeship possibilities.

Only a small minority of young migrants continue schooling beyond compulsory schooling age: 60% of all young Yugoslavs, 71% of all young Pakistanis, and 74% of all young Turks interviewed stated that they had not enrolled in any type of course three months after having left school in 1978 (the corresponding percentage for young Danes is 29%). Fifteen months after having left school around 10% of the young Turks and the young Pakistanis and nearly 50% of the young Yugoslavs had taken up some kind of training or education. The percentage of young foreigners of the female sex following such courses was considerably lower.

## Recognized as a handicap

Under Danish legislation handicapped pupils have access to a special type of instruction or special pedagogical assistance, whereby the concept of 'handicap' has been broadened to include language difficulties. However, very little use is being made of this possibility at present.

Within the framework of the body of vocational preparation programmes (EIFL) some 20 courses have already been designed for young foreigners, in collaboration as regards the linguistic side with the Danish Council for Assistance to Refugees (DF). These courses consist of 16 weeks of initial theory and practice followed by four weeks of traineeship. However, attendance does not lead to any recognized diploma or certificate and in view of the rising unemployment seldom serves to help find a job.

Although no exact figures are available, it is estimated that the participation of young migrants in the regular vocational training programmes (EFG) is at a very low level, even though access is not dependent on possession of a school-leaving certificate. Many reasons have been advanced to explain this, among them a lack of information on the possibilities open, language problems (in particular with regard to technical terminology), and difficulty in following the general education content (which comprises 40% of training in the first year).

Added to such problems is the difficulty of finding a training firm or an apprenticeship at the end of the first year of training (young Danes have much less difficulty). An enquiry conducted in 1977 in the communes of Ishøj and Copenhagen showed that only 5% of the young migrants were undergoing vocational training as against 16% of the Danish youth.

## Employment or unemployment?

Young migrants who have found neither a training place nor a job may turn as a last resort to projects developed by some communes for young persons left to their own devices by the official streams of vocational training. These projects, a type of training plus work, are for the most part geared to actual production output backed by relevant theoretical instruction provided afterwards. These programmes do not lead to any recognized qualification; in most cases the participants simply find themselves working temporarily on local projects aimed at combating unemployment. The

enquiry mentioned above (Ishøj and Copenhagen) showed that at that time (1977) the rate of unemployment of young migrants was 23% (31% for young Turks) as against 9% for young persons of Danish nationality. With 33% of young migrants of the female sex having stated that they remained at home (the figure was 60% for young Pakistani women), it is evident that the rate of unemployment was in fact higher.

Total unemployment figures for migrants

of all ages corroborate the above statistics for young migrants:

The situation of migrants of the second generation, in particular their integration into working and social life, is considered in Denmark to be a matter of prime importance. More thoroughgoing scientific research on the entire problem complex and the implementation of specific official measures in the field of education and training are called for to meet this problem.

Rate of unemployment according to nationality (in %)

	Men	Women
Danes	7·8	10·8
Yugoslavs	10·9	16·1
Moroccans	17·7	18·6
Turks	16·4	26·5
Pakistanis	20·1	31·4

Source: SVUA, August 1980

## Bibliographical file

### **Foreigners in the Federal Republic of Germany and in Switzerland (Segregation and Integration, a Comparative Study)**

*Hans-Joachim Hoffmann-Nowotny and Karl-Otto Hondrich*

Campus, Frankfurt-am-Main 1981, 635 pp. (DE)

The extensive bibliography on sociological studies on the segregation (in existence) and integration (an objective yet to be achieved) of foreign workers in those European countries which import workers has been enriched by a new title.

This most recent study called for months of work on the part of two teams of sociologists directed and coordinated by H.-J. Hoffmann-Nowotny (University of Zurich) and K.-O. Hondrich (University of Frankfurt). The methodology adopted is original and paradigmatic. A comparative analysis of the presence of foreigners in the Federal Republic of Germany and in Switzerland is preceded by an accurate examination of the situation at both macro and microregional level. The preliminary investigations and enquiries were conducted in Frankfurt (Italians and Turks) and in the town of Lippstadt (Italians only) on the one hand and in Zurich (Italians and Spaniards) and Frauenfeld (Italians only) on the other. Even though specifically geared to the situation of two large cities and two towns, all with a large concentration of migrant workers, the results of this study (which takes into account both the political-administrative structure relating to foreign labour and the actual social situation of the ethnic groups involved) can justifiably be extended to cover the social reality of the two countries, which can then in turn be compared. Having stressed the legislative and social weaknesses in both countries of the policy concerning foreigners, Hoffmann-Nowotny and Hondrich proceed in the final chapter to bring forward proposals for improving the situation so as to achieve the effective integration of foreign workers, even though this is unfortunately still a long way off.

### **Bibliographical analysis of important works on young immigrants of the second generation (Situation in France – return to the country of origin)**

*Various authors*

Sedes (Société d'études pour le développement économique et social), Paris 1979, 111 pp. (FR)

This bibliographical analysis, commissioned by the Social Action Fund for Migrant Workers and published in November of 1979, consists of a critical review of selected major works on second generation immigrants, occupation with this social group having begun in the mid-1970s. Particular attention has been directed to relevant studies and bibliographical collections published in France towards the end of the 1970s (by the Ministry of Labour, CNRS and CNDP, Charlot, and Munoz and Bernard). The works cited and reviewed in this analysis number about 70 (for precise bibliographical data, see pages 104 to 111 in the Appendix). The ethnic groups of second generation migrants coming into consideration are Italian, Portuguese, Yugoslav, Algerian, Moroccan, and Tunisian nationals and nationals of other African countries. After dealing with demographic, social and economic aspects, the authors direct close attention to the most serious problems confronting second generation migrants, namely, schooling, initial vocational training, advanced vocational training, entry into working life, deviations, and unemployment. The last part of the study consists of an analysis of the process of return to the country of origin in terms of effectiveness and degree of projection. The objective sought is a new type of vocational training which will ensure the reintegration of returnees into working life in their respective home countries.

### **The classification of skilled workers in Member States of the EC**

*O. Bertrand and P. Maréchal (with the collaboration of F. Meunier)*

Cedefop, Berlin 1981, 154 pp. (DE, EN, FR)

The nomenclature and terminology used by various Member States in systems classifying occupations and vocational qualifications constitute the subject matter of this study, begun in December 1979 and completed at the end of 1980. The study results provide the basis for further treatment of this subject material and subsequent identification of vocational training requirements to be adopted and harmonized in all Member States to the degree possible. The classification systems studied were those of Belgium, Denmark, Federal Republic of Germany, France, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom. The authors provide for each system a summary dealing with relevant legislation, competent institutions, vocational training agencies, placement procedure, and when available, lists of occupations published by national ministries of labour or other bodies. The classification systems of the Member States are then briefly described from the viewpoint of originality, level of quality, etc. There follows information on demographic surveys, plans, and pilot projects in connection with certain occupational sectors, etc. A list of institutions (national and Community) visited and experts consulted on specific classification systems is also provided. With the publication of this critical analysis of the situation a gap long since evident has now been filled.

## **Demarcation of occupational groups/occupational fields with regard to vocational training at skilled level in the EC**

*Hermann Brenner*

Cedefop, Berlin 1982, 146 pp. (DE, EN, FR)

Drawing on experience gained at the Federal Institute for Vocational Training in Berlin, the author deals in this publication with problems connected with the demarcation of groups and sectors of skilled workers and employees in Member States of the EC. After critically reviewing studies on this subject matter at national and Community level (as regards Community level, see the recent publication of Bertrand and Maréchal, reviewed above), Hermann Brenner stresses the great difficulty involved in precisely delimiting identical occupational groups and sectors in order to proceed towards a system of vocational training which would be harmonized throughout the Community. It is therefore necessary to resort to a pragmatic method of approach which takes national variations into account, thus rendering it possible to demarcate homogenous occupational groups for which vocational training measures can be designed on as standardized a basis as possible. This task will fall to a committee of experts constituted at Community level, who, after having established

qualification profiles for the various occupational groups at national levels, will undertake to provide common criteria serving to regroup occupations in terms of units of training. An important source of reference for the elaboration of this complex (but urgently needed) strategy is the SEDOC system, now completed and accepted by all EC Member States.

## **Continuing training of salaried immigrants as provided for under the law of July 1971 (synthesis)**

*Various authors*

Sedes, Paris 1979, 24 pp. (FR)

This research study, commissioned by the Social Action Fund for Migrant Workers, is devoted to an empirical analysis of the situation in the field of the continuing training of salaried immigrants as provided for under the law of July 1971. The statistics are derived from personal interviews with persons responsible for vocational training in 40 firms, experts, trade union representatives, and employers. More than 200 firms, selected from throughout the country, were interviewed via mailed questionnaires. The salaried immigrants were interviewed on the basis of a sample enquiry which took into account the countries of

origin and the different occupational sectors involved. This study is useful as a source of reference in connection with the specific situation in France eight years after the law came into force.

## **European Community Information**

### **Free movement of persons within the European Community**

Office of Official Publications of the European Communities, Luxembourg 1982, 51 pp. (DA, DE, GR, FR, EN, IT, NL)

This publication will hopefully enjoy wide distribution throughout the Community, reaching in particular young people, who constitute statistically the greater part of the mobile population. Mobility should help, along with other means, to alleviate the problem of unemployment by making possible a more efficient and functionally logical distribution of manpower throughout the Community. An excellent source of information, this publication is thus helpful in gaining initial insight into the complex network of Community legislation relating to the free movement of persons.

The material dealt with (right of entry and sojourn, access to economic activity, equality of treatment as regards lodging, training, and other rights) is skilfully presented in summary form.

# Open space

The group Horeca was set up this year by Cedefop following preliminary consultation with the Commission of the European Communities. Its task is one of consultation and deliberation in connection with qualification descriptions in the hotel and restaurant sector.

The group was composed of representatives of the social partners, public administration officers, and experts, all coming from various Member States of the EC.

Attention was concentrated primarily on employee levels and skilled worker levels. Upon conclusion of its deliberations and work, the group prepared a final report.

We are happy to publish a letter which we recently received from a Dutch member of the group Horeca, one which illustrates the feasibility of achieving important objectives by using a pragmatic approach.

Naturally such objectives are subordinate to the more formal and hence more definitive objectives towards which the Community action, the Horeca project, is directed.

Subsequent to the final meeting of the group of experts held in Berlin (West) on 27 – 28 May 1982, I would like to call your attention to a number of important points.

The results of the work of the group Horeca will be published in a final report. However, in order to form an idea of the importance

of this project, it will not suffice to read this report. In fact, a number of concrete results have already been achieved which I wish to review briefly.

The SVH Onderwijscentrum van de Bedrijfsak Horeca plays at national level the role of intermediary between the sector Horeca, the public authorities, and vocational training for this sector. It furthermore carries responsibility for the apprenticeship system. The concrete results mentioned above are as follows:

the Horeca project has greatly helped to clarify the structures and the trends of development in the field of vocational training in the sector Horeca. It will help SVH to develop ideas on questions linked to the relevant occupations and to relevant vocational training such as the function of enterprises which employ apprentices and the establishment of a system of progressive remuneration during the years of training;

SVH is taking part in a general discussion on the question as to whether it is necessary to provide special vocational training for cooks in community kitchens or would suffice to provide a single type of vocational training for both community kitchen and restaurant cooks. This exchange of ideas has been very useful;

SVH is considering the possibility of annexing to the diploma issued to cooks and

waiters a text in several languages describing the organization and content of training undergone. If this idea is followed through by SVH, the text could be of use in connection with job descriptions established within the framework of the Horeca project;

SVH intends to respond to requests from skilled workers in the sector Horeca that they be enabled to acquire occupational experience abroad. A stay abroad would enable these workers to acquire a knowledge of the language and customs of tourists who visit the Netherlands;

within the framework of the Horeca project organizations in the sector Horeca in eight countries have been contacted by SVH. Since SVH is mainly concerned with specific questions, it is now able to proceed to direct consultation on problems linked with feasible ways and means of adding to the curriculum of training for waiters subject matter aimed at fostering and improving their social attitudes.

In conclusion I would like to remark that in spite of slow and difficult discussions, I have found it very useful indeed to be able to cooperate in the Horeca project.

*B. Rijgersberg*

Head, SVH apprenticeship system  
NL – Zoetermeer

## Skilled workers:

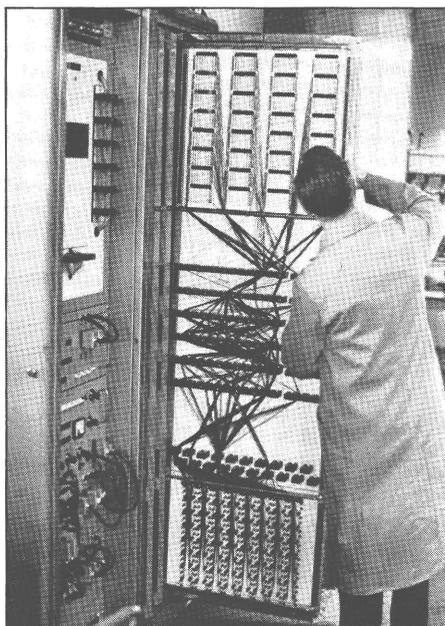
### approximation of diplomas of vocational training within the Community

Discussion on the approximation of levels of vocational training is not new. In the second half of the 1960s the services of the Commission of the European Community proposed that such recognition be achieved and listed as objectives the need to:

- initiate a comparison of the essential components of the vocational training curricula of the various Member States for the purpose of facilitating the implementation of a common vocational training policy;
- persuade decision-makers in this field to initiate an exchange of experience and information for the purpose of gradually achieving the approximation of various types of vocational training qualifications;
- implement, as laid down in the Treaty of Rome, the right to the approximation of titles (diplomas, certificates, etc.) for the purpose of creating in all Member States conditions facilitating more effectively the free movement of persons in the liberal professions, self-employed workers, and wage or salary-earning workers;
- contribute more effectively to the improvement and harmonization of living and working conditions in all regions of the Community, undertaking thereby to actively promote vocational training; this became feasible within the framework of the EC social action programme of 1974. Consensus prevailed that in order to attain these objectives it would be necessary to set up the proper machinery.

#### A question of method

In the beginning, up to the early years of the 1970s, efforts were directed towards achieving the harmonization of vocational training content in the Member States. Steps were taken to draw up career profiles and monographs in order to determine what theoretical knowledge and practical skills were called for in each occupation or occupational group. Early results took the form of monographs on occupations in the metal-working industry (turner, milling machine operator, planer, etc.). These monographs took into account vocational training con-



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*The occupational group of electricians was selected, as this sector is subject to constant change requiring continual adaptation.*

tent but neglected by force of circumstances to give at least in part due attention to the development of these occupations as spurred on by the increasingly rapid changes taking place in the working world.

At that time two basic preconditions had not yet been met:

- there was need for a classification of occupations geared in principle to Community level. In the meantime this need has been filled by the SEDOC system;\*
- there was need for a common definition of levels of vocational training which could be referred to in analysing a specific level of training. In the meantime agreement concerning definitions has been reached via concerted action on the part of the Member States, the organizations of the social partners, and the EC Commission (see Annex).

\* SEDOC: a Community system serving to facilitate the coordination of manpower supply and manpower demand.

Once these preconditions had been met, it became possible to abandon efforts to harmonize vocational training content within the Community and embark on a more promising task. It had become evident that for various reasons little practical benefit could be drawn from an attempt to achieve such harmonization, not one of the least reasons being the highly diversified nature of the vocational training system and vocational training curricula both within the individual Member States and at Community level, above all following the expansion of the Community from six to nine Member States. Added to this problem was that of continuous change in vocational training content in the face of an economic and social situation undergoing rapid transformation at national level. Processes of swift change impinging on the production systems provoke in turn, either directly or indirectly, changes in training content.

#### A new methodological approach

Complying with a request from the Commission of the European Communities, the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training terminated its efforts to harmonize vocational training content and is now engaged in developing a new methodological approach.

The point of departure of this approach is the identification of occupational requirements as determined by working world reality.

It was considered advisable at the start to limit attention to the level of skilled worker, evidence showing that the need to standardize the level of qualification was closely correlated with the high degree of mobility apparent at this level. The occupational group of electricians was selected.

Taken as the basic source of reference was the SEDOC classification, which provides a definition in the six official languages of the Community of each of the various occupational groups and individual occupations in the fields of electronics, electrical engineering, and telecommunications technology.

# Europe



Motor vehicle mechanics sector.

The task assigned to Cedefop was to constitute, in agreement with the Commission of the European Communities and following consultation with the representatives of the national governments and the social partners, a group of experts consisting of nine technicians, each coming from a competent organization of their respective Member State. In other words, a working group was set up under Cedefop management of nine experts in vocational training and observers representing the European Trade Union Confederation, the Union of the Industries of the European Community, and the Union of Craft Industries of the European Community.

Its main task being that of analysis, the working group limited its attention to five occupations which are prevalent in all Member States: electrical fitter, electrical fitter (motors, generators, transformers), electrical fitter (switchgear and control equipment), electrician (installation and maintenance), maintenance electrician, telephone fitter, and service mechanic (domestic radio, television receivers).

Drawing on the SEDOC classification, a description of each occupation was elaborated consisting of a generic definition of the respective jobs and a descriptive list of the job activities, or vocational requirements connected with the jobs. Only those vocational requirements were dealt with which corresponded with the ascertained real needs of the working world.

The group then drew up a classification of specific occupations to which qualifications established by the respective Member States corresponded. Taken for granted was the fact that in spite of difficulties of both organizational and curricular nature, the vocational requirements in force in the respective Member States could be compared in terms of training, given the homogenous nature of the respective socio-economic and technological systems.

The group of experts concluded their work by recommending that the mutual recognition of diplomas, certificates, and other titles confirming acquisition of vocational qualifications in line with vocational re-

quirements be made subject to completion of a specific period of job experience (*circa*, one year); this provision would, however, have to be waived when feasible in the case of young skilled workers unable to gain such job experience because of a tight labour market situation.

Such an approach would make it possible, among other things, to disregard differences in the organizational structure of vocational training, also in the event that at Community level the right becomes recognized to pursue an occupation at a specific level.

## The ongoing decision process

This method has also been applied in connection with another occupational group in the motor vehicle mechanics sector, and provisional conclusion at technical level has now been reached. Cedefop also set up a group of experts for the Horeca sector (tourism and hotel industry) and 'Edilizia'. In all probability two other groups will be

instituted next year, one for metalworking and one for agriculture. On average a group of experts must come together six to eight times, with about one year passing between the initiation of work and approval of the final report, prepared in all six languages of the Community. The Community institutions have not taken decision regarding political specificities. Under consideration is the possibility of having the Commission of the European Communities propose to the Council for approval a skeleton law, the opinion of the Advisory Committee on Vocational Training having previously been obtained.

The Member States are called upon to place at the disposition of interested workers and employers and of services in charge of vocational training, career guidance, and employment all information and suggestions which may be useful in creating conditions of comparison. Of equal importance is the objective of providing an instrument

serving to guarantee the level of professionalism for workers in the Community moving from one Member State to another within the framework of geographical mobility and at the same time providing employers with the opportunity to inform themselves on common parameters of job classification *vis-à-vis* level of qualification.

Discussion within the Advisory Committee is now in its final phase, and a communication to the Council of Ministers of the European Communities is now in preparation.

The pragmatic nature of this methodological approach also constitutes the method's most significant connotation as regards:

- the opening up of perspectives for its application in combination with other initiatives aimed at fostering training measures in occupational sectors which provide employment opportunities at international level;

- the prospect of establishing for the medium term a Community frame of reference which will make possible the approximation of levels of qualification without thereby impinging on the specificities of national vocational training systems;

- the probability that the onset of exchange of information and experience will spark off a dynamic development destined to bring closer to realization the approximation of levels of qualification and thus avoid the danger of that rigidity setting in which would result from the search for a *de jure* solution;

- the possibility of utilizing the method and the derived frame of reference also at the level of regional or local initiative.

This all remains obviously subject to the condition that the political bodies of the Community and likewise the Member States and the social partners give clear indication of their approval and of their interest in providing full support.

## Structure of levels of training

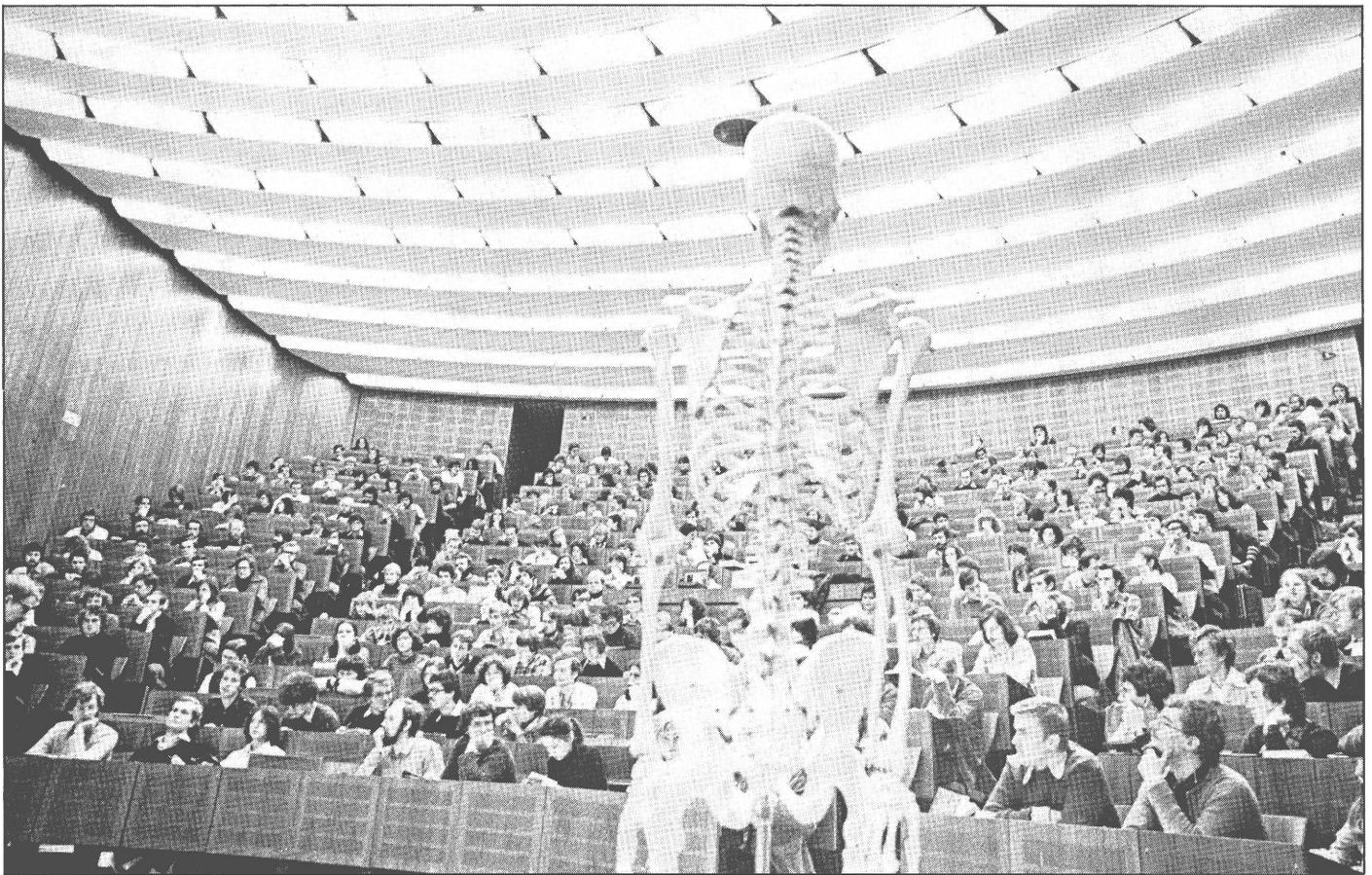
<b>Level 1</b>	<p><b>Access to this level: completion of compulsory schooling plus completion of technical or vocational preparation</b></p> <p>This preparation is received either at school, within the framework of the informal sector, or within the firm. Very little theoretical knowledge and few practical skills are involved.</p> <p>This qualification, which can be obtained fairly rapidly, enables its holder to take up a relatively simple job.</p>
<b>Level 2</b>	<p><b>Access to this level: completion of compulsory schooling plus completion of technical or vocational training (including apprenticeship)</b></p> <p>This level corresponds to a qualification obtained for a well defined occupational activity which implies a mastery of the instruments and techniques used in carrying out this activity.</p> <p>In principle this activity takes the form of execution of a specific task, which execution can be autonomous within the limits of the techniques proper to the task.</p>
<b>Level 3</b>	<p><b>Access to this level: completion of compulsory schooling plus completion of either or technical or vocational school and integrative technical training and qualification secondary school/technical school at lower secondary school level</b></p> <p>More theoretical knowledge is required at this level than is the case at Level 2. Primarily involved is the execution of an occupational activity which can be carried out autonomously and/or entail other responsibilities such as those of programming and coordination.</p>
<b>Level 4</b>	<p><b>Access to this level: completion of lower secondary schooling (secondary school or technical/vocational school at lower secondary school level) plus technical training at upper secondary school level</b></p> <p>Involved is technical specialization at upper secondary school level which can be acquired within either the formal or the informal school system. The qualification obtained covers knowledge and attitudes acquired at upper secondary school level but does not confirm mastery of the scientific fundamentals of the subject matter involved. The knowledge and attitudes acquired enable the qualification holder to take over a job involving independent responsibility within the framework of an occupational activity consisting of programming and/or administration and/or management.</p>
<b>Level 5</b>	<p><b>Access to this level: completion of lower secondary schooling (secondary school or technical/vocational school at lower secondary school level) plus completion of upper secondary schooling</b></p> <p>Persons qualified at this level are equipped to take over a professional job on either a salaried or a self-employed basis. Implied is the mastery of the scientific fundamentals of the profession involved.</p>

# Europe

Commission of the European Communities

## Free movement and the mutual recognition of diplomas

FMG – CEDEFOP



*A physician is required to have completed at least six years of higher education studies or 5 500 hour units of theory and practice.*

The Treaty establishing the European Economic Community proclaims four basic rights underlying the common market: the free movement of goods, persons, services, and capital. In general the free movement of goods could be rapidly achieved via prohibition between Member States of customs duties on imports and exports, adoption of a common customs tariff in relation to third countries, etc. Progress has been more difficult and much slower with regard to the other three rights. The free movement of persons and the free movement of services continue to run up against obstacles of varying nature.

### Removal of existing obstacles

Some of these obstacles are linked to the question of nationality and involve national legislation prohibiting foreigners from entering national territory and restricting employment exclusively to nationals in certain economic sectors. However, the Treaty of Rome called for the abolition as of 1 January 1970 of any discrimination based on nationality between workers of the Member States: every citizen of a Member State has the right, confirmed by the Court of Justice, to take up and pursue activities

as a worker or self-employed person in the territory of another Member State (under the same provisions as obtain for nationals of that State) and to institute legal proceedings to protect this right in the case of discrimination.

Other obstacles to the free movement of persons stem from national provisions applicable to both nationals and foreigners which in the general interest make access to a profession subject to the fulfilment of more or less strict conditions such as guarantee of credibility or of training level as confirmed by diplomas, certificates, and

other titles. This applies primarily to activities carried out as self-employed persons but likewise to activities carried out as employed persons in specified professions (in the field of medicine, for example).

Conditions governing access to certain economic activities can vary considerably from Member State to Member State. Here the obstacle is no longer a question of nationality of the person involved but rather that of the nationality of the diploma or title held. The result is nearly always the same, however, with differences existing between the various national systems creating obstacles to professional mobility which must be overcome if the intent is to facilitate the exercise of those economic activities and professions which are subject to proof of acquisition of specialized qualifications.

To this end nearly 75 directives have been adopted over the last 20 years.



*As of January 1983 midwives will likewise be able to practice their profession in all Member States.*

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Principal sectors	Number of directives
Liberal professions	14
Bank, insurance companies, financial services	11
Agriculture, sylviculture, horticulture	10
Commercial activities	7
Industrial manufacture	5
Cinema	4
Transport	4

In many cases, above all for most of the activities in the industrial, handicraft, and commercial sectors, it suffices to simply free access to the activity or to institute transitory measures aimed at facilitating such access via recognition by the host Member State, usually in terms of a specified number of years of professional experience gained in the Member State of origin.

In the other cases it has been necessary to elaborate more complex measures involving the harmonization of conditions governing the exercise of the profession, particularly as regards training required. This is the case in certain professions in the field of public health.

## A procedure well tested

For five professions in the field of public health, namely, physicians, dentists, veterinary surgeons, nurses, and midwives, a

method was found to regulate the mutual recognition of academic diplomas under titles of formal qualification within the Community. At the proposal of the Commission the Council of Ministers issued a series of directives supported by a call for the creation of advisory committees. The purpose of this method was to facilitate mobility and at the same time retain all necessary guarantees as regards the regulations of each Member State governing the exercise of a specific profession.

For each of the above five professions a system was set up involving;

- a directive on the coordination of conditions of training;
- a directive on the mutual recognition of diplomas;
- creation of an advisory committee on training in the respective profession.

In addition, a committee composed of high-level public health officials was set up

and charged with the task of gathering all useful information on conditions under which medical care was provided in order to examine in joint effort problems which could arise from the application of these directives. It was then to propose any amendment considered necessary.

## 'Coordination'

The five directives on coordination, being based on the similarity of training in all Member States, call for minimum norms only, leaving it to the discretion of each Member State to otherwise organize training as it sees fit. These minimum norms, adapted to varying and more or less detailed modalities according to the profession involved, establish minimum criteria concerning access to specialized training, duration of such training, method of instruction, site of training, and training process control. Stipulations are for the most part general in nature, although detailed stipulations govern in certain cases the respective course of training.

A physician is required to have completed at least six years of higher education studies or 5 500 hour units of theory and practice (curriculum is not specified). Physicians specializing in a particular field of medicine must have completed supplementary training lasting from three to five years. In general nurses are required to have completed ten years of primary plus secondary school plus three years or 4600 hour units of

# Europe

vocational training; these minimum requirements are valid in all Member States. With regard to dentists, the texts stipulate what subject matter is to be taught in all Member States during a five-year period of higher education studies. Since Italy does not award a diploma in the field of dentistry, a legal respite has been granted to this country so that it will have time to organize training leading to a diploma.

As of January 1983 midwives will likewise be able to practice their profession in all Member States, provided they have completed specialized training lasting between 18 months and three years, depending on whether or not they already possess a nurse's diploma and have had a specified amount of professional experience. The specialized training curriculum must include a certain number of basic subjects, but a period of professional experience lasting at least three years during a period of transition aimed at protecting the rights acquired can serve to meet this requirement.

These variants make it possible to overcome obstacles created by the great diversity characterizing the training systems of the various Member States and thus guarantee both the free right of establishment and the mutual recognition of formal qualifications for persons intending to take up work in another Member State.

## Mutual recognition

Parallel to the five directives on coordination are five directives on mutual recognition envisaging for each profession respectively 'the mutual recognition of diplomas, certificates, and other titles and consisting of measures intended to facilitate exercise of the right of establishment and freedom to provide services'.

This mutual recognition does not confirm equivalence of the diplomas but rather acknowledges (on the basis of minimum norms set by the directives on coordination) the qualification acquired and sanctioned by issuance of these diplomas. The directives specify in each language of each Member State the exact titles of the activities involved and the diplomas and other titles permitting access to the profession. It is the responsibility of each Member State to ensure that with regard to access to and

exercise of activities the diplomas of another Member State which are recognized have the same value as do its diplomas.

One problem which may arise is that of knowledge of the language of the host country required to carry on an activity there. The directives call upon each Member State to take such measures as will enable persons coming from another Member State to acquire in their own interest and in that of their patients command of its language at the level considered necessary. There were those who had hoped that a host Member State would be allowed to check by means of a test the level of language command before permitting incoming members of the medical profession to take up work either temporarily or permanently in its territory. Already called for under the ethics of the medical profession, however, is adequate knowledge of the language of the patient, and it would therefore be discriminatory and contrary to the Treaty to establish a supplementary restrictive condition such as a language test. Measures have also been called for enabling the incoming professionals to become informed on developments in the fields of public health, social legislation, and dentology.

## Five advisory committees

These directives are testimony to mutual trust among the Member States, trust with regard to dedication to the task of arriving at and ensuring a high, comparable level of training within the Community. The directives on coordination therefore call for ongoing evaluation of progress in line with the criteria established. It can be said that the degree of harmonization achieved to date has made it possible via the development of curricula and teaching methods to maintain within a Member State the complete unity of courses of study resulting from the mutual recognition of diplomas. The latitude allowed the Member States by having set minimum qualitative and quantitative criteria, only, thus allowing for the organization of training at a level higher than that prescribed by the directive of coordination, makes regular monitoring and evaluation necessary. The mutual recognition of diplomas and other titles would in fact be endangered if major differences between training levels were

allowed to develop after minimum criteria had been complied with.

In the interest of assisting the Commission in achieving an approximation of courses of training via either legal instruments at Community level or action taken at Member State level, decision was taken to establish for each of the five medical professions an advisory committee which would concern itself with the directives on coordination and those on mutual recognition. Each committee consists of three experts from each Member State, namely,

- an expert who practises the respective profession;
- an expert from a university or similar establishment providing training;
- an expert from the competent administration.

Charged with the task of submitting to the Commission and the Member States opinions and recommendations in the field of academic training, the committees undertake to:

- exchange information on the content, level, and methods of training, including the adaptation of this training to scientific progress and innovations in teaching methods;
- exchange views and conduct consultations on ways and means of raising the level of training in accordance with a common concept.

## Other professions

Other professions are likewise coordinated on the basis of the mutual recognition of diplomas.

Examples are hairdressers, travel agents, and carriers. With regard to the profession of lawyer only the freedom to provide services has been made the subject matter of an agreement, the right of establishment still being under study. Proposals have been submitted by the Commission to the Council regarding the professions of architect, engineer, and pharmacist, and negotiations are under way (in some cases since 1967). Complementary directives with regard to practitioners of general medicine and to nurses are in preparation, and the Commission is expected to propose directives for the paramedical professions and the profession of chemist in the coming years.

Commission of the European Communities

## The academic recognition of diplomas and of periods of study

*Ronald G. Martin*

Principal Administrator  
Directorate-General for Social Affairs

The academic recognition of diplomas and of periods of study among the Member States of the European Community is a vital factor in the achievement of freedom of movement for persons in the Community – whether they be workers or self-employed persons, or persons still within the educational system as students, teachers or researchers. All Community citizens must be able, if they so desire, to live and work or study anywhere in the Community without let or hindrance, and have their qualifications or any periods of study undertaken in any other country or countries of the Community, duly recognized and accredited. Unfortunately – more than twenty-five years after the signing of the Treaty of Rome it is still far from being a reality.

There remain many problems, often resulting in cases of severe individual hardship. There are, in practice, many serious obstacles still to be overcome, which currently impede the mobility of students, teachers and researchers, and workers throughout the Community. Many anomalies, misunderstandings and injustices result from a general widespread lack of authoritative knowledge and information on mutual recognition matters. This is evidenced by the very considerable volume of correspondence and other enquiries addressed to the Community institutions by individuals, institutions and employers, on the relative value of qualifications acquired or of periods of study undertaken in other Member States. There is often no methodology or procedure for such comparison or evaluation.

As the Commission indicated in a Communication which it sent to the Council on 29 April 1981, on the academic recognition of



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diplomas and of periods of study\*, there are five separate levels at which the problems of the relative value of qualifications or of periods of study arise, namely: –

- entry into a first higher education course in another Member State;
- transfer, without the loss of acquired rights, from a higher education course commenced in one Member State, to a similar course in another Member State;
- pursuit of postgraduate studies or research in another Member State;
- taking up employment or self-employed activities in one Member State with quali-

cations obtained in another Member State;

- career development and progression in another Member State.

In seeking solutions to these problems, the Commission has based its proposals and actions on those basic Community instruments designed to assure the freedom of movement for persons within the Community, and the recognition of their qualifications. These are the Treaty establishing the European Economic Community\*\*, the directives resulting from the implementation of certain articles of the Treaty, Council Regulation No 1612/68 of 15 October

\* Commission document COM(81) 186 final of 29. 4. 1981.

\*\* Rome, 25. 3. 1957.

# Europe

1968 on the freedom of movement for workers within the Community, the Council resolution of 6 June 1974 on the mutual recognition of diplomas, certificates and other evidence of formal qualifications\*, and the resolution of the Council and the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council, of 9 February 1976\*\* which provides for action to be undertaken at Community level to increase the possibilities for the academic recognition of diplomas and of periods of study. The preamble to the Treaty of Rome affirmed the determination of the High Contracting Parties to 'lay the foundations of an ever closer union among the peoples of Europe' and their resolution 'to ensure the economic and social progress of their countries by common action to eliminate the barriers which divide Europe'. In Article 3, one of the principal activities of the Community to this end was 'the abolition of obstacles to the freedom of movement for persons'.

These objectives are developed more fully in subsequent articles of the Treaty. Article 57 in particular provides that 'in order to make it easier for persons to take up and pursue activities as self-employed persons, the Council may issue directives for the mutual recognition of diplomas, certificates and other evidence of formal qualifications'. These already exist for doctors, dentists, veterinary surgeons, nurses and midwives. Draft directives for various other liberal professions are in various stages of consideration in the Council. Reference should also be made to Article 128, which requires the Council to 'lay down general principles for implementing a common vocational training policy' as one of the means of developing national economies and the common market. The Council Decision of 2 April 1963 established such principles. In particular, the eighth principle provided for such a policy to be so framed 'so as to enable levels of training to be harmonized progressively' and for 'the mutual recognition of certificates and other documents confirming completion of vocational training'.

Work has therefore proceeded in three main directions. For the liberal professions, the step-by-step, profession-by-profession approach has been adopted, with separate Community directives relating to the

mutual recognition of qualifications for each relevant profession. For vocational training generally, work has been undertaken by the Commission, with the technical assistance of Cedefop, through the Advisory Committee for Vocational Training and its working groups, to define a Community structure of levels of training, and to compare standards of training and the diplomas, certificates and other qualifications relating to them, as a first move towards the mutual acceptability of vocational training qualifications throughout the Community, leading eventually and if necessary to their full mutual recognition. Finally, with regard to the *academic*, as opposed to the *professional*, recognition of diplomas, work has proceeded in the Education Committee and in the Council and the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council, to respond to the mandate given by Education ministers in the Council resolution of 9 February 1976\*\*, to prepare appropriate proposals for consideration by ministers, designed to overcome the problems of the academic recognition of diplomas and of periods of study among the various Member States. It is with this latter aspect of the total problem that the remainder of this article is concerned.

In the 1976 resolution, ministers called for 'the drawing up of a report analysing the current situation with regard to the academic recognition of diplomas, and containing proposals for the improvement of the situation'. The Commission's initial analysis of the problem, and its proposals for guidelines for future work in this field, contained in its April 1981 Communication to the Council\*\*\*, was discussed by the Council and Ministers of Education at their meeting on 22 June 1981. Broad agreement was reached with regard to guidelines for future discussions on the subject. In particular, it was stressed that Community activities regarding the mutual recognition of diplomas and of periods of study should be based on the multilateral conventions of the Council of Europe and of UNESCO, to which all the Member States are signatories, and should complement and supplement them. In addition, bilateral and where possible multilateral agreements on courses or part-courses, and inter-institutional agreements should be promoted. The existing Community scheme of grants for the development of joint programmes of study between institutions of higher education was seen as a particularly valuable medium for the progressive development of inter-institutional mutual recognition arrange-

ments. Finally, ministers considered that the existing information network on education in the European Community (EURYDICE), working in close collaboration with Cedefop, could be used for assembling and disseminating verified information on academic qualifications and periods of study, and on the recognition of qualifications in the fields of technical education and vocational training at higher level. Ministers instructed the Education Committee, as a matter of priority, to draw up a report containing possible guidelines for the future. The Education Committee presented such a report to the Council and the Ministers of Education at their session of 24 May 1982. The report was adopted by Ministers at that meeting. In it, the Education Committee had suggested, *inter alia*, that

- information on the successful application of existing bilateral and multi-lateral agreements, as well as information on the academic qualifications awarded in the Member States, should be widely disseminated with the assistance of EURYDICE and designated centres in the Member States, and in collaboration with the Council of Europe;

- there should be positive encouragement to students in higher education to study in another Member State;

- the competent authorities in the Member States should treat the question of qualifications obtained in other Member States in a spirit of generosity and mutual trust;

- direct agreements between universities and other higher education institutions should be fostered, and the existing scheme of joint programmes of study between higher education institutions in different Member States further developed;

- measures to promote academic recognition of diplomas should be accompanied by other measures to reduce the obstacles and constraints currently limiting student mobility between higher education institutions in the Community. At the same time, reception arrangements and guidance offered to students from other Member States should be improved.

In preparing its report, the Education Committee had reviewed the extent and application of existing bilateral and multilateral conventions and agreements, as well as cooperative experience between universities and other institutions of higher education within the Community. In addition, the Committee also took into account the work on the approximation of levels of training

\* Official Journal European Communities C98 of 20. 8. 1974.

\*\* Official Journal European Communities C38 of 19. 2. 1976.

\*\*\* Commission document COM(81)186 final of 29. 4. 1981.

conducted by the Working Party set up by the Commission under the Advisory Committee for Vocational Training, and that subsequently carried out on behalf of the Commission by Cedefop. It was necessary for a distinction to be drawn however between this work and that being done on academic recognition, as well as for a clear distinction to be drawn between the two aspects of the recognition of qualifications, namely academic recognition intended to facilitate mobility between institutions of higher education, and professional recognition for the purposes of taking up and pursuing particular activities in the liberal professions. In adopting the Education Committee's report, the Council and Ministers of Education decided that further

work was necessary in this field. More specifically, they agreed to the setting up within the Education Committee of a working party charged with examining the current situation regarding the recognition of diplomas and of periods of study in the various Member States, and with examining the social and material situation of nationals of other Member States, their terms of admission to courses, and the reception extended to them.

This working party commenced its work in September 1982, on the preparation of a report to the Education Committee, so as to enable that Committee to prepare its own report to the Council and the Ministers of Education at a subsequent meeting.

It is hoped that any measures subsequently proposed will open up the way for greatly increased mobility throughout the Community for students, teachers and researchers. To some extent these categories of individual are, by virtue of the difficulties they currently experience over the recognition of their qualifications and periods of study undertaken, technically denied the benefits of freedom of movement – enshrined in the treaty of Rome – and enjoyed by other categories of persons. But until the remaining obstacles which currently impede free movement between higher education or other educational establishments in the various Member States are eliminated, the real meaning of the Community to the persons concerned will remain largely illusory.

## The Council of Europe and academic mobility

*Jean-Pierre Massué*

Head, Division of Higher Education and Research

The mobility of students, professors, and researchers is one of the determinant factors involved in the task of creating a European academic community.

Efforts of the Council of Europe to foster academic mobility are aimed at improving the flow of information and smoothing out legal, administrative, and financial entanglements.

### Activities undertaken by the Council of Europe

■ One question related to mobility, indeed one of the essential aspects, is that of the equivalence of diplomas and recognition of periods of study abroad. Activities undertaken by the Council of Europe in this direction since 1974 have involved the preparation of three European conventions on the equivalence of diplomas and a European agreement on the provision of scholarships for students wishing to study abroad (see Annex I).

The three European conventions, ratified by most of the Member States, have been evaluated and are now in force; they greatly facilitate mobility above all with regard to access to university and periods of study abroad.

■ The mobility of students, teachers, and researchers greatly strengthens relations established between universities and university departments and laboratories for the purpose of cooperation. However, the development of these relations cannot progress satisfactorily without the support of an information network on questions of mobility and equivalency. Resolution 10 (1974) of the Council of Europe therefore recommended that in each Member State of the Council for Educational Cooperation of the Council of Europe an information centre be set up. This resolution led to an

action programme aimed at establishing a European network of equivalence information centres. This action programme was also taken under consideration by the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe. The Assembly's Recommendation 762 (1975) called for the 'mutual recognition of diplomas in post-secondary education' (Doc. 3648, report of M. Roper).

■ In 1978 the Council of Europe, pursuant to the recommendation contained in a report on the 'Projet spécial Mobilité' submitted to the Council for Educational Cooperation in 1977 by Rector J. Capelle (F), directed its efforts towards the creation of a European network of mobility information centres.

The list of equivalence information centres and mobility information centres is contained in Annex II.

■ An important task in the field of mobility has been the creation of a system of higher education scholarships. Established in 1973 in accordance with Recommendation 19 of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe (1973), this system provides scholarships for graduate students and young researchers of Member States of the Council for Educational Cooperation of the Council of Europe. These scholarships serve to finance studies and research work in Europe.

Countries providing scholarships for the university year 1982-83 are Austria, Federal Republic of Germany, France, Greece, Italy, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, and Turkey.

■ At the request of the Standing Conference on University Problems a students' guide was published in 1980 in order to provide further information on opportunities open to students to follow their studies at an institution of tertiary education of a Member State of the Council for Educational Cooperation. This students' guide is

supplementary to that published by the European Community covering Member States of the Council for Educational Cooperation which are not Member States of the Community.

### Future activities

Following up on a conference held in Vienna in October of 1981 on academic mobility in Europe, the Standing Conference on University Problems has scheduled a conference in Stockholm in October 1982 for the purpose of implementing the conclusions adopted in Vienna. The objectives are as follows:

- elaboration of a European programme on short-term periods of study abroad;
- provision of more support for the work of the European network of equivalence information centres and mobility information centres;
- proposal of measures designed to encourage the mobility of university teachers;
- revision of the Council of Europe's system of higher education scholarships in order to render it more flexible and adapt it expediently to current and anticipated future needs.

Within the context of a project aimed at establishing a European network of university students' associations work is now being directed towards improving social measures related to student mobility (social services for students).

Under the European programme for the development of tertiary education (third cycle) a number of aspects are of interest here. This project is aimed at adapting postgraduate education curricula to increased knowledge on needs in the social field and to opportunities opening up through this increase in knowledge.

This approach involves the establishment of short courses in the field of tertiary education in specific disciplines within a framework of cooperation among European institutions of tertiary education (universities and other comparable establishments) and collaboration with the sectors of disciplines and research involved. Since 1979 a total of 25 such courses have been launched in Europe and attended by approximately 650 professors and 800 students from 30 countries.

In October 1983 a conference is scheduled to take place on the theme of European universities from the perspective of the year 2000: policies of tertiary education and research in Europe in the coming decade.

This conference will seek to formulate concrete proposals and recommendations leading to the immediate implementation of measures at institutional, regional, national, and European level to improve the effectiveness of research institutions and tertiary education institutions. It will examine in particular the question of the optimal utilization of all resources of higher education and research in Europe in this period of economic constraints, including maintenance of research quality in the interest of ensuring balanced development in Europe within the context of continual technological exchange. Problems of intra-European mobility will naturally constitute a focal point of discussion and deliberation.

## I Conventions and European agreements of the Council of Europe and their state of ratification as of 15 December 1981

Conventions	States having ratified	States which are not members of the Council of Europe having noted their accession
<p>1. European convention on the equivalence of diplomas qualifying for university admission Paris 11. 12. 1953 (signed) 20. 4. 1954 (entered into force)</p> <p>Additional protocol, European convention on the equivalence of diplomas qualifying for university admission Strasbourg 3. 6. 1964 (signed) 4. 7. 1964 (entered into force)</p>	<p><b>A-B-CY-DK-F D-GR-IS-IR I-L-M-NL-N-P E (accession)-S TR-UK</b></p> <p><b>B-DK-F-D-I L-NL-N-P-S-UK</b></p>	<p><b>Israel, YU New Zealand</b></p> <p><b>YU, New Zealand</b></p>
<p>2. European convention on the equivalence of periods of university study Paris 15. 12. 1956 (signed) 19. 9. 1957 (entered into force)</p>	<p><b>A-B-DK-F-D IS-IR-I-L-M NL-N-P-S-UK</b></p>	<p><b>YU</b></p>
<p>3. European convention on academic recognition of university qualifications Paris 14. 12. 1959 (signed) 27. 11. 1961 (entered into force)</p>	<p><b>A-B-DK-F-D IS-L-NL-E (accession) UK</b></p>	<p><b>YU, Saint-Siège</b></p>
<p>4. European agreement on the maintenance of scholarships for students pursuing their studies abroad Paris 12. 12. 1969 (signed) 2. 10. 1971 (entered into force)</p>	<p><b>CY-F-D-IS L-NL-E (accession) UK</b></p>	

## II National information centres in the fields of mobility and equivalence

- Austria:** Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung, Abt. 174, Postfach 65, Minoritenplatz 5, A-1014 Vienna
- Belgium:** (French sector) Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale et de la Culture Française, Secrétariat Général, Cité Administrative de l'État, Bloc D - 7<sup>e</sup> étage, Quartier Arcades, Rue Royale 204, B-1010 Brussels; (Dutch sector) Ministerie van National Opveding en Nederlands Cultuur, Bestuur Hoger Onderwijs en Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek, Rijksadministratief Centrum, Arkaden - 4 verdieping, B-Brussels
- Cyprus:** The Ministry of Education, CY-Nicosia
- Denmark:** The Ministry of Education, Frederiksholms Kanal 21, DK-1220 Copenhagen
- Federal Republic of Germany:** (Equivalence) Zentralstelle für Ausländische Bildungswesen bei der Ständigen Konferenz der Kultusminister der Länder, Nassestraße 8, D-5300 Bonn; (Mobility) Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst, Kennedy-Allee 50, D-5300 Bonn
- France:** Ministère de l'éducation nationale, Délégation aux relations Universitaires internationales, Bureau des Échanges Scientifiques, 173 bld. St. Germain, F-75006 Paris
- Greece:** The Ministry of National Education and Religion, 15 Metropoleos Street, GR-118 Athens
- Iceland:** The Ministry for Education and Culture, IS-Reykjavik
- Ireland:** Department of Education, Marlborough Street, IR-Dublin 1; Higher Education Authority, 21 Fitzwilliam Square, IR-Dublin 2; National Council for Educational Awards, 26 Mountjoy Square, IR-Dublin 1
- Italy:** Ministero della Pubblica Istruzione, Direzione Generale per l'Istruzione Universitaria, Divisione VII, Viale Trastevere 76, I-00100 Rome, Ministero degli Affari Esteri, Direzione per la cooperazione Culturale, Scientifica e Tecnica, Ufficio VI, Piazzale della Farnesina, I-00100 Rome
- Luxembourg:** (Equivalence) Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, 6, boulevard Royal, L-Luxembourg; Commission d'Équivalence, Centre Universitaire, Avenue de la Faiencerie, L-Luxembourg  
(Mobility) Orientation Scolaire 7, rue Pierre-d'Aspelt, L-Luxembourg
- Malta:** (Equivalence) National Equivalence Information Centre, Education Department, Lascaris, M-Valletta
- The Netherlands:** NUFFIC, Department of Information and Study Assessment, Badhuisweg 251, PO Box 90734, NL-2509 The Hague
- Norway:** Interinstitutional Committee of University and Colleges, Secretariat of the University of Bergen, N-Bergen
- Portugal:** Ministério da Educação e Ciência, D.G. do Ensino Superior, Av. 5 de Outubro, no. 107-7, P-Lisbon
- Spain:** Ministerio de Education y Ciencia, Sous-Direction Générale de la Coopération Internationale, Calle Cartagena 83, E-Madrid
- Sweden:** National Equivalence Information Centre, The Information Office, Swedish National Board of Universities and Colleges, PB 45501, S-10430 Stockholm
- Switzerland:** Office central universitaire suisse, Sophienstraße 2, CH-8332 Zurich
- Turkey:** (Equivalence) Denklik Bürosu Müsaviri, Talim Terbiye Dairesi, Milli Egitim Bakanligi, TR-Ankara; (Mobility) Ministry of Education, Department of External Relations and Turkish Scientific and Technical Research Council (TURITAK), TR-Ankara
- United Kingdom:** National Equivalence Information Centre, The British Council, Higher Education Department, 10 Spring Gardens, UK-London SW1 2BN
- Finland:** Department for Higher Education and Research, Ministry of Education, Rauhankatu 4, SF-00170 Helsinki 17
- Saint-Siège:** Congrazione per l'educazione cattolica, Pzzle Pio XII no. 3, I-Rome

# Europe

International Labour Office

## Second generation migrants

*FMG – CEDEFOP*

The International Labour Organization (ILO) launched in 1980 a European regional project\* on second generation migrants. Financed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), this project is aimed at young migrants of the following countries: Greece, Portugal, Turkey, and Yugoslavia.\*\* Its objective is to 'facilitate the professional, social, and cultural integration of migrants of the second generation into the country of employment and likewise into the country of origin in the case of voluntary return'. The main concern of the projects is to make certain that second generation migrants do not become 'double foreigners', foreigners to the country in which they live and foreigners to their country of origin. Within this context two areas of intervention have priority:

- transition from school to working life, in particular access to vocational training;
- maintenance and reinforcement of cultural ties between the young migrants and the country of origin of their parents.

Project UNDP/ILO takes the form of tripartite technical seminars, of which the first was conducted in Lisbon in 1981 and the second in Granada in 1982, and pilot projects. The pilot projects are based on the idea that if provided with proper training, second generation migrants can themselves play an important role as liaison agents between various cultures and as privileged intermediaries as regards the situation and the needs of their own group.

The two tripartite seminars highlighted the need for catch-up training measures for young migrants reaching working age. Many second generation migrants, in particular those who immigrate late to join

their parents, cannot obtain access to streams of vocational training in the host country, among the reasons being insufficient command of the language of the host country; educational gaps; lack of vocational information and guidance; school-leaving certificate not obtained; qualification either non-existent, weak, or not adapted; direct or indirect discrimination, etc. In order to enable these young people to overcome their handicaps, various types of courses of pretraining/vocational preparation have been or should be implemented in various forms, in most of the countries of employment.

### Pretraining animators-trainers

One multilateral pilot project falls precisely within this category. Its objective is to recruit and train animators-trainers, themselves second generation migrants, to conduct pretraining courses for second generation migrants. The objectives, finalities, and selected elements of the pedagogy of pretraining were identified at a meeting held jointly with Cedefop at the ILO Centre in Turin. This meeting likewise undertook to define the role and profile of pilot project participants. It was foreseen that the animators-trainers should be selected from amongst young migrants of the countries of origin benefiting from the UNDP/ILO project and that they should be of an age between 25 and 30 close to that of the second generation migrants whom they will teach. They will be firmly integrated into the migrant community and the working life of their host country and manifest strong motivation. A further prerequisite to their recruitment will be their participation in ongoing public or private training programmes and their future employment opportu-

nities as animators-trainers. A particular effort will be made to recruit young women as pilot project participants.

The training programme of the pilot project will be set up on the principle of alternance between one or more periods of instruction, reflection, and exploitation (part of which could take place at the ILO Centre in Turin) on the one hand and periods of practical application on the other. These latter will take place in the country of employment in direct liaison with pretraining measures geared to second generation migrants and eventually in the countries of origin, perhaps in the form of study trips, under the aspect of voluntary return as covered in the UNDP/ILO project. Cedefop will collaborate in the evaluation of the pilot projects.

### Expansion of the European regional project

Following this first phase the European regional project is to be prolonged to 1984–85, the purpose being to strengthen operational activities and above all to develop pilot projects which in all probability can be implemented at bilateral level.

One such pilot project now under study could result in the output of second generation migrants as animators of migrant associations. The essential role of such associations in helping young migrants to retain their identity and cultural ties was recognized by participants of selected home country origin attending the technical seminar in Granada.

The regional project will be expanded to include interested Maghreb countries. Invitees at Granada and nationals of Algeria, Morocco, and Tunisia all underlined their strong interest in the European regional

\* Coordinator: M. Carlos Castro-Almeida.

\*\* Cyprus has also become associated with the project.



STICHA

project and expressed the hope that a similar project could be launched for the Maghreb region in close coordination with the European regional project. Young Maghrebians, in particular the Algerians in France and the Moroccans in Belgium, account for a large proportion of second generation migrants and face the same problems as regards social and occupational integration and possible return to the home country.

In more general terms a specific aim of UNDP/ILO project is important: the inten-

tion, following project implementation, of undertaking to establish direct and active collaboration with various organizations at international level, non-governmental level, etc., concerning the situation of migrants of the second generation. This could take the form firstly of providing these organizations with the results of the European regional project and secondly of achieving a multiplication of the project's indirect impact by encouraging these organizations to institute practical application of solutions experimented with, within the context of the European regional project.

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# Cuttings

The Fund is designed to assist both workers in the categories experiencing the greatest difficulties in relation to employment and workers in those regions of the Community which suffer most from lack of development or from industrial decline.

*(W. Stabenow, director responsible for the European Social Fund – VT No 1/1979, p. 2)*

*In the youth-specific orientation of the Italian vocational training system, since Italy has no well-organized official adult education system providing vocational training for adults (comparable with the French model), what job-oriented training there is comes mainly under the sponsorship of private enterprise, which receives no special public funding and therefore ends up by having no chance of obtaining Community aid.*

*(G. Medusa, former director of ISFOL, Rome – VT No 1/79, p. 10)*

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

*(Carl Dobler, President of the Württemberg-Baden Farmers' Association. – VT No 1/1980, p. 9)*

**Vocational training is of particular importance to the handicapped in that it constitutes the only means by which they can return to active life and assume social responsibility, failing which they find it extremely difficult to affirm their own dignity as fully-fledged citizens.**

*(Editorial – VT No 2/80)*

**In all Member States of the Community there are considerable regional disparities in the sphere of economic development, but these disparities are evidently even more aggravated at regional level when one takes**

**the Community as a whole. Thus the domestic gross product per capita in prosperous regions such as Paris and Hamburg is five times greater than that in the poorest regions such as Calabria in southern Italy and Donegal in the western part of Ireland.**

*(Bernadette Costers, journalist, Information provided by the European Social Fund. – VT No 3/80, p.3)*

In these last ten years much water has flowed under the bridge of the cities and countries of Europe, and yet the institutions of the Community and the Member States do not seem to be fully aware of the profound changes taking place in our society, tending rather to still retain patterns of integration policy typical of the times of the founding fathers.

*(Fabio Taiti, (Director of CENSIS-Centro Studi Investimenti Sociali (Centre for Studies on Social investment), – VT No 3/80, p. 17)*

*In order to avoid ending up in a fruitless effort to achieve technocratic harmonization, this approach must be taken precisely when a comparison is undertaken at European level. It would then be appropriate to consider the following questions:*

*How is technical development to be viewed, particularly current technical development?*

*What has brought about this development, what special motivating forces are currently at work?*

*How can vocational training come to grips with current technical development?*

*(Arndt Sorge, Scientific Officer, International Institute for Management and Administration, Labour Market Policy Unit, Science Research Centre, Berlin – VT No 5/80, p. 5)*

**What we need is a vocational training which has the courage to join in the task of designing the future. This is exactly the opposite from that which is often being called for today, namely, timely preparation on the part of education and vocational training for a technical development in which they have no say whatsoever**

*(Burkart Lutz, Director of the Institute for Social Research – VT No 5/80, p. 8)*

*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.*

*(Ivor Richard, Commissioner in the Commission of the European Communities – VT No 6/81, p. 3)*

**The future of vocational training in the Federal Republic of Germany is decided at the level of small and medium-sized enterprises, which for years now have carried the main burden of responsibility for vocational training and will of necessity continue to do so in the future.**

*(Dr. Hermann Schmidt, President of the Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildungsforschung (Federal Institute for Vocational Training Research) – VT No 7/81, p. 6)*

This leads on to a third and final consideration. Just like the need for vocational training, so the demand for goods and services is not a known fact nor a homogeneous whole. Latent or potential demand options, able to activate, or be activated by, supplies which are elastic and associated with decreasing costs exist alongside demand options with high inflation potential. Supply and demand policies must therefore be combined selectively and suitably timed. This all means an increase in vocational training and knowledge, not just limited to the sphere of production in a strict sense but rather extended to everyone concerned with the system's organization: companies, trade unions, public administration, and the scientific and cultural world.

*(Sergio Bruno, Director of the Institute of Economics of the Faculty of Statistics of the University of Rome – VT No 8/82)*

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