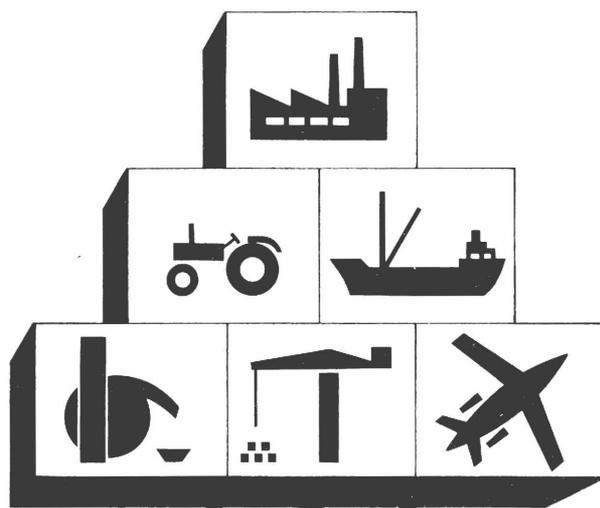


# Vocational training

information  
bulletin



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1975

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# VOCATIONAL TRAINING

## INFORMATION BULLETIN

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### Editorial

It is inevitable that information on a given subject published in an issue of the Bulletin is restricted to the current problems or developments at local, regional, national or Community level. There are many subjects to be covered and only a limited space is available. However, from time to time it is hoped to examine, using the source material available, the overall position of a particular area of education and vocational training so that the reader can gain a broad view of the subject.

In this double issue, an attempt has been made to survey one subject on women in training and at work in the Community. Obviously, we do not claim that it is complete or exhaustive and we shall be returning to this subject again in subsequent issues of the Bulletin. As the body of information grows, this should provide the reader with an adequate framework within which to review the progress made towards a unity of purpose in the education and training of all the peoples of the Community.

In the light of International Women's Year, proclaimed by the United Nations, the survey on women at work provides a timely impression of the complexity and magnitude of the subject, of the background to the various issues, and of the social attitudes which bear on them. The text is a condensation of a large amount of available information and the generalities, views and opinions expressed are taken from this material.

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## *Training married women for re-entry into employment*

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Deborah King<sup>1</sup>

One of the major problems facing married women who wish to re-enter employment after a break is the lack of training facilities specifically designed to meet their needs. In this article the status of married women in employment in the Community as well as the shortage of existing adult re-training programmes to reach and train this group will be discussed. The experiences in the Federal Republic of Germany and in a non-member country, Sweden, will be examined. Both of these countries have training programmed for women upon re-entry into the labour force.

Throughout Europe married women are returning to work in increasing numbers and in all but three of the EEC countries married women make up over 50 % of the female labour force. Unfortunately, despite the thousands of married women returning to work, only a minute number are being counselled or trained on returning. Little attention has been given by training experts to studying the problems involved in setting-up training programmes for this group and the work which has been done within some of the Member States has not been shared with training experts.

The urgency of the situation has been called to our attention in the recent 'Memorandum' which was issued in conjunction with the proposal for a Council Directive on the principle of equality of treatment of men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training, promotion and working conditions. The 'Memorandum' stressed several points :

- (1) In every country the proportion of married women workers in the female working population is increasing, although there are still great differences in the percentages, ranging from 13.5% in Ireland to 65.6% in Denmark.
- (2) The break in employment for child bearing and rearing is getting shorter in all countries. Evelyn

Sullerot [13] in her study 'The employment of women and the problems it raises in the EEC countries' estimates that the average break is now approximately eight years and it has been calculated to be as little as three years in Germany.

- (3) Women are still severely penalized for breaks in employment due to child bearing which has yet to be recognized as a social function, and the world of work adapted so that women do not suffer in terms of job opportunities, promotions, etc.
- (4) Throughout the Community there exists a so-called dual labour market, that is, 'a vast labour market where all professions and trades are open to men, and a parallel market offering a limited number of professions and trades which are, in fact, restricted to women'. Women's employment is concentrated in certain sectors (notably the tertiary) and in certain types of jobs, usually those which require little training, carry low wages and provide few opportunities for promotion. Typical 'women's jobs' include light assembly work, typing and clerical work, waitressing and selling in retail stores. In the professions, nursing and teaching dominate.
- (5) Married women have been forced into a job ghetto within a job ghetto. A very large proportion work part-time because of inadequate or non-existent child care facilities. In the Netherlands, for example, 50% of wage-earning married women over 24 work less than 25 hours a week and in the UK 2.7 million out of 9 million women work less than 30 hours per week. Similarly in Denmark, 354 000 out of one million women are employed part-time. Other women work at jobs below their capacity or education because of the need to work close to home and the lack of 'refresher' courses or an opportunity to change careers upon returning results in a significant waste of talent.
- (6) In addition to the under-employment of married women, there is also a very high degree of female unemployment. This problem has only been recognized recently and is still far from being fully appreciated. One reason is that unemployment of married women is 'hidden unemployment' which means that large numbers of married women who wish to work are not actively seeking employment because they have problems of child care or are aware that no jobs for which they qualify exist in their locality. In some countries (Ireland, for example) married women who wish to work but who have been out of the labour market while raising a family are not included in the unemployment figures. These figures are calculated on the numbers of workers who are claiming

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unemployment benefit, rather than those who are seeking work. In addition, the lack of part-time jobs creates a special category of unemployment in Germany 38% of unemployed women were seeking part-time work, and in France studies have shown that many married women are not working because of the lack of part-time jobs.

- (7) Women's ambitions have developed more rapidly than the improvement of their situation in the labour market. They are beginning to question their position in employment and within the family and why they should be clustered in a narrow range of occupations, why arrangements for child care should be the responsibility of each individual woman, rather than of the society as a whole and why both training and career patterns should be based on a male model. Women are critical of a society which continues to educate girls to think of themselves as temporary members of the labour force, when in fact many married women are working for the major portion of their lives. There are rising expectations that training at the time of re-entry into employment will provide women with an opportunity to re-evaluate their vocational choice.
- (8) Many women have problems of adjusting upon re-entering work and suffer feelings of guilt at 'abandoning their families', as well as feelings of inadequacy about their ability as a worker. Some have lost old skills and are out of touch with the present day world of work. There is therefore a need for special programmes to help women deal with these feelings.
- (9) Labour shortages in many countries are causing both governments and employers to re-think their attitudes to women. Social problems caused by migrant workers have made the alternative of increasing the Community's own labour supply more attractive.

Despite the above, training opportunities in firms and at a national level for married women re-entering employment are woefully inadequate. A recent survey of employed women in the six original Member States showed the lack of further training facilities provided by firms for the women they employ. Only 12% in Italy, 20% in Belgium, 25% in the Netherlands, 38% in Germany, and 39% in France had received vocational training since they began to work, and in many cases the training was quite brief and orientated towards the employer rather than the workers. In most cases, training was only offered to those who had completed some form of initial training before entering employment, rather than to those without such training.

Most of the Member States have no government sponsored services to provide vocational guidance and training for women returning to work after a break, or at most, very limited programmes.

### **The German programme**

The Federal Republic of Germany would appear to be an exception to the rule. A special section of the Bundesanstalt für Arbeit (the Federal Institute of Labour) is working with women who wish to re-enter the labour market. Several types of training are available including on-the-job training, refresher courses, training to upgrade skills or utilize old skills differently and new career programmes. Vocational guidance is provided to help a woman decide if she wants to :

- (1) go back to her previous type of work,
- (2) put her experience to a new use,
- (3) train for a totally different type of work.

A large number of women opt for on-the-job training rather than for the other programmes, primarily because it is available for part-time, as well as full-time workers. Training for a new job and refresher courses both require full-time participation. Women over the age of 45 and women with no previous training predominate in this programme.

In order to encourage employers to offer on-the-job training, the government provides grants to employers who cooperate. A woman receives a full wage from the beginning of employment, with a government subsidy to the employer which makes up the difference between her real earnings and her pay. This subsidy gradually diminishes as the woman acquires skill and speed (usually a maximum of six months).

Trainees in the other Institute programmes earn approximately 80% of wages while in training. Before 1974 this type of benefit was not available to married women wishing to re-enter employment; the programme was open only to workers who had recently been made redundant. A new amendment in the eligibility requirements provides for 'housework' to be qualified as a 'job'. Married women returning to work are therefore eligible for admission to these programmes on the same basis as other workers. In addition, as an inducement to those persons training for new jobs (a typical German skill training takes two to three years) generous credit is given to earlier work experience, including household duties, so as to shorten the actual training period.

### **Weaknesses of the German programme**

A survey conducted in 1970 on participation of women in all of the training schemes of the Bundesanstalt für Arbeit indicated that only 17% of the trainees were

women. 65.6% were salaried employees or civil servants, most of whom were taking refresher courses. 76% of the women were under 35 years and the number of married women and mothers was very low. In terms of the work force as a whole, only 14% of women starting work or re-entering employment received any training and approximately one-third of these were married.

One of the reasons for the lack of participation of married women in training is the limited number of occupations for which training is offered. The German programme makes no attempt to train women for jobs which have previously been done by men. In a booklet especially designed for women who are returning to work (the cover shows a woman leaving her pots and pans for a typewriter) the following industries are put forth as potential employers: government services, textiles, clothing, metal and plastics, optical manufacture, electronics, printing and paper, food and confectionery, hotels and health services. Jobs within these industries which are presented as suitable are limited to clerical, light assembly and service work. As a result, if a woman lives in a locality where no 'women's work' is available she cannot benefit from the training offered by the Institute. Employment statistics show that in areas which have a high number of typical 'women's industries' such as textile manufacturing, the percentage of women at work is very high; in other areas, where there are no 'female jobs' the number of women at work is much lower.

Another problem is the lack of child care facilities within each locality or at the training centres. In a survey of married women in the Federal Republic of Germany, 50% of the respondents gave the presence of children in the home as the major reason why they were not either working or training for a job. According to Vera Dommer [3] in a paper presented at an EEC conference on women in 1972, it is very difficult to place a child in a day-care centre in Germany: In order for a woman to get a place for her child in a kindergarten she must be working; in order to work she must first secure a place in a kindergarten.

### **The Swedish programme**

Sweden has had a comprehensive programme of labour market training for many years, including training for housewives who wish to obtain gainful employment.

One obstacle to married women undertaking training is the fact that they frequently decide to seek work because of pressing economic problems. Under these circumstances they need an immediate income and cannot afford to spend time waiting for training programmes to begin or participating in training programmes without receiving remuneration. The Swedish project meets the first of these problems by providing continuous training throughout the year, without any

traditional division into terms, so that there is no waiting period, or a very short one, before an applicant can begin a programme of study. Once they have commenced training the participants receive a tax-free monthly grant, as well as training and study materials free of charge. In addition, there is a special four-week course entitled 'Working Life and Training' which includes social studies, a presentation of the labour market and vocational guidance. The course gives each woman a chance to familiarize herself with available jobs, as well as with the changes in attitudes and practices which have occurred while she has been absent from the labour force. Trainees can actually go out and try several jobs to see which type of employment they prefer.

In Sweden, training is individually adapted for each participant. Like the German programme, credit is given for knowledge or experience which the trainee may have acquired earlier in life. This helps to cut down training periods and bring the trainees into the labour market more quickly. Training includes long-term as well as short-term programmes and many adults attend residence programmes for a year or more. There are also provisions for trainees to supplement their general education. The existence of an extensive system of state-sponsored child care facilities enables women to take part in full-time training. A large number of women (both single and married) avail themselves of this service and the number of women participants in training programmes is increasing each year. The percentage of women attending courses increased from 14.8% in 1959/60 to 48.7% in 1971/72. The real number of women for the same period increased from 2 099 to 58 195.

### **Weaknesses of the Swedish programme**

One of the goals of the labour market training scheme was to begin to break down sex discrimination in jobs. During the 1960's the lack of manpower created a demand for women in some traditional male occupations and many women were trained for jobs in certain mechanical industries and other typically masculine fields. However, the impact of the programme on eliminating the dual labour market was minimal. Three-quarters of Swedish women are still employed in only 25 of 300 classified occupations. Sales clerk, office employee, farm worker, cleaner and nurse's aid were the five most common occupations among women in 1965 and are still so today. As a result, it was decided to begin a more intensive programme of training and placement of women in traditional male jobs.

### **New Swedish experiment**

In the spring of 1973 Sweden undertook an experiment which places women in traditionally male occupations

The programme is currently being tested in six of Sweden's 24 counties. It was introduced in those areas where there was a shortage of workers in manufacturing industries, but where women had never been considered suitable for the type of work available. In Kristianstad's county, for example, there were abundant employment opportunities in the metal and wood-working industries and there was a high percentage of unemployed women in this area. Many of the women had not even bothered to seek help from the local employment offices in securing employment, because they were aware that there was no 'women's work' available in their localities.

The 'Advisory council to the Prime Minister on equality between men and women', which is supervising the experiment, initiated a programme to convince both the companies and the women themselves that female labour could be used to fill the vacancies. According to a report on the project, the women were the easiest to convince. 'They wanted work, and in general, they had no misgivings about their ability to handle the jobs'. The County Employment Boards discussed the matter with the employers and found some who were willing to participate in the programme. Discussions were also carried out with the trade unions which represented workers in the companies.

An important role was played by the so-called 'adjustment groups' of which there was one in each firm. Composed of representatives of the employers, trade unions and the employment office, these groups were originally established in order to adjust or adapt the workplace to the needs and abilities of handicapped workers. With the inception of the women's programme their activities were expanded to help facilitate the entry of women into traditionally male occupations. In order to have a 'women's view' represented on the committee, at least one woman was added to each adjustment group. The group then examined requirements for all jobs in the plant (and observed the work in progress) in order to select which jobs at present done by men should be the first to be tried by women. They also performed a public relations and education function in influencing attitudes of the male employees to the idea of women co-workers.

The County Employment Board then began an information and recruitment campaign amongst the women who lived in the county. Those who were interested in work were invited to take part in an information day at the respective companies. On these days the women were escorted through the plants and given the opportunity to observe various jobs being done and they were also provided with information on the child care facilities within their community. The information days were highly successful with hundreds of women attending. After visiting the companies, those women who were interested in seeking employ-

ment were registered in a four-week course. During these weeks they were given the opportunity to 'feel their way' towards a position with which they would be satisfied on a permanent basis. By the conclusion of the course the majority of the women had found a job with which they were satisfied and for which they were then employed. According to a Swedish appraisal of the programme made at the end of 1974 it was obvious that women could handle these jobs as well as men, and they were satisfied with them. Those jobs which the women could not manage were those that were too heavy even for many men. The differences from individual to individual were greater than those between the groups.

### **Psychological and adjustment problems**

In reviewing the Swedish experience it is obvious that if the position of married women in employment in the EEC countries is to be improved significant changes in attitudes on the part of employers, trade unions and of the training authorities themselves must take place. However, another area which deserves attention is the attitudes of married women towards re-entering employment. Guilt at the idea of abandoning the family may exert pressures on a woman not to work or to forego full-time for part-time work (even given the availability of daycare centres). Lack of self-confidence is another factor which may influence women to take jobs below their capacities.

### **The French programme**

In France, the Ministère de l'éducation nationale (Ministry of Education) has funded a re-orientation and adjustment programme since September 1973, under the direction of Evelyn Sullerot. The course is of five weeks duration, with four hourly lessons per day. It includes exercises in concentration, logic, dexterity, vocabulary, numeracy and self-expression. The women are divided up into groups of 25 and people from different industries often come along to talk to the groups about specific jobs and skills. They are also instructed about laws relating to work, salaries, how to answer advertisements and present oneself well at an interview. According to Mrs Sullerot a feeling of inferiority is often a serious obstacle. The women have lost their skills, and often their husbands and children seem to have passed them intellectually. They find it difficult to adapt to a more highly structured work situation and to being directed by a boss in their work. In addition, many women are introspective and group therapy sessions are held every day for ½ hour in order to help women overcome this problem. This, combined with exploring their mental capabilities increases their confidence.

## Implications of the German and Swedish experiences

In examining both the Swedish and German experiences it is obvious that the re-integration of married women into employment requires a major effort. It is not enough to have re-training programmes specifically designed for married women returning to work. Women must be informed of the programmes, day-care facilities must be available and training must be carefully tailored to meet their needs and the existing labour market conditions. The provision of a grant while training would appear to be essential, as well as generous credit for past experience so as to eliminate unnecessarily long courses of study. As regards psychological or re-adjustment problems faced by many women, it would appear that special preparation and counselling upon returning to work is needed, even if no skill training is undertaken.

A special area which merits attention is training women for what used to be 'male only' occupations. In many cases it would appear that unemployment of married women is due to the fact that the only available jobs are of a traditionally male character. If women are to fill these positions attitudes of employers, trade unions (and their members) and of the women themselves will all have to be changed. However, even where there are 'women's jobs' available, some women may desire to train for typically male work because of the higher pay, promotion prospects, etc. Despite the intensive programme in Sweden, many employers still prefer to employ men to women where this is possible.

## Availability of grants under the Social Fund

Article 5 of the Social Fund includes women over the age of 35 among the categories of workers who may benefit from grants. However, since the inception of the new Social Fund in 1972 no requests aimed specifically at promoting the employment of women over the age of 35 have been submitted. Similarly, under Article 7, which provides for funding of pilot projects with less than 30 participants, there is only one programme currently in progress relating to women over the age of 35. This project which is under the direction of Manchester University (UK) is a series of in-depth case studies of the problems faced by 20 women upon re-entering employment. After a three month induction programme, which included career guidance, preparation for an interview and orientation to the world of work, job expectations and the problems of each woman as she looks for a job and/or finds employment are being studied.

The entire question of access of married women to employment and of the elimination of the dual labour market will have widespread repercussions. Successful training programmes will challenge many com-

monly held assumptions about the capabilities of women and also of older workers in general. The role of the training authorities must therefore be that of a strong advocate of the new view of women's place in employment and society. A minimal first step in that direction is to begin to devote substantial energies to studying and developing training programmes.

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## *Computer-based learning in school systems*

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M. W. Dowsey<sup>1</sup>

### PART 2

#### *III - Current problems and their solution*

##### **Pilot installations**

Despite the long list of outstanding research and demonstration projects listed in the last issue of the bulletin there have been too few installations of high quality production use. However, it is precisely with respect to the relative effectiveness of computer-based learning and conventional teaching that reliable, objective information is practically non-existent. The few studies that have been made are mostly based on too small numbers of observations, restricted circumstances and doubtful methodology to become conclusive evidence. However, those studies that have been based on a substantial number of students, extended periods of instruction, adequate experimental designs and reasonable statistical analyses have tended to show that computer-based learning is at least as effective as conventional teaching (Gross *et al.*, 1969; Schurdak, 1965; Stokes, 1968; Dick, 1968; Hansen, 1968; Suppes and Morningstar, 1970).

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Another point of criticism is that systems have not been designed and curriculum material not developed with high-impact areas in mind. In particular, there have been few carefully planned projects actually in the schools, yet it is there where the real problems lie. What is needed is direct government grants to support the development of several complete projects, each involving a university, a local education authority and a publisher of education material. Experimentation and demonstration requires a large bank of actual material. However, the preparation costs are so high and the investment so risky that other sources of substantial outlay are unlikely.

In 1969 the National Council for Educational Technology proposed a grant scheme and they estimated that £2 million was needed over five years. This was agreed in 1972 and several projects were initiated (NCET, 1973). The National Science Foundation (NSF), too, is currently funding £15 million over four and a half years. 2 500 students will be involved and the grant is divided between the University of Illinois at Urbana, USA where PLATO IV (Bitzer and Skaperdas, 1971) will be made available in a number of local schools for a variety of subjects and the MITRE Corporation whose TICCIT system (Stetten, 1972) will be used by Brigham Young University, Provo Utah, USA to test the effectiveness of remedial maths and English, pre-calculus maths and English composition in community colleges.

##### **Teacher training and reaction**

Naturally enough the main body of caution and uncertainty with respect to the effectiveness of computer-based learning has been the teachers themselves. They have shown concern at the possible negative effects of taking the instructional process out of the conventional classroom and substituting mechanical feedback for interpersonal conversation. However, perhaps the largest factor preventing the growth of computer-based learning is the fear some teachers have that they may be reduced to playing a clerical role. This will certainly not be the case. What will probably happen

is that the teacher will assume the role of an instructional manager rather than just an instructor (Kooi and Geddes, 1970), and since computer-based learning absorbs more of the information presentation and correctional functions, the teacher obviously will be in a better position to allocate time to other functions such as group discussions, *social modelling techniques*, guidance, etc. Based on a preliminary study of teachers within computer-based learning systems (Hill and Furst, 1969), Hansen and Harvey (1970) suggest the following teacher role changes :

1. much less information presentation and criterion testing;
2. more design of instructional strategy;
3. greater involvement in guiding individual students and use of a wider range of discussion techniques.

Change in role quite naturally leads to the question of the training necessary for teachers to achieve this. At the moment there is a scarcity of resources available to create the skills required to use computer-based learning successfully. Project INDICOM has designed a specific training programme (Arnold and Penny, 1970) which involves a series of workshops and *hands-on experience* with available systems. On the other hand, the School District of Philadelphia arranges three-week summer institutes for teachers (Charp, 1971). However, the most logical way of introducing teachers to computer-based learning would seem to be in colleges of education. The first step would be to use the computer as a monitor of prospective teachers learning their curriculum. This would allow them to select paths towards performance objectives deemed important for their own role. If the colleges pioneer these projects, the extension to schools would be a natural evolution.

### **Preparation of curriculum material**

One important reason why computers have not become widely used in the instructional process is that there has always been a serious shortage of readily available and proven educational material. This is due mainly to the fact that there is no incentive for teachers/lecturers to spend considerable time and effort in creating or even modifying curriculum material. Further, there are no professional or economic rewards for such a development.

There are two schools of thought on how to produce instructional material. On the one hand there is the single-author method, involving one author armed with his particular language, but hopefully having access to an easy author entry system, such as the one described by Birtch *et al* (1969), Miller *et al* (1970) or Dowsey (1970), and on the other a production team which might include subject-matter specialists, behavioural

scientists, computer-science specialists and hardware experts. Bunderson (1971) compares these two methods: teachers/lecturers, he claims, are only capable of adjunct uses which might include course supplements, laboratories or homework, whereas with a team of 'instructional software engineers' a complete teaching system is evolved. A total system is not always required. In either case, however, it is clear there is a need for instructional design experts who would be familiar with the specifications of needs, goals, behavioural objectives and analysis, planning of system architecture, use of instructional strategies and use of computer aids for each stage of the design process. If some financial incentive were made, such personnel would become available and teachers/lecturers might be persuaded to develop material.

Another possible solution might be to subsidize *discipline based groups*, such as the Commission on College Physics. They could draw upon the most prominent members of the discipline to assist in producing material that make full use of the computer's instructional capability in that particular discipline. This would certainly go far towards helping standardize any courses produced, although, with over 50 languages and systems in use and a lack of incentive for dissemination of software, the problem of compatibility is grave. Seidel (1971) has suggested that non-profit consortia might help solve this problem and, indeed, the whole area of curriculum material production.

It is not just the method of production but also the content of the curriculum material that is of concern. Any construction or conversion should allow for greater use of individualized instruction techniques, which now are gaining wide acceptance (Brudner, 1968; Cooley and Glaser, 1969; Dick and Gallagher, 1972). It is necessary to develop curriculum units in which computer usage plays an intrinsic part. It is not enough simply to tear apart the curriculum, insert computer activities, and piece it back together. The material must be completely re-organized and restructured if it is to be taught effectively with computer systems. Perhaps there is also a need for further development of instructional strategies. At present the range includes criterion testing, drill and practice, tutorial, simulation and gaming, problem solving, etc. Much emphasis has been placed on the first three of these but in the future, the others will assume far greater relative importance. It is in accordance with current trends not to store a large amount of factual material in the computer by using a small '*keyhole*' of core to fetch the presentation from disk to terminal. Other instructional media can be used quite successfully in this role, allowing for a more efficient use of the computer.

Far greater importance should be attached to the choice of subject being taught. Many applications to date have involved behavioural objectives which might

well have been achieved as effectively but cheaper using other methods. Many more leading *edge applications* should therefore be sought in future, such as elementary algebra and the reading retardation problem where the social need is greatest. Acceptance of computer-based learning in that area would attract much fuller support for other applications.

### Hardware and software

The most essential feature that the central processing unit (CPU) must have for applications in computer-based learning is reliability. The requirements of reliability are higher than in *batch-processing*, where a shutdown is inconvenient but not disastrous, although they are similar to those for process-control. Another essential feature of the system is modularity. In batch-processing, when a CPU or any part of the system is malfunctioning the entire system may be dead. However, a computer running a large number of instructional terminals should not be rendered inoperative by failure of a single terminal or other component at a remote location. Unfortunately, there has been evidence of unreliability of hardware because of heavy use by students and insufficient servicing. In terms of functional specifications, the CPU should have a high channel capacity for the handling of large numbers of communication lines, and also a high capacity for data transfer to and from file storage. A large computation capacity is not usually required. For this reason, most education computers currently on the market are not ideally designed for large-scale use in computer-based learning. However, it is unreasonable to expect that computers will be developed solely for educational uses but particular emphasis will probably be put on special educational requirements such as audio-capability, student terminals, etc.

As a whole, there has been dissatisfaction with the design of presently available terminals, in particular with respect to the limitations imposed on the kind of student inputs that are interpretable. The keyboard typewriter has been and will continue to be the most widely used mainly for financial reasons. Visual display terminals with light-pen attachment and the facility to superimpose stored images on the screen are available but are more costly. Random access audio output is desirable, but has not yet been perfected. The three features that need to be satisfied are high quality speech of good intelligibility, large quantities to be selected under program and/or student control and fast access in order not to delay the pace of the teaching. It seems that the availability of a standard speech-recognition device which would permit the student to speak at least a limited vocabulary and have it recognized by the computer system is as far off as it ever was. For the last ten years or so, the solution has always been just five years away (Suppes, 1970).

If there seems to be a lack of appropriate hardware, then software is in no better position. No simple language which enables teachers to prepare effective programs without extensive training is available. There has been no serious attempt to provide any transportability of materials between installations. Zinn (1969a) has reviewed the large number of author languages currently in use and suggests that interactive programming languages available to users of general-purpose time-sharing systems — both large and small — provide many of the features necessary to produce instructional materials (Zinn, 1969b). This has become particularly true of BASIC (Blum, 1971; Decker, 1971; Kurtz, 1971; Dwyer, 1972) and APL (Stannard, 1970; Dehner and Norcross, 1971; Iverson, 1972; Bartoli *et al*, 1972). Computer-based learning does not require different kinds of computing systems and development work should therefore remain in the same domain as other applications (Zinn, 1972).

Apart from terminal design the main thrust for the future should be in applications research and development. Much more attention is given to computer-managed instruction, at present and also to the use of the computer to simulate environments, systems and procedures. The common factor is to employ the computer to carry out the tasks which it performs best, leaving teachers to carry out those tasks which they perform best. This might be for reasons of speed or uniqueness or both.

### Cost

Cost is the largest single factor which has prevented computers from gaining wider acceptance in education. Computer-based learning is an additional cost which increases the instructional budget and demands extra programming staff. A recommendation by the US Office of Education (Morgan, 1969) suggests that the services provided by computer systems for schools should not increase the annual cost per student by more than 2%. Considering that these costs are at 'just under £200' in the UK (Hansard, 1972) and \$535 in the USA (Furno, 1971) for secondary education during 1971-72, £ 4 per year per pupil does not sound very much, particularly since the cost of books is currently around this figure in both countries. The computer-based materials should be able to compete economically with other learning media such as, for instance, books or blackboards.

The cost of computer-based learning is usually quoted in terms of cost per student-contact hour. Various figures have been quoted, usually in the range of £1 to £5, but this has depended upon the type of use, the size of the system and the hours of use. Current claims on the future PLATO IV system have been for a cost of between \$0.34 and \$0.68 per student-contact hour (Alpert and Bitzer, 1970). These figures have

been based on a system of 4096 plasma display tubes, and a utilization of 45 weeks at 44 hours per week.

The total capital investment required is approximately \$12 million which obviously has formed a serious stumbling block despite the fact that good cost-effectiveness can be achieved in the long run.

The TICCIT System of the MITRE Corporation has significantly lowered capital investment. The computers being used are a 32k 16-bit words, four disk drives, giving a total capacity of 120 million *bytes*, a 32k as a concentrator and standard television receivers to provide computer-generated voice, pictures and flicker-free text. A 120-terminal system in a school on a 10-hour day demands a capital investment of \$200 000, mortgaged over eight years and the cost is \$0.20 per student-contact hour (Stetten, 1972).

The poor cost-effectiveness to date cannot be attributed solely to the capital investment required. The fact is that many systems have attempted to replace the teachers by offering a tutorial approach. Recently, however, instead of the computer directly interfacing with the student, it is used as an aid to the teacher, usually in the normal teaching process. Computer-managed instruction has been used with success and several career guidance and counselling systems have been designed and are operating. Many different experiments are in progress using data bases which contain test questions and lesson planning material or resources; simulation and gaming, as part of the education process have also been used. Consequently, the cost per student tends to be far lower than in tutorial and drill and practice modes, sometimes by as much as a factor of three.

#### *IV - Recommendations*

In conclusion, the following recommendations are made to realize the full potential of computer-based learning.

Computer-based learning systems to date have mainly been designed for small numbers of students or for research. It is important however that production systems should also be used. Research into various strategies and evaluation of education has already been carried out. However, the problems that arise when dealing with a large school, school system or university are considerable and emphasis should be placed particularly in this area.

If computer based learning is to gain acceptance the teachers who are directly involved will need special training. This could be provided on a short term basis, but it is desirable that all teachers be made aware of computer-based learning during their period of training at a college of education.

To produce instructional material is a specialized skill and the people best qualified to develop the curriculum packages are the teachers and lecturers themselves. Financial, professional and time allowances should therefore be made to teachers for the development of learning packages. Although there has been a lack of suitable hardware and a tremendous divergence of software in the past, it is advisable to use standard hardware and software wherever possible. The main effort must be put into applications research and development.

Education is not likely to force computing costs down any more rapidly than any other field of application. Therefore, it would be better to concentrate on unique uses of hardware and software and simply wait for costs to decrease. Tutorial and drill and practice uses are only cost-justified in special circumstances, such as in supplementary education in urban areas and in the training of handicapped persons. Computers are currently cost-justified in problem-solving, simulation and games in school situations and in certain computer-managed instruction applications.

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# Information

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## 64. *The Belgian Prime Minister speaks on education and European unification*

On 4 June 1975 the Belgian Prime Minister, Mr L. Tindemans, addressed the first regional European Conference of the Committee for Cooperation in Catholic Education in Torhout in Belgium. The theme of the speech was education and European unification, and the Prime Minister pointed out that the establishment of a committee for catholic education at European level was in itself indicative of the fact that the decision of nine peoples to share a common destiny involved more than cooperation in the economic sense. Free circulation of goods, people and capital was only the starting point for a Community policy which would extend into every field of human activity. Educational policy in the EEC stemmed from Articles 118 and 128 of the Treaty of Rome, which had been developed by the Council of the European Communities in July 1971 to establish guidelines for a general Community policy on vocational training, Mr Tindemans went on to quote the Council's proposal, which 'recognizes the importance of the interrelationship between education and the economy, and between the development of post-school training systems and continuing education'.

Thus, it had been recognized that economic requirements for training were indissolubly linked with the education system in general. When these links were analysed from an international viewpoint, it was apparent that there was a relationship between education and problems relating to the right of establishment, to the free movement of workers and, consequently, to the equivalence of diplomas,

the Prime Minister continued. In this framework of interdependence, it was clear that measures taken in one area regardless of the others were doomed to failure. He added that, independent of the European factor, one of the main educational trends in all countries was to provide a solid general training coupled with practical work. Bearing in mind the scientific and technological developments linked with an enlarged geographic area, and the multinational character of economic life, the Prime Minister questioned whether European economic integration was conceivable without a 'Europeanization' of the major universities. By Europeanization, he understood the fact that universities, when looking for lecturers, researchers, students and equipment, should consider the Europe of the Nine as their normal 'hinterland', working on a geographic scale similar to that of the United States. The first essential move, he emphasized, was to implement Articles 57 (equivalence of diplomas), 118 and 128 (vocational training) of the Treaty of Rome and to fight protectionism and administrative inertia. Mr Tindemans also made extensive reference to the report on objectives for Community education policy, presented by Professor Henri Janne in February 1973<sup>1</sup>. Professor Janne's report talked of a global education policy, from pre-school to continuing education, which was to be determined at Community level. The proposals would cover all aspects of education policy, from the creation of organizations to promote exchanges of students, teachers and trainers, to the installation of a teaching timetable that took Europe and not the individual nations as its home territory.

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<sup>1</sup> Janne, H. : For a Community Policy on Education. Bibl. item No 90, EEC Bulletin on vocational training, Issue No 3/4, 1974.

According to Professor Janne, contemporary education systems had certain distinctive features which, it was believed, could influence greatly present-day and future societies. These systems exhibited the following characteristics :

- education at all levels had become mass education;
- there was an ever-growing tendency towards developing and adapting fields of knowledge;
- mass media were playing an influential role in education, which was no longer monopolized by formal teaching.

Professor Janne's report, Mr Tindemans went on, stressed the lack of awareness of living conditions and general problems that existed between neighbouring countries and that sprang from deeply-rooted and stereotyped attitudes. Before any attempt at sharing a common destiny could be made, the will to live and work together had to be aroused and guided by education. In this context, he referred to specific objectives mentioned in the report which included increased teaching of foreign languages, greater cooperation between universities over specified and closely defined points of development, top priority for continuing education schemes, and special attention to mass media and new education technologies. Professor Janne's proposals had provided the basis for three documents presented by the Commission of the European Communities to the Council in March 1974 regarding cooperation in the field of education in the Community (see Vocational Training Information Bulletin No 1, page 5), which had been considered during a session of the Council and Conference of Education Ministers in June 1974. Having presented the official proposals for a unified education policy in considerable detail, the Prime Minister reverted to his theme of the search for identity and new values in a European context. He believed that existing tension had been created on the one hand by the far-reaching changes that scientific and technological developments had on our way of life and thinking and on the other, by the transformation from national to European values since the geographic, economic, social and political domains had all been enlarged. In addition, he said, it was clear that this

crisis was the source of the conflict between generations and that the generation gap was very marked on this point. The youth of today assumed more and more the characteristics of a distinct 'social class' with its own culture and ideologies. The dissension expressed by young people would have a profound influence on the new European values that are emerging. In the past, humanist cultural values of democracy, equality, human dignity and the rights of man, Christian altruism, social solidarity and the desire for peace served as the basis for Western society. The criticism made by young people was that these values, although cited, were no longer observed. Affluent society accepted existence of deprived communities, was slow in giving aid to the Third World and directed its resources towards armaments while wars were still being fought. On analysis, the whole system of traditional values could be seen to be faltering seriously. The Belgian Prime Minister saw two new paths for future development:

- European culture should be based on harmony between the technical and the natural milieu and on the social relationship which gave man a real influence over his own life: in other words, participation;
- European society should open itself to the world in furthering its tradition of rich diversity, that is, to the Eastern countries and to the Third World, in the spirit of cultural pluralism, both within and without, of cooperation, and of peace—leaving aside the notion of economic hegemony. With these possible directions in mind, the schools' mission would be to awaken and consolidate young people's European consciousness.

In conclusion, Mr Tindemans had several clearly defined proposals which he submitted for special attention:

1. Extended exchange schemes under which teachers and students would go abroad, either on a termly or yearly basis, or on a large scale during the holidays.
2. Development of language studies—since a knowledge of languages was fundamental in ensuring swift and easy communication throughout the newly extended geographic area.

3. Revised or adapted teaching of history and geography; this would serve to make Europeans aware of their community and of the interrelation of their problems.
4. The introduction of a European diploma which would favour flexibility in its curriculum.
5. The setting-up of a teaching foundation at the Community's disposal, which would guarantee autonomy and continuity of action in the field of education.

#### Source:

Discours du Premier Ministre L. Tindemans à la première conférence régionale Européenne du Comité de coopération de l'enseignement catholique. Torhout, 4 June 1975.

### 65. *A survey of the situation and problems concerning the education, training and employment of women in the EEC*

#### Introduction

In December 1972 the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted a resolution proclaiming 1975 as 'International Women's Year'. Its objectives are:

- (i) the promotion of equality between men and women;
- (ii) full integration of women in the total social and economic development effort;
- (iii) recognition of the importance of women's increased contribution to the strengthening of world peace.

In the hope that initiatives to this end will be taken on a Community level, the Commission of the European Communities has included within a Social Action Programme, adopted by the Council of Ministers on 11 December 1973, 'the preparation of a contribution to International Women's Year'. Article 119 of the Treaty of Rome, contains provisions concerning equality of remuneration for men and women workers. However, these provisions do not seem to have been enough in themselves to eliminate discrimination between men and women in the field

of employment. The Council therefore laid down, in a resolution of 21 January 1974, that one of the priority actions to be undertaken within the Social Action Programme was 'to achieve equality between men and women, as regards access to employment, vocational training, promotion and working conditions, including pay'. To help in this task, the Commission set up an *ad hoc* group of experts, nominated by Member States, which together with a group of representatives of the Social Partners made a study of the problems affecting women at work within the Community, and submitted proposals containing guidelines for action in each of the areas specified by the Council Resolution. These guidelines are addressed in the main to the Member States and constitute the general framework within which an initial series of Community activities can be undertaken.

The image of the position of women which emerged from the study confirms the existence of definite areas of discrimination, associated with women's education, training and employment.

In particular it revealed the following as key problem areas:

- distribution of women in the different sectors of the economy;—the majority of women perform simple or middle rank activities and are predominant in the lower wage group; this reflects, and is reflected by their education and training;
- access to skilled employment, recruiting conditions and promotion;—promotion is more difficult for women even with equal qualifications; this discourages women from gaining further qualifications;
- vocational guidance, training and further professional training for women; qualified men outnumber qualified women; less importance is attached to the training of girls as their occupations are frequently seen as a transitional stage preceding marriage;
- re-entry into professional life after interruption;
- conditions of work/flexibility of working time;
- child-care facilities and support for workers with family responsibility; the two-fold task of a woman affects her choice of career and

conflicts arise as long as there are not enough establishments for looking after children, or opportunities for part-time work;

— social security, sickness benefits, pension rights.

However, perhaps the most important factor which emerged from the study was the revelation of deep-seated discriminatory attitudes towards the training and employment of women on the part of employers, society at large and, most significantly, women themselves.

Some of these problems are touched upon in the article by Mrs D. King, on the training of married women for re-entry into employment. The present survey examines in greater depth the many problems involved and sets out such measures as the Commission feels are required at national and international level to improve the existing position of women's education, training and employment in the Community.

### I - Size and distribution of the female labour force

Before attempting an analysis of the problems affecting women at work in the Community, it is necessary to examine statistics to determine their numbers, the type of occupation they

are engaged in, and their family status. The EEC's 130 millions women represent 52 % of the population, and the number of employed, or self-employed women in the Community working outside the home is estimated at 35 million. Their proportion in the total working population ranges from 35 % to 40 % in six of the Member States and is about 25 % in the Netherlands, Italy and Ireland. (See Table 1). In most countries this proportion, while increasing steadily since the Second World War, remained fairly constant between 1966 and 1973. However, in Belgium and the Netherlands, where women's participation rate in the workforce has traditionally been low, the proportion of women at work has increased significantly during the comparable period from 31.6% to 34.5% and 23.4% to 25.9 respectively. In the United Kingdom the rise in the percentage of women in the labour force has been from 32% in 1951 to 38% in 1971, while in Italy there has been a steady drop in the total female labour force between 1965 and 1970 and also in women workers as a percentage of the total workforce.

In all Member States, the most significant phenomenon is the growth in the activity rate of married women, which is over 45 % in all countries except the Netherlands (28.3 %) and Ireland (13.5 %). This increase in the proportion of married women among those working outside the home has been accompanied by a diminution of

the proportion of unmarried women at work, due to younger marriage and the fact that more women are obtaining a longer general education and therefore the gap between leaving school and marriage is shorter. This substantial increase in the proportion of married women at work has been an important factor in determining attitudes to women's employment, since it is often the assumption that women are merely supplementary to men as workers and as contributors to the wage packet earned by men, which underlies both their unequal wages treatment and the often strongly held conviction that equal training facilities, job access and promotion, equal employment opportunities, sickness and pension rights are not only unnecessary but in many ways undesirable.

### Distribution

An examination of all women in employment according to categories (self-employed, assisting family members, and persons in paid employment) has revealed that the majority are in paid employment and that the numbers in this category are steadily rising. However, the distribution of women among various occupations has changed much less than their numbers in the workforce and the pattern is still for most women to be employed in a small number of industries and in very few occupations.

Table 1

### Women in the labour force 1966 and 1970-1973

Active population	Year	Belgium	Denmark	France	Germany (FR)	Ireland	Italy	Luxembourg	Netherlands	United Kingdom
Women as a percentage of the total active population	1966	31.6	.	36.8	36.8	26.0	27.2	(25.2)	(23.4)	35.8
	1970	33.1	39.4	36.0	36.6	(26.0)	27.4	25.8	(24.6)	36.4
	1971	33.5	39.9	36.3	36.6	26.9	27.5	25.8	(25.3)	35.9
	1972	34.0	40.9	36.7	36.9	(26.0)	27.1	26.6	(25.9)	36.3
	1973	34.5	41.2	36.9	36.9	(26.0)	27.8	26.9	.	37.2
Married women as a percentage of female population	1966	.	.	(52.1)	50.1	8.9	50.5	37.5	(28.3)	56.6
	1970	63.5	61.6	50.0	57.6	.	51.1	46.6	(28.6)	61.9
	1971	64.2	65.6	60.3	58.6	13.5	53.3	45.5	(28.9)	62.4
	1972	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
	1973	65.8	.	62.0	59.6	13.5	51.4	43.5	.	67.2

Source : Statistical Office of the European Communities.

Note : Figures in brackets : estimations  
.: data non available.

The service sector absorbs 50 % to 70 % of working women, according to country. Over one-half of all female employees are employed in three out of the EEC average of 27 main industrial orders: the distributive trades, professional and scientific services (including teaching and nursing) and miscellaneous services (catering, laundries etc.). In terms of occupations, the concentration is even more striking; nearly three-quarters of the female workforce come under the headings of 'clerical workers', service, sports and recreation workers', 'professional, technical workers and artists' and 'sales workers' while the males are much more easily spread among these and the twenty-odd other occupational orders. For women who work part-time, the same in true only more so, and if a finer level of analysis is used, the same clustering of women in a small number of industrial or occupational sub-headings is found.

A 1972 analysis in Great Britain of jobs entered by young people aged 15-17 years and, for the relatively small numbers of girls who enter apprenticeships, an analysis of the trades they enter, showed that nearly 80 % of girl apprentices chose hair-dressing and manicure. Notably, among more highly qualified women, the same phenomenon is to be observed. For example, the General Household Survey (UK) found that 92 % of working women holding at least a first degree or its equivalent were to be found in distribution, services including health and education and public administration. The corresponding figure for men was 62 %. In general then it can be said that the membership of professional associations, social work, the professions subsidiary to medicine and librarianship are predominantly feminine fields, that market research, medicine, pharmacology, psychology and public relations have a fair proportion of qualified women among their practitioners, and that women are conspicuous by their absence among engineers, accountants, chartered secretaries, chemists, estate agents and surveyors, physicists, architects, and industrial artists.

The number of women employed in agriculture now represents only a small percentage of the female labour force, ranging from 4 % in the Netherlands to just over 20 % in Denmark and Italy, while the manufacturing industry employs a fairly constant proportion

ranging from 20 % to 30 % depending on the degree of industrialization of the region concerned, the type of industry and the attitude of employers and male workers to the employment of women (see below).

## **II - Social and economic factors influential to the growth of the female labour force**

In order to gain an overall view of the situation of women earning wages in the Community today, it is necessary to take into account the social and economic developments which have been taking place since the end of the Second World War, and led to both a fundamental change in the position of women and to a rapid increase in the size of the female labour force. This has in turn resulted in the emergence of problems in the fields of women's education and training, job access and family responsibilities, which are now common to all Member States.

One influential factor in the change in the position of women is the expansion and diversification of the labour market throughout the Community. Not only are more workers required, but the demand for women workers has grown at a faster rate than the expansion of the labour market as a whole. This is due to the fact that urbanization is taking place at ever increasing rates. Service industries (including the public sector), employing the majority of women, have expanded more rapidly than manufacturing industries, while the importance of agriculture has continued to decline. Moreover, the demand for women workers has expanded alongside a rapid expansion of supply, again caused by a variety of social and economic developments.

Experience so far has shown that the willingness of married women to engage in gainful activity outside the home depends in individual cases on varied factors, both material and psychological. These include the number of children, their ages and the availability of establishments for looking after children, the financial situation, including old-age insurance (on the basis of the husband's or wife's own contributions), household demands and location of place of work

and transport facilities, as well as the level of education of the women concerned.

Since access to the labour market depends on being able to offer the skills and knowledge which are in demand, the wider educational opportunities open to women in the last-twenty-five years have been both cause and effect of their progressive emancipation. In all Member States this expansion of education opportunities has given women a higher level of qualifications than in the past and thereby access to better jobs with greater inherent interest, higher social recognition and prestige. Women are becoming less willing to forgo the stimulation which a profession or work in the community can bring, and increasingly tend to regard work as a means of personal development. Thus they are reluctant to stop work on a permanent or temporary basis when they marry or have their first child.

The growing activity rate of women has also been both cause and effect of the rising standard of living. Because women can now provide a second income, a family can afford consumer durables, such as washing machines, cars, television sets etc.

Since these are often paid for by instalments, they impose a burden on the family budget, making it desirable to secure this second income. Moreover, the increase in labour-saving devices in the home, combined with the development of convenience foods, have profoundly changed the pattern of housekeeping. The smaller, rationalized household of today no longer absorbs women in every case, and housekeeping is now no longer a full-time vocation in itself requiring a high level of skill acquired only by women. Most household jobs can be done by men as well as women, thus facilitating the sharing of tasks between members of the family and easing the burden of domestic duties which women have, in the past, had to bear alone.

Just as conditions in the home have changed so have conditions of work. Much of the growth in the proportion of married women in the labour force is due to the expansion of part-time work and of work permitting more flexible working hours, which makes it easier for those women who benefit from such arrangements to combine work outside the home with their family responsibilities. At the same

time the number of day institutions for children and arrangements for day nurseries have been growing steadily. The increase in the number and proportion of married women in the workforce has in fact been accompanied by an increase in the number and proportion of working mothers. In the Federal Republic of Germany, for example, more than a quarter of the economically active women have at least one child under 15 years of age. In France, in 1968, among mothers aged under 35, 51 % of those with one child were at work, 27 % of those with two children and 12 % of those with three. This increased availability of married women for work is largely due to the changes in the pattern of family formation. The widespread acceptance of the practice of family planning now enables couples to decide when to have children and how large their families should be. In most countries young people are getting married earlier and tend to have a limited number of children in the earlier years of their marriage, so that the modern married woman who is over thirty-five is much less likely to have a child under 5 to look after than her predecessor 45 years earlier. Moreover, the break for bringing up children, which used to last fifteen years is getting shorter and shorter. For example, it is calculated on average to be about 8 years in most Member States, and as little as three years in Germany, with the result that the wife is now completing her child-rearing role whilst still young enough to work outside the home.

Other demographic changes have affected the potential length of women's working lives. At the turn of the century, a woman's expectation of life at birth was 52 years; by 1973 this had increased to 75 years. Furthermore, the prospect of being continuously available for employment over a period of twenty or thirty years is now the normal pattern and no longer the rarity it was, say, between the wars.

Changes in activity rates show that the increased potential to undertake paid work that has resulted in part from the demographic changes mentioned above has been most marked among older married women. Whereas in 1931 the older married women in employment was a comparative rarity, it is now normal for married women to work and withdrawal from the labour

market and return to it is the general pattern. The theory of a three-phase life for women—initial period of work before marriage and up to the birth of the first or second child, withdrawal from employment until the last child has grown up, and return to employment until the normal age of retirement—can now be contested on the basis of facts brought out in the studies of the pattern of women's work and home life. The three-phase cycle is one of many, and it is now appropriate to concentrate social policy and services governing the training and employment of women on the needs of those who have virtually uninterrupted work experience and careers, either because they have to go on working or because they choose to do so. It is also necessary to make flexible and adequate provision for reintegrating women of all ages and at all stages into economic life if for some reason or another they have dropped out for a shorter or longer period.

### III - Women in the economic sector

#### *Access to employment*

The Commission recognizes the need for equal opportunity for women in training and employment, and this is determined, among other factors, by the opening of access to a wider range of jobs. In many countries industrial and social history has left a heritage of protective legislation applying to women only and this legislation, however well intended, has sometimes led to discrimination against them as workers.

#### *Protective legislation for women only*

The prohibition of underground work for women is the most common form of protective legislation applying to women only. In some countries the prohibition is inflexible while in others there are exceptions for those employed in health or welfare services, and for women who may have to be underground during a course of training, or occasionally in the performance of a non-manual occupation. Most member countries also specify a series of other occupations from which women are barred on the grounds that

the work is dangerous or unhealthy for them (such as in the armed forces) or of an immoral nature (for example, night work in industry). In many cases physical strength or stamina was a primary factor in the prohibitions and restrictions (such as in the steel industry). In France, moreover, a specific limit on weights to be lifted is given for female work. France is also the only place where certain civil service posts are closed to women.

In other cases health protection from the standpoint of a woman's reproductive function was a factor; in still other cases there seems to have been a notion of protecting women from work regarded as 'unpleasant' and 'unsuitable for women'. Many countries have also placed restrictions on women workers' hours of work and overtime, and while the intention in the past has been to protect women from overwork, the practical effect has been in many places to limit their employment opportunities and their incomes.

The area of work actually unsuitable for women in all these categories has contracted over the years. For example, even in heavy engineering, automation enables a woman to operate heavy machinery as easily as a man. Although women are still barred from combat duties in the armed forces of most Member States, they take an increasing part in analogous duties, such as those of the police. Moreover, in most countries adult women are no longer anxious to be subjected to external protection against moral danger. Another interesting factor to note is that in those areas of activity which have traditionally been the preserve of women, the arduous or dangerous nature of the work has not been regarded as a reason for prohibiting them from undertaking it. The danger to health incurred by nurses is one example; the arduous work done by women office cleaners at 'unsocial' hours is another. There seem therefore to be no valid social arguments against the opening of all but very few types of work equally to men and women, although exceptions might continue to include active military services, posts involving activities such as personal search (as for customs evasion) and posts confined to one sex on religious grounds.

The most controversial area, however, as regards protective legislation apply-

ing to women only, is the restriction or prohibition of night work for women. A study carried out by the International Labour Office in 1973 [2] concluded that there were three distinct schools of thought among governments and in employers' and workers' circles about leaving women to choose for themselves, as responsible adults, whether or not to undertake night work. One favoured a general removal of restrictions on the employment of women at night, another was for a more limited relaxation of existing restrictions and greater flexibility in national laws and practice, and the third favoured general regulation of night work for men and women alike as a means of safeguarding the health of all workers and of promoting the welfare of the family as a whole.

In the Federal Republic of Germany the 1972 report of the Federal Government [2] on measures to improve the situation of women noted that many restrictions on the employment of women were largely outdated, and that protection meant exclusion, interference with women's freedom of decision and a consequential narrowing of their employment opportunities. The report recommended that women be protected effectively on occupational/medical grounds, but that all those prohibitions and limitations which have lost their purpose and which restrict women's opportunities should gradually be removed. A certain amount of action has already been taken in this direction. In Sweden and Denmark regulations have in fact been adopted on night work that apply equally well to men and women and that forbid night work in principle except in specific cases.

In conclusion then it can be said that the main task in the issue of protective legislation (other than maternity protection) should be to keep such legislation under continuous review in the light of up-to-date scientific and technical knowledge and to revise, supplement and extend to all workers or repeal such legislation, according to national needs and circumstances.

### *Unemployment*

Economic factors are also of basic importance in determining the extent of the employment opportunities

available to women. Although the national economic situation and trends determine the structure and climate within which both men and women seek and find work, at a time of growing unemployment and under-employment, women are seen as a threat to men, and it is then very difficult to ensure their right to work on a footing of equality. Even before the current recession began, over 50 % of women in the workforce were registered as unemployed (see Table 2).

The data collected by the Commission of the European Communities during the drawing up of the Report on the Development of the Social Situation in the Community in 1973 indicates a growth of female unemployment and, by comparison, a decline in male unemployment. In 1973, for at least part of the year, figures indicate a rigorous growth in the labour market. However, the improvement of the employment situation benefited primarily the male labour force and it is therefore the structural aspect of female unemployment which needs to be reviewed. However, the majority of unemployed women are unqualified, and often their basic training is so weak, especially for the oldest, that it does not allow the provision of professional training to improve their job opportunities (see below).

Despite the sheer numerical importance of women to the economy, the fact of their being potential wives and mothers has also worked against their consideration as serious, full-time participants in economic and other spheres of life. Very little has in fact been done in any of the countries of the Community to ease the burden of the dual role of women who work outside the home. Women with family responsibilities are regarded with suspicion as potential absentees, an attitude which coincides with their actual position as a pool of casual labour, often subject to arbitrary dismissal. There is also the phenomenon of 'hidden unemployment'. Many women simply withdraw from the labour force when they lose their jobs or in times of job scarcity and do not re-enter the labour market [13]. These facts illustrate among other things women's own views of their supplementary function as members of the workforce. In Italy, where equal pay was implemented sooner than elsewhere, this seems to have had the effect of one million women withdraw-

ing from a labour market with an already small women's workforce (27 %). In the absence of legislation against discrimination in employment there is a danger that the habitual preference for preserving men's jobs could assert itself in all Community countries. (This attitude was deeply demonstrated during the 1930s depression when in almost all European countries women were discouraged or barred, sometimes by law, from pursuing education and employment.)

### *Earnings*

The division of work into 'men's' and 'women's' leads to the position in which women's work is apt to be regarded as of less value than that of men, and therefore is less well paid. Other factors involved in the question of earnings include long-standing public indifference to equal pay as an issue in the integration of women in economic life, the reluctance of women to make their claims for fear of jeopardizing their employment opportunities, the lack of adequate factual information about the actual implementation of equal pay in different sectors, and persisting attitudes towards the employment of women (see below). The International Conference of Equal Pay organized by the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (Brussels - October 1972) issued a statement outlining a number of constructive steps for achieving equal pay, and stressed the important role of the trade unions in this area and the variety of means available to them to take action at all levels. Furthermore, Article 119 of the Treaty of Rome contains a proposal for a Council Directive on the approximation of the laws of Member States concerning the application of the principle of equal pay for men and women workers. This principle implies the elimination of all discrimination in payment based on sex, for the same work or for work of the same value.

A major obstacle to achieving equal pay, however, is the technical difficulty of job classification, comparison and evaluation. In the Federal Republic of Germany, for example, this problem has been acute and a special inquiry is being made into job evaluation and classification, the results of which will be submitted to Parliament and to employers' and workers' organizations.

Table 2

*Unemployment among women : annual average 1966 and 1970-73*

	Year	Belgium	Denmark	France	Germany (FR)	Ireland	Italy	Luxembourg	Netherlands	United Kingdom
Registered unemployment Total (in thousands)	1966	61.5	18.3	147.1	161.1	52.2	1 115.3	0	42.9	360.0
	1970	71.3	23.9	262.1	148.8	65.3	887.6	0	44.5	618.0
	1971	70.9	30.0	338.2	185.1	62.4	1 038.1	0	62.0	799.1
	1972	86.8	29.9	383.5	246.4	72.0	1 047.8	0	107.9	885.5
	1973	91.7	20.1	394.1	273.5	66.6	1 004.9	0	109.9	630.3
Registered female unemployment (in thousands)	1966	18.2	2.1	55.3	44.5	8.6	303.4	0	5.0	79.7
	1970	28.9	4.3	116.3	55.9	11.0	267.6	0	8.1	95.1
	1971	28.5	5.3	150.0	84.3	12.2	332.7	0	11.5	128.1
	1972	35.0	5.2	175.8	105.8	13.2	342.2	0	17.4	149.9
	1973	43.1	4.3	200.5	123.6	12.0	341.8	0	21.5	107.4
Women as a percentage of total unemployment	1966	29.6	11.5	37.6	27.6	16.5	27.2	0	11.7	22.0
	1970	40.5	18.0	44.4	37.6	16.8	30.1	0	18.2	15.4
	1971	40.2	17.7	44.4	45.5	19.6	32.0	0	18.5	16.0
	1972	40.3	17.4	45.8	42.9	18.3	32.7	0	16.1	16.9
	1973	47.0	21.4	50.9	45.2	18.0	34.0	0	19.6	17.0

Source : Table drawn up on the basis of available data published by the competent national offices.

Even where some grading system for wage purposes has been adopted and separate grades for men and women have been eliminated, the trade unions complain that women tend automatically to be placed in the lowest grade, or in a special (also badly paid) grade for light work. A related difficulty is the interpretation of equal pay for work of equal value especially in occupations in which women predominate. The concept of work of equal value' conveys a notion of equivalence in terms not only of identity of task and job content but also of such factors as skill, effort and responsibility. The persistent tendency to underrate the work done by women and the occupations and jobs in which they are employed contrive to stand in the way of any objective appraisal of their skills.

However important it may be to achieve equal pay for equal work this is only one aspect of the broader question of women's wages. Their chief characteristic almost everywhere is their low level as compared with those of men (see Table 3). While failure to apply the principle of equal pay fully and fairly may be an element in this situation, it is not the only factor: others include the heavy concentration of women in badly paid industries and occupations (see

above), the handicaps imposed on them by society as a result of their multiple responsibilities and discrimination in employment. Moreover, women tend to work shorter hours than men and fewer bonus hours (e.g. at night or on Sundays or holidays).

Table 3

*Differences between men's and women's wages in all manufacturing industries*

(Average women's earnings as a percentage of men's)

Country	1963	1972	1963-72
Belgium <sup>1</sup>	60.3	64.4	+ 4.1
Denmark	68.6	77.9	+ 9.3
Germany (FR)	68.7	70.7	+ 2.0
Ireland	57.2	57.2	0
Sweden	72.1	83.2	+ 11.1
Switzerland	62.7	64.7	+ 2.0
Unit. Kingdom	57.2	59.3	+ 2.1

<sup>1</sup> Based on daily earnings. Figures for all other countries based on average hourly earnings. Source : ILO : Yearbook of Labour Statistics, 1973.

Further, where wages are determined with regard to length of service, women's generally lower seniority may be an additional factor.

The only ways to lessen or remove these differentials between men and women's earnings are changes in the structure and character of women's education, training and employment, aimed at overcoming the sex-roles attributed to women in the world of work.

**IV - Education, vocational guidance and training**

It has been widely recognized that a key to the promotion of equality of opportunity for women in employment is the shape and content of the initial education, guidance and training. However, there has been much speculation in recent years as to how far imbalances in the structure and level of women's employment can be traced to deficiencies in their education guidance and training, and how far the education, guidance and training of girls is conditioned by the employment prospects likely to be available to them.

## Education

There is no doubt that girls and women are at a disadvantage as regards education. The statistics issued by UNESCO show this clearly (see Table 4). In most countries girls still tend to drop out of school and university earlier than boys. Where parents have to make a choice between investing in the education of a girl or that of a boy, the preference is likely to go to the boy. Moreover, an elder daughter is often needed at home to look after younger children. Even where there is a satisfactory percentage of enrolment of girls as compared with boys at secondary levels, there is often discrimination against girls in the nature and content of the education provided and the options offered. Although it is now much more widely recognized than, say, ten years ago that the aim should be to provide the same or very similar education for boys and girls, with an identical curriculum at all levels of the educational system, girls' actual choices of optional subjects and study lines remain dominated by conventional attitudes.

Table 4

### *Estimated female enrolment by level of education in the developed countries*

*Percentage of girls in total enrolment*

	Total	1st level	2nd level	3rd level
1950	47	48	47	34
1960	48	49	48	36
1970	48	49	49	40

Source :  
Unesco : Statistical Yearbook 1972. Table 2.3.

Education is classified by level as follows: education at the first level, of which the main function is to provide basic instruction in the tools of learning, education at the 2nd level, based upon at least four years previous instruction at the first level, and providing general and specialized instruction or both, and education at the third level which requires as a minimum condition of admission, the successful completion of education at the 2nd level, or evidence of the attainment of an equivalent level of knowledge.

Formal segregation traditionally begins at school. Although mixed schooling is now coming to be more widely accepted in Member States, one of the main problems in providing equal educational opportunities for girls is the practice of regarding some subjects as more suitable for boys and others as more suitable for girls. Girls are persistently attracted to certain branches of education while neglecting others. For example, they show a marked preference for general academic work rather than vocationally orientated courses at the secondary level and for the arts and humanities rather than science, mathematics and technology at all post primary levels. These preferences seem to be very deeply rooted and to influence considerably the further training and employment horizons of women. A recent Danish study of schoolchildren illustrates this attitudinal situation [2]. The influence of the school tends to be reinforced by attitudes in the home and in the community at large, and the problem is compounded by fixed notions and concepts about the respective roles of men and women in society. Traditional views about the primary role and position of women as wives and mothers are passed on from one generation to another through the socio-cultural milieu which is essentially conservative. The spread of co-education has however been a powerful factor in promoting equal education for girls, although even in coeducational systems there are still streams and options which place girls at a disadvantage by encouraging them to take up so called 'girls' subjects. The education of boys and girls together appears on the whole to be a recent development. Many countries regard coeducation as an effective method of adapting to new patterns of behaviour, thus facilitating the integration of both sexes into modern society. The factors tending towards the expansion of coeducation seem therefore also to combine to increase the access of women to education. A questionnaire sent by the Commission of the European Communities to all Member States has revealed that the only countries which do not in fact have a general policy of coeducation are Italy and Ireland. Ireland is the only country where mixed schooling is neither allowed, nor practised, and in Italy while mixed schooling is allowed, it is not in fact practised. In Luxembourg mixed school-

ing is not allowed in the seventh or eighth grade.

## Vocational guidance

The combination of the influence of home environment and school often limits the range of courses open to girls when they leave school and their generally restricted range of qualifications and expectations influence the vocational guidance given them, often by advisers who have been conditioned by similarly restricted backgrounds. Experience suggests that girls can be helped only if the guidance provided dispels, in many respects, the myths concerning women's role and potential in society and work life and helps to overcome the effects of prejudice and tradition. It should also aim to correct the narrow image of their future work lives which many girls tend to form. Brought up with the idea that their principal, if not exclusive, role in life is to be a wife, mother and homemaker, girls often tend to overlook the fact that, for reasons mentioned above, the outlook and pattern of women's employment and life-style is changing. Girls are often torn by conflicting considerations in thinking about their future role. They need guidance which will help them resolve these contradictions in a realistic manner consistent with the role they will be called upon to play both at home and at work, and not patterned on an image of their role which is no longer consistent with the facts. The whole concept of guidance must be expanded so that girls receive the necessary help and advice on a continuous basis. A second aim of guidance should be to point out that the traditional occupations commonly considered suitable for women tend not only to be the least well-paid, but, as mentioned earlier, have also often been changed out of all recognition by technological advances.

This is important, since the majority of girls still choose to prepare for entry into 'women's occupations'. Some of these—such as teaching and nursing—exert a natural attraction, but in other cases the attraction is purely an outworn tradition, no longer valid in terms of employment opportunities and prospects. Even in the case of science—chemistry or applied biology—boys tend to go in for manufacturing and girls for laboratory work as

assistants and no further (see Table 5). A third objective of guidance should be not simply to help keep girls away from overcrowded traditional trades, but to make them aware of the new possibilities offered by technology and scientific progress, which are equally available to women and men provided that the former receive the necessary preparation.

This becomes particularly important when economic development is accompanied by a decline in employment in areas in which women have traditionally played an important part—agriculture, textiles and small shops and industries. A fourth and related objective of guidance is simply to call to the attention of girls occupations in which women have not usually been employed.

Many Member States do now have public vocational guidance services or centres which provide guidance of varying degrees of sophistication to boys and girls seeking advice at or near the time of leaving school. However, counsellors staffing these services and centres have often been criticized for offering conservative occupational advice to girls and for not encouraging them to venture into new sectors. Nowhere do there exist vocational guidance services solely for women. The exception here can however be found in England which has set up the National Advisory Centre on Careers for Women, an independent non-profit-making organization.

Campaigns of public information and education linked with guidance and counselling can sometimes help to bring girls and women into new occupations and levels of responsibility and to break down the 'for women only', 'for men only' signs. However, there still remains the problem, dealt with later in this study, that after training for a new field girls may not be able to find employment in it because of prejudiced attitudes or restrictive legislation.

### **Vocational training**

One area which requires a radical change in attitudes and which therefore cannot be solved purely in organizational terms is the vocational training need of women. This need stems

from the fact that so many women retire temporarily from the labour force to have and bring up young families, and then suffer a loss of confidence in their former skills. If they are not given the facilities to prepare themselves for a return to work they may be deterred from returning altogether. Women in this category do not generally require extensive training and often a short re-introduction to the job will be sufficient to restore old skills and boost confidence. Even so, the majority of employers do not provide refresher training. However, noteworthy exceptions include the health services which employ large numbers of women as nurses, midwives and doctors. Many hospitals in the United Kingdom provide courses for women returning to nursing and there are some schemes for keeping women doctors with domestic responsibilities up-to-date and in touch with their profession during periods of absence from work. Refresher courses are also available for teachers, but a United Kingdom study has found that while 93 % of teachers returning to the profession considered such a course as essential or necessary, very few have in fact attended one. These figures are reflected throughout the Member States. The 1973 Office of Population Censuses and Surveys (OPCS) (UK) [6] showed that only about a third of employers have a positive approach to the employment of women returning to work and that even a smaller proportion offered refresher training, a percentage which is reflected throughout the Member States with the exception of Denmark, where a positive approach to the employment and training of women is far more marked. It is suggested that if opportunities to prepare for return to work were more easily available over a wider range of jobs it would result in more women being attracted to train for them when young. Such evidence as is available suggests that there is also a need for training facilities for women who, having given up work for domestic reasons wish to return to some other kind of work to that on which they were previously employed.

The relationship between the measured ability of boys and girls on the one hand, was one of the topics included in a study carried out by the Medical Research Council Unit (at the London School of Economics - UK) [12] as part of the National Survey of Health

and Development. The main object of the study was to investigate vocational training and education for young school-leavers and the result was that the girls in each of the five ability groups used were less likely to have had some training than boys (see Table 6).

It is now generally recognized that, if women are to progress in their chosen career, the need for leave from work for further education and training purposes is an important factor. However, the double responsibilities of women at work and in the home make it difficult to sustain a third call on their time. Also, in spite of the fact that women do now benefit from generally applicable provisions, such as the Belgian law of April 1973, providing for the granting of 'credit hours' to workers in order to develop their careers, it is now appropriate, in view of the tendency of women to underrate their chances of promotion, to lay special emphasis on the use of educational leave by women workers [28]. An examination of the use made by women at present of continuous vocational training has revealed that the beneficiaries are young women with few family responsibilities or unmarried women, and that they seem to prefer general educational courses which can be followed at home (televised studies) and courses for which regular attendance is not necessary (such as social advancement courses). Only a very small number of women follow courses which are held during the day, whether full or part-time. The Commission of the European Communities has been undertaking a study of the provisions for educational leave in the Member States [28], and wishes to see these provisions extended, suggesting that the new European Centre for Vocational Training could do some work on the specific needs of women with families.

The possibilities for vocational training for women at present vary from country to country. Although in principle these facilities do exist, in Ireland, employers look more favourably on the admission of men, and in the Netherlands, the possibilities in this field are fairly limited. In Germany the position of women as regards these courses is the object of special attention in the law on promotion. Vocational training centres solely for women are at present non-existent; however pilot projects are underway in Luxembourg,

Table 5

*Class of employment entered by young persons aged 15-17 in 1972, Great Britain*

Class of employment entered	Boys		Girls	
	thousands	%	thousands	%
Apprenticeship to skilled occupation	100.2	38.7	18.0	7.9
Employment leading to professional qualification	3.4	1.3	3.9	1.7
Clerical employment	18.4	7.1	78.3	34.3
Employment with planned training (apart from induction training) not covered above	42.6	16.5	40.5	17.7
Other employment	94.3	36.4	87.5	38.3
Total	258.9	100	228.2	99.9

Source : Returns from Careers Offices, see *Department of Employment Gazette*, May 1973

Table 6

*Girls aged 15-17 entering apprenticeships to skilled occupations in 1972, Great Britain*

	Number	Girls as percentage of total in each trade group
All manufacturing industries	814	2.5
Distributive industry	804	12.1
Insurance, banking, finance and business services	68	14.9
Professional and scientific services	1 137	42.6
Miscellaneous services of which :	14 654	47.8
Hairdressing and manicure	(13 989)	(94.0)
Other industries	520	1.2
Total	17 997	15.2

Source : Returns from Careers Offices, see *Department of Employment Gazette*, May 1973

the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (see article by Mrs King for the position in Germany).

## V - Attitudes and behaviour

The question of vocational training opportunities for women leads on to

the fundamental problem involved in a reassessment of the needs of women in the labour force — the problem touched on above of deep-seated attitudinal discrimination against women on the part of employers, society as a whole and even women themselves.

## *The influence of social forces - Tradition*

To some extent sex differentiation in employment can be the consequence of habit and tradition rather than a conscious rationalization about differences in behaviour or qualities between the sexes. Traditional attitudes, established over many years and justified on a number of different grounds, can play a large part in determining the choices made by the employer and employee. The Danish professor Harriet Holter has pointed out that the assignment 'by sex' of a number of tasks considered necessary for the well-being and continuity of the individual family, community and indeed the total society is a feature of every known society'. [4] However, it is maintained and reinforced by most institutions with which the individual comes into contact, and traditional views about employment and occupational differences are entwined with traditional views on other matters such as education, roles and responsibilities within the family, financial arrangements within the family in such a way that cause and effect cannot easily be disentangled. It may be convenient for the purposes of this study to regard the social forces at work here collectively as a major factor in accounting for the existence of strongly held views about occupational differences.

During the Second World War, women were employed in a range of jobs normally associated with men and largely in the engineering industry. However, although their ability to train for and perform these jobs was proved beyond doubt, after the war-time need had passed women did not on the whole remain in these jobs and normal family patterns of living and traditional attitudes to work were able to reassert themselves. Even if they wished to stay, women were left in no doubt by the men who were returning that their continued presence would not be welcomed in areas of employment traditionally associated with men. In the EEC today there are definite ideas about which jobs belong to men and which to women [12]. Interchange of 'men's' and 'women's' jobs has not been considered, either because tradition has been too great an obstacle, or because the work or environment was simply considered unsuitable for the other sex.

## Employers' attitudes and behaviour

While it is difficult to assess the degree to which employers' attitudes determine the limited range of occupations available to women, such studies as have been carried out show the choice of jobs offered to women to be narrow. The 'men only' vacancies advertised offer a far wider variety of occupations with much greater emphasis on skilled work. Many employers discount women from a wide range of jobs either by excluding them from consideration in the first place, or by preferring a man to an equally qualified woman. These preferences are to a large extent conscious and acknowledged, reflecting opinions generally held among society, but they may also operate unconsciously.

The labelling of jobs as 'men's work' or 'women's work' leads to recruitment based on sex rather than capacity. It creates a situation in which work traditionally done by men commands higher pay and prestige, while that traditionally done by women is accorded lower pay and prestige and consequently under-valued. Moreover, such labelling is too often based on unproven and unquestioned assumptions about women's capacities and inclinations and on prejudices held both by men and by women themselves. It is well established that women's share of the more senior and skilled jobs in almost all sectors of employment is small, and that the further up the scale one goes, the smaller is this share. The question as to what extent this is due to employers making distinctions between the sexes which affect recruitment, selection and promotion decisions is a difficult one to answer with any accuracy because it depends on decision-making processes in which the determining factors are not necessarily revealed through statistics or overt signs such as the wording of an advertisement.

Job restriction, however, can also result from tradition rather than conscious policy decisions. Where such attitudes are thought by employers to be shared by the population at large, overt signs of sex preference are not necessarily apparent. However, examination of recruitment advertising, and replies to surveys conducted throughout the EEC have revealed a part of the picture. Evidence of how far the consideration of a person's sex affects a recruitment

or promotion decision has been sought; for example, evidence of 'exclusion' of all members of one sex from a job (which can be ascertained from recruitment literature as well as surveys) and preference for one sex over the other. Evidence for the latter is more difficult to find, because it may not so easily be reflected in overt behaviour, although attitudinal surveys do give some indication. Sometimes, even where jobs are open to either sex, employers may still prefer to recruit or promote one sex in preference to the other, although clear evidence of this is more difficult to find and many employers may not even realize themselves that they have such preferences. It is not certain that these sex preferences would in fact be exercised, because men or women are likely to fail in a job application because of their sex and irrespective of their qualifications. Nevertheless, there are some examples to be found of changes deliberately brought about by employers, who offer women wider opportunities.

The determination of access to employment, however, is not only a matter of employers. Employment agencies may also discriminate in offering vacancies or in selecting candidates for submission to prospective employers. Professional associations and trade unions, by means of controlling the membership of closed professions or of 'closed shops' in a firm or industry, may influence a person's chances of gaining employment. Again, the exercise of certain activities requiring public control is dependent upon the possession of a licence issued by public authorities which may discriminate on the grounds of sex. If access to employment is to be open, discrimination on account of sex or marital status on the part of such agencies, organizations or authorities needs to be prohibited.

### *Access to promotion*

Equality of opportunity within a career is as important as access to a career. The fact that the proportion of women at the upper levels of almost any sector of the labour market is much smaller than the total number of women in that sector would warrant is due not only to sex, but more often to the marital and family circumstances of the woman. Employers have thus

to be encouraged to take these circumstances into account in their staff development policies and the design of their staffing structures, so as to be able to give genuine equality of opportunity to all applicants and employees on the basis of individual merit alone.

### *Women's performance at work*

One argument for not employing women at all or preferring men concerns the relative value to the employer of a woman as a human resource. Compared to men, it is commonly thought that women are likely to have higher rates of turnover and absence largely because of their other roles outside the workplace. Although statistically there is little difference in performance between the two sexes, many employers believe that men in general are better than women on absence behaviour and staying with one firm. Beliefs such as these about women's performance at work, often implicitly resting on ideas about the effects of women's domestic responsibility, may influence industry's views on the wisdom of offering to women the same training, leave, job or promotion opportunities as it offers to men, because of the high training investment in relation to the subsequent length of time spent with the company, the absentee rate etc. and the increased likelihood that women will leave for domestic reasons. Facts about general performance at work provide some material for attempting to evaluate some of the beliefs about the relative merits to the employer of men and women. However, it is important to remember that the differences between men and women as regards turnover and absence from work are the results of many influences, and that because they differ on many characteristics (jobs, industries, earnings) it is difficult to be sure that like is compared with like. Considerable differences exist in the turnover rate between different occupational groups, and among people of different ages. If the most monotonous, low-paid and low-status jobs are those which show the highest absentee rates, and if those jobs are filled mostly by women, the facts will be reflected in absence rates aggregated by sex. At management level, any mobility that is attributed to women must be compared with the behaviour of men, and in junior man-

agement at least men are increasingly regarding the first job or jobs as a stepping stone to further jobs.

Surveys conducted by the Department of Employment (UK) [12] confirm that labour turnover is higher among females than among males, and that family reasons in explaining labour turnover among female workers are of undoubted significance. The General Household Survey of 1971 [12] showed that 35% of unemployed female workers said they had left their last job for domestic reasons. Perhaps more significant is the fact that the same reasons can also be shown to affect the economic position of married women graduates. A UK survey [14] of women who graduated in 1960 found that six years later only 42% of the married women were in paid employment. Among those who gave reasons for not working, 54% of those without children were pregnant. However, there is a clear correlation between the education and training of women and their participation in economic activity. The conclusion of the survey was that, in general, the higher the level of education the greater the woman's commitment to the workforce, whether with or without short interruptions for childbearing and rearing. There is no such direct link between the level of education and economic activity of men. The New Earnings Survey (UK) [12] provides information about the proportion of employees in the sample who were reported by their employers to have lost pay as a result of absence during the survey payperiod.

With absence as with turnover, the observed rates result from many factors, but females tend to be absent sick for shorter periods on average than males. R. M. Jones, in an earlier Manpower Paper 'Absenteeism' (UK) [7], comments on the widely accepted 'law' that 'women are absent more frequently and more in total than men', that 'female workers are usually to be found in monotonous, low-status, low-paid employment' and that 'when women are doing the same work as men, and when this work is of relatively high status, their absence performance is comparable with that of the men'.

To summarize the above, the argument of some employers is that women's responsibilities for home and children result in high turnover and absence.

On absence however, the evidence shows little difference between men and women generally.

Turnover rates for women are higher on aggregate but must be attributed in large measure to their need to depart from the work scene to have children and care for them: the older woman stays with her employer for longer periods. Moreover, it can generally be said that educated women display a more continuous professional life and will interrupt their career less frequently or for a shorter period of time when pregnant. Where higher turnover and absenteeism rates for women do occur in individual undertakings, studies suggest that they may well be related to the lower place women occupy in the occupational structure and to the fact that the great majority are in jobs where they have little skill or responsibility and little prospect for advancement or job satisfaction. Studies in France have brought out this correlation. Analyses indicate that the skill level of the job, marital status and age of the workers, length of service and record of job stability provide better clues to differences in job performance than does the fact that the worker is a man or a woman. Moreover, any generalization needs to be heavily qualified, and it may be suggested that for employers to restrict job training and promotion opportunities for women on the basis of aggregate statistics may not necessarily lead to the most satisfactory employment of women, either from the employers' point of view or from the women's point of view.

### *Women's behaviour and attitudes*

Although many employers do place restrictions on the employment of women, the evidence suggests that women themselves differ from men in the type of occupation sought, its status and long-term career prospects. B. N. Seear noted in her review of nine OECD countries [8] (which included most EEC States) that in all the countries studied some women are working to bring about a radical change in job opportunities both for school-leavers and for re-entry of women, but in no country is there evidence of a widespread demand for change. In many cases it is a fact that neither girls nor re-entry women take full advantage of the training

opportunities which already exist. Even in Sweden, where the greatest changes are being made, most girls and women still choose to enter the traditional women's occupations and choose the shorter and less ambitious trainee courses. Clearly a short study cannot do justice to the variety of circumstances which affect the employment decisions of individual women. Generalizations about the job wishes of all women, of all married women, or even of all married women with dependent children must be recognized as over-simplifications. However, most women in the EEC Member States do get married and have children and then expect to bear the major responsibility for child-care, while the men are expected to be the main earners, and studies show that such a role and role expectation affects the work that most women choose at different stages in their lives. For instance, girls may choose jobs which they expect to leave on marriage and possibly never return to and in consequence these involve a level of work below their potential and a minimum of training. The authors of an international study of women and top jobs have in fact reached the conclusion that 'women have a lower level of aspirations than men' and that there is a discernible relationship between social role and level of aspiration [3].

In experiments involving efforts to make employers and girls reconsider the type of work women could do, the 'most intractable problem' has proved to be the attitudes of the girls themselves. Girls whose scholastic achievements are comparable with boys' are more susceptible to social pressures which have the effect of making them lower their sights. Research illustrates that girls with inclinations towards school subjects and vocational training in areas regarded as traditionally boys' preserves can be discouraged from pursuing these, either by others or their own fears or future preference for work in which they would be welcome. Thus, women's aspirations from childhood onwards are clearly limited. Job and career choices by women and girls cover a narrower range than that of men and boys and most women are prepared to work within conventional areas, preferring work which has short periods of training and limited career prospects and is often below their capacity. Women with domestic responsibilities are

further constrained by their need to find work that is compatible with their role. Since the importance of domestic responsibilities, and especially responsibilities for children, is acknowledged as a factor influencing the married woman's decision whether or not to work, it follows that help with the children and household duties can make it easier for women to remain in or enter the labour market, whether full or part-time. The 1965 OPCS survey (UK) [5] asked women responsible for children, who were not working, and who would probably not go back to work, whether they thought they would be more likely to do so if better facilities were available in that area for the care of the children. In the critical age range of 25-34, the younger women (up to 29 years) tended to say that nurseries would help them to return, and slightly older women (30-34 years) made more mention of holiday and after-school facilities, a switch of emphasis that is to be expected as children grow older.

married women in the female population. However, while the Member States appear to be increasingly aware of the need for such arrangements, the division of responsibility between the family and the community at large for the care of children varies from one country to another. In general, little attempt appears to have been made in most Member States to develop a broad policy upon which long-term public intervention in this field could be based. As a result, at times of economic stress, public investment for the care of children runs the risk of being reduced without regard to the consequence for women in employment. In its Resolution of 21 January 1974, the Council of the EEC recognized the importance of this problem by adding to its resolution a reference to the needs to reconcile the family responsibilities of all those concerned, with their professional aspirations.

The general position in the Community is that where arrangements for supervising children of working mothers are concerned, members of the family, especially grandparents, often play a major role. In the case of pre-school children, studies have shown that the majority are looked after by the father or by another relative, usually grandmother, while formal arrangements such as local authority day nurseries or nursery schools and classes play a much smaller part. In the UK some local authorities have started placing children in priority groups with registered child-minders at the authorities' expense, and there is also an unknown number of unregistered child-minders. However, there is a tremendous unmet demand for child-care facilities, not only in general terms but especially for priority children, those with unsupported mothers or mothers that cannot cope for some other reason, and handicapped children. The practice of

Table 7

*Day-nurseries*

(Publicly approved day-nurseries for children of 0 to 3 years of age)

**VI - Employment and family responsibilities**

The substantial elimination of the social arguments against equal access to work is not in itself enough to ensure equal opportunities for men and women. It needs to be reinforced by the removal of the economic reasons which have long made employers in some sectors of activity reluctant to employ women, while in other areas women have been sought after. The establishment of the principle of equal pay for equal work will go far to eliminate the use of women as cheap labour, but effective discrimination on economic grounds may continue in view of the commitments of many women outside the work-force. Moreover, the provision of guidance and training facilities is in danger of being under-utilized because family commitments in many cases prevent women taking advantage of these facilities. The shortage in all Member States of arrangements for the care of dependants while women are at work has been accentuated by the increase of the proportion of

Country	Date	Number of establishments	Number of places
Belgium	9 July 1974	150 crèches	7 668
		295 'sections pré-gardiennes' <sup>1</sup>	5 900
Denmark	31 March 1974	484 public crèches	16 829
		208 crèches in private homes <sup>2</sup>	24 821
France	1 January 1974	797 crèches	36 585
		234 crèches in private homes <sup>2</sup>	14 479
United Kingdom	31 March 1973	563 local authority day nurseries	27 104
		70 crèches run by firms <sup>3</sup>	2 198
Germany (FR)	December 1973	653	20 428
Ireland	October 1973	20	1 250 approx.
Italy	1973	2 040	91 800 approx. <sup>7</sup>
Luxembourg	1974	8	400
Netherlands	1974	113	4 500 approx.

<sup>1</sup> For children older than 18 months.

<sup>2</sup> 'Crèches in private homes' are networks of child-minders based in their own homes, sometimes attached to a day-nursery or a social centre, sometimes working for local authorities. The child-minders are officially approved and supervised by qualified children's nurses.

<sup>3</sup> England and Wales only.

Source : Statistical Office of the European Communities.

firms providing crèches or day nurseries is still quite rare. The 1973 OPCS survey [6] (UK) found that no more than 5% of the firms in the sample taken provided child care for any of its employees. A number of hospitals provide day nursery facilities for employees' children and believe that they play a significant part in attracting staff who would otherwise be unable to work. The Civil Service in the UK has also recently introduced child-care facilities into one of its establishments, without restricting places to any jobs or categories of work. However, one cause of the delay in providing these facilities is that they are extremely expensive to provide, whether by the state or by employers.

The main area of difficulty is the care of children up to the age of three years. Table 7 shows the provision of publicly approved day nurseries in the Member States, and the shortage is apparent. The following particulars about some Member States illustrate the problem. It is estimated that there are 800 000 children under three years in Germany and 79 000 in Belgium, whose mothers go out to work and that the number of places in nursery schools are 20 428 in Germany and 13 568 in Belgium. In Denmark there are places in public day nurseries for 41,650 children constituting, however, only 7% of the children eligible to attend them. In France it was estimated in 1968 that there was one day nursery place for every ten working women with a child under three years of age and the position has not changed much since. In England and Wales, the 23 718 places in public nurseries are open only to cases of social needs, i.e. children of unmarried mothers, widows, divorcees. However, in Italy the law of 6 December 1971 is an example of a positive development in this field, this law established a five-year plan for the building of 3 800 day nurseries of which 1 290 were completed within two years. It appears however, that in general terms, the demand for places much exceeds the supply and the makeshift arrangements made by working mothers without access to a day nursery are often unsatisfactory. There is therefore a need in all Member States for more publicly provided day nurseries in adequate premises and with qualified staff.

In most Member States the provision of nursery schools or classes for children between two and three years and the age of compulsory school attendance at five or six years is distinctly better, and in several countries nursery schools are part of the general education system. Table 8 sets out, in so far as figures are available, the proportion of children in each age group who attend. However, even when children are of compulsory school age, problems remain, particularly in Member States where school attendance is confined to the morning. Responsibility for the supervision of children out of school hours is not, in general, taken by the schools, and thus arrangements have to be made by the family and

tend to devolve upon the mother. Attempts to combine work outside the home with the care of children inevitably lead to difficulties and the phenomenon of the 'latch-key' child, left uncared for between the end of school hours and the return of the parents from work often leads to much unhappiness and to delinquency. Similar problems arise when children are left uncared for during the school holidays. Although some local authorities provide school lunches, supervision and pay facilities, many mothers find it easier to arrange late afternoon care for children than to cope with school holiday periods, when supervision and food have to be provided to cover the whole day for several weeks on end. In fact it has been

Table 8

*Nursery schools*

(For children between 2 and 3 years and the beginning of the compulsory school age)

Country	Number of children enrolled	Age of admission	% of the total Number
Belgium (1973)	243 429	3-6	3-6 years = 60 %
Denmark (1974)	89 208 37 635 <sup>1</sup>	2 (or 3)-7	3-6 years = 30 %
Germany (FR) (1972)	1 319 854	3-6	3-4 years = 17.4 % 4-5 years = 38.8 % 5-6 years = 53.9 % - 6 years = 53.4 % <sup>2</sup>
France (1973)	2 359 702	2-6	2-4 years = 50 % 4-5 years = 70 % 5-6 years = 90 %
Ireland <sup>3</sup>	—	—	—
Italy (1973)	1 567 280	3-6	3-6 years = 50 %
Luxembourg (1973)	8 254	4-6	4-6 years = 85 %
Netherlands (1973)	521 793	4-6	4-5 years = 90 % 5-6 years = 100 %
United Kingdom : England and Wales (1973)	46 693 <sup>4</sup> 77 263 <sup>5</sup> 260 309 <sup>6</sup>	3-5	3-4 years = 27 %

<sup>1</sup> In pre-school classes, for children aged 6-7.

<sup>2</sup> 6-year old children before entering primary school.

<sup>3</sup> In Ireland, the data about nursery schools are not available. Even though school attendance is compulsory from the age of 6, it is estimated that in 1972 about 50 % of children aged 4-5 and 90 % of those between 5 and 6 years were attending primary school.

<sup>4</sup> Full time.

<sup>5</sup> Part time.

<sup>6</sup> In primary schools.

Source : Statistical Office of the European Communities.

found that some women leave jobs at the beginning of each school holiday and take new ones at the start of the following term. However, this is no solution for women who are dependent on their earnings, or who want to make progress in a career. The holiday camp—more common in France than elsewhere—is one solution, but this rarely lasts for more than two or three weeks of the holiday period.

In considering support for workers with family commitments, there is the problem of ill and elderly members of the family. Mothers working outside the home can be in particular difficulty when children are ill since very few establishments have formal arrangements for time off in such circumstances (although there is little evidence of it actually being refused). Moreover, for a substantial number of working women there may be the separate or additional problem of caring for an elderly or infirm relative. The 1965 OPCS survey [5] found that about one in ten working women were in that position. Not only has the growth of occupational and geographical mobility broken up the extended family within which the care of elderly members could be absorbed, but responsibilities for the elderly may extend over longer periods than those needed for bringing up a family. As the expectation of life grows, so the responsibilities of the working generation for their elderly relatives is likely to increase and policies for the assumption by the community of a share of their responsibility are as important as the sharing of responsibility for the children.

Just as more countries have come to appreciate that proper care for the young children of working parents is an obligation of the community and have evinced a willingness to make greater resources available for this purpose, so there is now far wider recognition that men as well as women have family responsibilities and that these charges should be more equitably shared by both parents. Although the help which husbands give in the home has in general been shown to be related to whether the wife is working, there is now evidence that some husbands and wives may be gradually adopting more similar roles as regards home and work responsibilities. Husbands are working more inside the home and wives more outside, which

may in turn enhance the woman's aspirations for a fully demanding job and make it possible for her to continue with this, alongside her family responsibilities. Wilmott & Young (UK) further express a feeling that a new style of family might be emerging and that its basis is not equality between husbands and wives but something approaching symmetry. [11]

One conclusion to be drawn from the various studies made is that married women, with children to care for and who are successfully engaged in professional work, succeed because their work is of a kind that can be done at home or on a part-time basis and because they are able to call up help from husbands and outside the home. Their working schedules are remarkably flexible. It can be predicted that the numbers of such women with a desire as well as a training for an absorbing job will increase in future, while their role as wives and mothers, and the contribution to child care and home care by the father and the community may determine the extent to which they are able to satisfy those wishes in employment today.

#### *Flexible working hours/Part-time work*

The most pressing need among working women is that of flexibility in the adjustment of their working hours, in order to help solve some of the problems arising out of the differences between working hours and those of the school and child-care services. In some Member States the tension between duty to their families and duty to work leads those women who can afford it to seek part-time work in preference to full-time employment. In the Netherlands it is estimated that 50% of the wage-earning married women of over 24 years of age work less than 25 hours a week. In Luxembourg the Government proposes to adopt specific standards with regard to part-time work. In the United Kingdom, some 2 750 000 women of the 9 million who make up the working population work less than 30 hours per week. In Germany 1 840 000 women are employed part-time and the demand for such work greatly exceeds the supply. In France, although part-time work affected only 13.2% of the working population in

1972, it appears that women who have not worked before marriage tend to seek part-time work, possibly as much in order to create an interest outside the home as to supplement the family income.

The adjustment of working hours for full-time workers is already proceeding in many sectors in Member States. It is forced on both employers and employees by the growing problem of travel to and from work in large conurbations, as well as being developed in response to the increased demand. Although total flexibility of working hours is not compatible with the rational organization of the majority of working situations, the general adoption of the more advanced practices in this field would help working mothers and fathers to combine their family responsibilities with their work. Part-time work at present implies all kinds of disadvantages in terms both of job quality, related as this is to the assumption of uninterrupted career structures and of social security benefits. Acceptance of this type of work by men as well as women and efforts to integrate it into normal patterns would have a profound influence on work, leisure and family patterns generally.

#### **Maternity protection**

Maternity protection is an important matter not only for working mothers, but for society as a whole. Considerable progress in this field has been made in the last decade, and greater responsibility is being assumed by the Governments of the Member States on the ground that maternity is a clearly recognized social function. Recent trends in making such protection more adequate may be summarized briefly as follows :

- prolongation of the period of statutory or prescribed maternity leave;
- more liberal provision for extended or extra leave during the child's infancy;
- higher rates of maternity benefit;
- more effective protection against dismissal during pregnancy and after confinement;
- wider provision of nursing breaks for mothers;

— more adequate attention to the safety and health of women during pregnancy and lactation (for example, through transfers to lighter work).

Standards of maternity protection in the Member States are currently equal to, or higher than, those in the Maternity Protection Convention (Revised) 1952 (No 103). Maternity protection provided under social security schemes is the most common and widespread form. Social insurance generally covers all economically active persons, including self-employed workers, reaching a very high percentage of the total female population of child-bearing age. Medical care includes general and specialist care during pregnancy and confinement, hospital benefits and home visits and care where necessary. Under prescribed conditions benefits may be paid for more than twelve weeks, extending to 26 weeks in some countries, with the combination of sickness insurance and maternity leave. Maternity benefits have also been increased from 50% of wages to 90% and 100% in France and the Federal Republic of Germany.

One of the more interesting recent developments in maternity protection has been the extension of the period of authorized maternity leave beyond the normal prescribed period, without loss of employment rights. In Italy a woman may take an optional extra six months' maternity leave after the statutory compulsory and extended period. During this extra leave, which may be taken at any time up to her child's first birthday, her post must be kept available for her and the period of leave may not be deducted from her total length of service. In France a mother may take a year's leave following childbirth and there is also provision for a period of birth leave for fathers. Paid leave of three days is reimbursed to the employer by the family allowance fund. Little data is available, however, as to the extent to which women do, in fact, take advantage of this right to extended leave. Where such leave is unpaid, or paid at too low a proportion of previous earnings, there may be financial reasons for not staying away from work for any extended period following the end of the statutory paid maternity leave. However, in general, the trends in this area are

positive and most Member States are now rejecting discrimination against women workers on the ground of their social function of maternity and the necessary temporary interruptions which this implies in the interests of mother and child.

### **Social security benefits**

Despite the progress made in some Member States the social security systems of most countries still contain provisions which discriminate against working women.

#### *Retirement pensions*

In most countries the amount of the retirement pension is proportional to the number of years of service completed and to the income received. This places women at a disadvantage compared with men both because they have to interrupt their careers for family reasons and because of the less well paid nature of the work they often do. It also penalizes those women who commit a substantial period of their lives to the raising of a family. However, attempts are being made in some countries to mitigate the effects of interruptions in employment caused by family obligations. In the Federal Republic of Germany the Arendt Plan has envisaged granting an insured woman an additional year's insurance for each child, and in Belgium the qualifying period for pensions is several years shorter for women than for men.

Part-time employment also tends to have an unfavourable effect on pension entitlement, and in some countries part-time work is either formally excluded from coverage or does not meet the earnings threshold for coverage. In any case part-time employment tends to lower the amount of the pension. The retirement age for women is generally lower than that of men. As a result of this pensions are paid over a longer period and women cannot benefit from any extra annuities which may be payable on the last years of employment.

There is also discrimination in several countries as regards complementary systems of social security, in particular concerning retirement pensions. In certain cases women are either not

included in the complementary systems or receive pensions lower than those of men.

With regard to reversionary pensions, it is generally accepted that the widow receives the part of her husband's pension to which she is entitled, but the reverse does not apply. To refuse a widower his wife's reversionary pension to which she has contributed throughout her working life remains difficult to justify.

Since payment of social benefits is generally linked to the concept that the man is the 'head of the family' and breadwinner, rather than the woman, and this gives rise to differential treatment between male and female workers, the benefits payable to a man in the case of illness or disablement may increase in proportion to the number of dependants whereas this is not the case of women with dependants. There is also discriminatory treatment of women with regard to sickness benefits in the form of unequal benefits due to differences in pay [28].

#### *Unemployment benefits*

These are a source of discrimination in a number of respects. The concept of the 'head of the family' may be taken into consideration when calculating these benefits and thus unemployment benefits for the mother of the family may be lower than those for the father, since the latter receives a supplementary benefit for dependent persons. Moreover, under certain schemes [28] a married woman who is redundant does not qualify for unemployment benefits if her husband is working and this means that the household income is reduced by the amount of benefit which would have been paid to the wife. Finally, the fact that the level of benefits is earnings-related means the dependants or a working woman may suffer as a result of her lower earnings.

Short-term cash benefits, such as unemployment benefit and sickness benefit, reflect, like long-term benefits, the generally lower level of earnings of women. In many countries such benefits are directly related to earnings. Even where there are flat-rate benefits, they may be fixed at different levels for men and women by reference to

the difference in their average earnings; one argument made in this connection is that the benefit must not be financially more advantageous than remuneration for work. In Belgium there was prolonged judicial consideration of the question of whether a difference in flat-rate benefit for men and women was in conformity with a constitutional equal rights provision; in January 1973 the Supreme Court held that the difference was objectively justified by the difference in average earnings and hence constitutional. There are also problems concerning those women who are self-employed, for this classification may deprive them of the protection of social security systems altogether, i.e. in the case of a cottage industry, domestic service or work in a family business.

The above examples are not exhaustive. They illustrate the extent to which social security systems lag behind the socio-economic realities of both family structures and the labour market at the present time. The following action has therefore been proposed by the Commission of the European Communities: [28]

- (i) Member States should take measures to assure equal treatment of men and women in respect of social security benefits and to eliminate discrimination which derives from the orientation of their social security systems exclusively towards the man as the breadwinner and head of the household;
- (ii) On the basis of material contributed by the Member States, an inventory should be established of those provisions in the different statutory and voluntary social security schemes which are discriminatory in effect. On the basis of this inventory, the Commission intends to consider ways and means of helping Member States to implement (i) above.

## VII - Proposals for securing equality of training and employment opportunities for men and women in the Member States

### *Community proposals*

The comparative studies of the situation of women at work in different

countries, made by the Commission of the European Economic Community, [13] have been the first to be sponsored and published by an international organization. The overall findings of these studies have revealed that in all Member States women's demand for freedom to pursue a career has grown faster than the social, economic and cultural changes needed to provide such freedom, although the general pace of the change does vary from country to country. However, what can be said is that during the last decade there has been a more frank admission of the existence of discrimination between men and women workers in practice and a more positive effort to combat it at all levels. The general opinion of the Member States as to the means of securing equality of training and employment opportunities between men and women is that the traditions and customs which continue to exercise a large influence on the psychological and professional education of women must be radically altered. Concretely this would involve:

- the admission of girls into all the general education establishments and to vocational training, both private and public, while encouraging them to use the new study possibilities offered to them; also the suppression of all differential education;
- the organization of an equal vocational guidance scheme for girls and boys based on personal aspirations and aptitudes, while taking account of economic trends, and the creation of personnel specialized for this purpose;
- the admission of women to every position and to every level — the public services and the nationalized sector should provide an example;
- an estimation of the competent authorities of the needs of women in the field of employment, and the distribution of all useful information on this subject;
- the creation of a documentation service for women;
- the establishment of a publicity campaign of a permanent nature, for the appropriate literature;
- the granting of hour credits or special leave allowing women to

benefit from the above set-ups, whether during normal working hours, or full-time (in both cases without loss of salary).

Although most Member States have now begun to adapt their structures and policies<sup>1</sup> it is appropriate that the Community for its part should take such steps as is necessary to ensure that the gap between traditional structures and present needs of one half of the Community population is closed as soon as possible. The implementation of most action, however, will necessarily involve delays, and it therefore seems opportune to explore the possibilities offered by the Community to intervene in the area of women's work. The Community instruments can be divided into legal instruments, financial instruments and information.

### *Community instruments*

#### **Legal instruments**

The sole legal instrument which specifically refers to women is Article 119 of the Treaty of Rome, which calls for the abolition of all discrimination concerning pay based on the sex of the worker. Work in this field has been going on for ten years within a special group which is made up of representatives of governments and employers' and workers' organizations, as well as the Commission. A draft directive aimed at approximating the laws of Member States concerning the application of the principle of equal pay for men and women was submitted to the Council at the end of 1973.

#### <sup>1</sup> *United Kingdom*

- White paper on equality for women - September 1974. Sex Discrimination Bill - March 1975.

#### *France*

- Secretariat d'Etat à la Condition Feminine - 1974. Comité du Travail Féminin, set up to study the employment of women and their environment - 1974.

#### *Ireland*

- Commission on the status of women - 1972.

#### *Italy*

- Committee on Women's Work - 1973.

#### *Netherlands*

- Commission on the Emancipation of Women - 1974.

In the terms of the Treaty of Rome 'the directives shall bind any Member State to which they are addressed, as to the result to be achieved, while leaving to domestic agencies a competence as to form and means'. The Council and the Commission of the European Communities may equally formulate recommendations or opinions although these are not binding on the Member States. Action to enhance the status of women coincides with the increased attention devoted to the social purposes of the European Community. In February this year (1975), the Commission submitted to the Council proposals for a draft directive on equality of treatment for men and women workers, and these proposals are to form one action of the action 1974-1977 Social Action Programme. The directive itself, if approved, would oblige Member States to do the following :

**General** — abolish all discrimination based on sex, marital or family status through the adoption of appropriate measures to provide women with equal opportunity in employment, vocational training and working conditions.

**Job access** — abolish all provisions concerning equality of access to jobs arising from laws, regulations and administrative provisions at variance with the principle of equality of treatment, annul those contained in collective agreements or individual employment contracts, amend provisions aiming at protecting workers if no longer justified and presenting an obstacle to equal treatment.

**Training** — take steps to ensure that women receive equal opportunity in education and vocational guidance, initial and advanced training and re-training — the necessary qualifications for equal employment opportunities.

**Promotion** — take steps to ensure that women are treated equally in regard to promotion within career structures.

**Working conditions** — abolish laws, regulations and administrative provisions at variance with the principle of equal treatment in relation to working conditions for example dismissals and social security provisions.

**Legal redress** — introduce into their national legal systems the measures necessary to enable persons who consider themselves discriminated against to pursue their claims by

judicial process after recourse to other competent authorities; take measures to protect workers against dismissal or other recrimination following complaint or action at law.

**Information** — ensure that all provisions relating to equal treatment are brought to the attention of people concerned (information, publicity campaigns).

The Commission hopes to see decisions on the directive by the middle of this year (1975), and, if and when agreed, the provisions should come into force in all member countries within a year.

Apart from legislation, however, the Commission feels that what is required in all Member States is :

- the promotion, in the employment market, of measures to ensure effective help to women in their choice of career and in their return to working life, notably through the activities of employment services and effective public supervision of part-time work ;
- the raising of employment levels in sectors mainly staffed by women (by the revision of job specification and the enlargement of career prospects);
- the inclusion in plans for regional development of the need to create jobs for women as well as for men;
- the review of conditions of employment and in particular of the upper age limits set for entry into certain occupations.

### **Financial instruments**

The European Social Fund, in its new enlarged form, offers a range of aids which could constitute a dynamic instrument for the promotion of women's work. According to Article 4 of the regulations of the Fund, it is authorized to intervene when the employment situation is affected or in danger of being affected either by special measures adopted by the Council in the framework of the Community policies, or by jointly agreed operations to further the operations of the Community, or 'calls for specific joint action to improve the balance between supply

of and demand for manpower within the Community'.

The position at present is that Article 4 is open to persons who wish to leave agriculture and to workers in the textile industry, both sectors of the economy involving the female workforce. The Commission is also examining how Article 4 could be used to finance special projects specifically aimed at increasing opportunities for women's employment.

According to Article 5, the Fund can also intervene when the employment situation is affected in certain regions, economic branches or groups of enterprises, because of difficulties resulting indirectly from the working of the common market, or which impede the harmonious development of the Community.

There are three series of conditions which must be fulfilled by these operations.

Firstly the operations must be :

'aimed at solving the problems which arise in areas which, because they are less developed or there is a decline in the main activities, suffer a serious and prolonged imbalance in employment';

or :

'aimed at facilitating adaptation to the requirements of technical progress of those branches of economic activity in which such progress gives rise to substantial changes in manpower and professional knowledge and skill';

or :

'undertaken because of substantial changes in conditions of production or disposal of products in groups of undertakings with similar or connected activities which are thus forced to cease, reduce or transform their activities permanently'.

Secondly, the operations must be :

'directed towards eliminating long-term structural unemployment, for the benefit of persons who either are unemployed or will become so after a specific period and those who are under-employed or have had to cease working in a self-employed capacity';  
'directed towards facilitating access to highly qualified professions';

'directed towards the integration or re-integration into employment of workers

who are difficult to place in employment again on account of their age; women over thirty-five years, young workers under twenty-five years'.

Finally, the operation must be part of an overall programme directed at remedying the causes of imbalance affecting employment in the area, the branch, the group of undertakings or categories of persons concerned.

Furthermore, besides a certain number of aids which may receive the assistance of the Fund, a list of which appears in the official texts, it should be noted that the Commission is empowered to promote, carry out, or financially aid studies or pilot studies, on condition that the latter should involve a maximum of thirty workers. In particular, the Commission hopes to stimulate Member States into application under Article 5 of the Fund to assist schemes for training women over the age of thirty-five who want to come back into employment, and for young workers of both sexes below the age of twenty-five. Finally, it should be recalled that the commitment of the Fund will amount to 50% of the expenses incurred by the Member States.

### Information

The basic instrument provided for by the Social Action Programme is a 'Community Centre of Documentation and Information of Women's Work', functioning under the aegis of the Commission. The Commission also proposes that certain of its activities could be developed and specialized with a view to the promotion of a broad information campaign aimed at changing outlooks and attitudes to women's work. In particular, this should involve:

- sessions for civil service personnel concerned with vocational guidance services and manpower services;
- seminars to inform and raise the consciousness of the managers in charge of training;
- seminars with the Social Partners and with women's organizations;
- contact with the press in general and the women's press in particular.

Finally, Community information and the exchange of experience can further the carrying out of studies, whether a pilot study in a Member State or on the level of the Nine countries.

### Summary

The Commission's proposals aim essentially at enlarging the area of individual choice. The assumption is not that all women, with or without family responsibilities should work, but that women should have the opportunity of working with improved status and flexible conditions. The economic structure of the Member States, based on a division of labour, is no longer conceivable without female employment. However, economic interests and traditional attitudes, a woman's professional and family tasks still tend to conflict with each other. It is therefore important for all concerned to find ways of ensuring the greatest possible reconciliation between the various interests, and enabling the women to achieve family tasks, personal development and her function in the economy in a way suited to her. There should be a concerted effort towards a general reconciliation of family responsibilities with work, and a recognition of the social function of maternity. Women wishing to return to work after an absence should be encouraged to do so, rather than being deterred by lower status and pay than their male counterparts, and lack of facilities for child care. In addition, a gradual change in the sex-role pattern is to be encouraged. As far as family policy is concerned, the Commission of the European Communities cannot itself act, but it can do much to stimulate action on the part of the Member States. However, on education the Commission of the European Communities is urging Member States to move away from 'segregation' of the sexes and has called for a meeting of education ministers to debate women's education.

The implementation of legislation on equal pay has been one basic step forward. However, as a British Prime Minister stated some time ago: 'Laws can be made laying down that women should be paid equally for equal work, but a revolution in the hearts and minds of men will be needed if equal job evaluation is to be translated into

real equality. Equal pay legislation, although vital, is only the beginning'. It is necessary to get at the roots of discriminatory policies and practices and to move from the rather negative stance of combating discrimination to the more positive position of promoting genuine attitudinal change.

In retrospect, it is possible to point to progress in recent years as regards a positive attitude towards the employment of women, but prejudices have not been entirely banished. Information campaigns have still to publicize the fact that by exercising a gainful activity women are making a positive contribution to society and thus have a right to equality of opportunity, recognition and assistance. Many bodies at all levels need to be drawn into educational and promotional campaigns and state policies, supported by trade unions, women's organizations and the community at large are needed if structures, attitudes and practices are to change.

The Commission recognizes that action to promote equality of treatment between sections of the community is always difficult. The assertion of the right of one section often leads to action which appears to inhibit the rights of another. But, as in the field of race relations, or the treatment of migrants, it is now widely agreed that a measure of positive discrimination in favour of women is needed, at least for a period, if effective equality is to be achieved between men and women.

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## 66. Vocational Training in the United Kingdom

### Historical Outline

It has generally been regarded as being the responsibility of employers to carry out the industrial training of their employees to meet the manpower needs of industry. Training in industry was over many years dominated by the apprenticeship system, in which each firm recruits school leavers and trains them to meet its own requirements. Although most industries set up national schemes of recruitment and training, and although these schemes usually laid down arrangements for recruitment, age of entry, the form of written contract, duration of apprenticeship and the requirements for practical training and further education, they were less effective in establishing national standards of apprenticeship training. Equally unsatisfactory was the fact that only 20% of school-leavers entered apprentice occupations. Up until 10-15 years ago, government intervention in vocational training was limited to training of unemployed men and women, which effectively began in 1925 with the setting up of government training centres (now known as skillcentres). This intervention was not intended to supplant the

primary responsibility of employers for training but to provide for a social need, and the amount of training was always small.

The number of centres slowly increased to 23 in 1951, but by 1962 there were only 13 centres with about 2 500 training places. The government then began on a programme of expansion designed to meet the training and retraining needs of individuals. This training (known as the Training Opportunities Scheme - TOPS) consists of full-time courses of accelerated and systematic vocational training. The aim is to provide basic training in skillcentres, colleges of further education and sometimes in approved places provided by employers. The courses last from 13 weeks to one year, on average about six months, and the trainees receive tax free allowance and lodging expenses, if necessary. Eligibility is normally restricted to unemployed adults over the age of 19 who have spent at least three years away from full-time education. About 90% of all trainees are usually placed in the trade for which they are trained soon after completion of their course.

The principle that training should be left to industry met with increasing opposition in the late 1950s. There were persistent shortages of skilled labour and the quality of training was uneven and often unsatisfactory. There was a general agreement on the need for institutional change and this was brought about by the Industrial Training Act 1964. The Act aimed at increasing the quality and quantity of training and to achieve this a number of industrial training boards (ITBs) were set up. The boards consisted of equal numbers of employer and trade union representatives in the particular industry concerned, together with a smaller number of educationalists, all the members being appointed by the Minister of Employment. The boards were given the tasks of ensuring an adequate supply of properly trained men and women at all levels of industry and securing an improvement in the quality and efficiency of training. The method adopted was the levy/grant system, by which each board imposed a levy on employers in its industry and paid grants to those employers who carried out training which met the required standards set by the board. By 1972 there were 27 boards covering 15 million employees, (two-thirds of the working

population). Although the boards' levy/grant proposals required the approval of the Secretary of State for Employment, there was little attempt by the government to influence industrial training policies. It was felt that the boards could best judge the needs of their industries and to a great extent they were left to themselves to get on with the job. Initially, they concentrated on skilled crafts but later there was a shift of emphasis towards a systematic approach in planning for management training.

A review of the operation of ITBs in 1971 revealed that the quality and efficiency of training had improved greatly, but there was little evidence of any increase in the number of people being trained. The review also identified several faults of the training system. Since the system was based on one board for each industry, it was difficult to deal with occupations common to several industries or with the problem of retraining from declining to growing industries. Many important sectors of industry and commerce were not covered by the ITBs. Politically, there was considerable opposition to the levy/grant system, mainly from small firms.

## Current Legislative Framework

Following this review, the Employment and Training Act was passed in 1973. The government handed over responsibility for the public training and employment services to a newly established body—the Manpower Services Commission (MSC). This change was aimed at giving the responsibility to representatives of those who use the services. The MSC consists of a full-time chairman, three members appointed after consultation with the Trades Union Congress, three after consultation with the Confederation of British Industry (the main employers' organization), two members appointed after consultation with local government authorities and one educationalist.

The Commission's activities are largely financed from public funds. It operates through two Agencies—the Employment Service Agency (ESA) and the Training Services Agency (TSA). The MSC, through the TSA, is therefore responsible for the Training Opportunities Scheme, including the administration of the skillcentres, the coordi-

nation of the work of the ITBs and also for the promotion of training in those sectors of industry and commerce not covered by ITBs. The MSC must agree its general policy with the government submitting for approval each year a programme of work with associated budget estimates, taking into account the plans and programmes which the TSA will have put forward for its approval. Once the policy has been approved the government will not interfere in the detailed operations and day to day activities of the MSC. The MSC has only about 40 officials, the executive work involved in training activities being the responsibility of the TSA which employs about 6 000 staff in its headquarters, regional offices and skillcentres, and has an annual expenditure of about £150m.

## Special Characteristics of the System

Although the great bulk of training is still to be carried out by employers in industry and commerce and the ITBs retain the primary responsibility for the standards and conditions of apprenticeship and other training in industry, the MSC/TSA is now able to coordinate and stimulate the national training effort. Their aim is a constructive partnership with industry. In the ITB area this is achieved by continuous dialogues between the TSA and the boards. Each board is required to produce a strategic five year plan for training in its industry, the first year being firm and the remainder subject to agreed alterations as circumstances require. Instead of the boards being entirely dependent on levy income, the TSA is now responsible for their operating costs, including the cost of advisory services and it also provides grants for some key training activities. The ITBs will also have some income from levies, but the system was modified by the 1973 Act which provided that normally the rate of levy must not exceed 1% of an employer's wage bill and that those firms carrying out training adequate to meet their own needs would be exempt from levy. The criteria for exemption from levy are laid down by the ITBs, subject to MSC approval, and this will be used to ensure a high quality of training. Training grants will continue to be paid from levy funds to firms not qualifying for exemption to encourage them to achieve the necessary standards.

The problems of training in those sectors of industry not covered by ITBs, which involve about a third of the working population, including multi-industry occupations such as clerical work, are now being studied carefully by the TSA and a programme for training in this area will be drawn up in consultation with the existing training organizations.

The Training Opportunities Scheme has been greatly expanded. There are now 54 skillcentres and 14 more are to be opened in the next few years. The range and diversity of courses has been expanded and courses are provided at more than 700 colleges of further education. An interesting experiment is taking place with Wider Opportunity Courses designed to help those school leavers and adults who have difficulty in finding or retaining employment. These courses are not for training in a specific skill, but will give the participants an opportunity to learn a variety of job skills, involving different machinery etc. in order to increase their self confidence and versatility. Those who show the necessary aptitude and have the necessary educational background can proceed to training under TOPS. The TSA is also taking wide measures to meet the problems caused by high unemployment as far as this can be done through training.

The Agency is empowered to authorize research and has produced an outline research and development plan. This plan stipulates that most of the research which is to be financed by the TSA will be related to the practical problems and needs that face the national training system. The TSA will carry out some research through its own Survey Unit, which mainly looks at areas which will enable it to discharge its responsibilities effectively, and will also sponsor projects to be carried out by universities. The application and dissemination of research findings will be an essential part of the work, and the potential users of such data will be consulted or represented at an early stage of a research project.

The TSA will also have a coordinating role for ITB research and will assist the Boards in carrying out research to the benefit of industry as a whole.

Priority will be given to projects concerned with management development and with occupations important to the development of off-shore oil production processes.

Brief details of research and development in training are published in the Annual Training Research Register and in Training Information Papers and these publications are available from government bookshops.

The TSA accepts as a priority the need to develop the competence of all staff concerned with training, including those managers responsible for training in private companies as well as the specialist training officers. Prior to the setting up of the TSA, the government has been involved for some years in the training of training instructors. During 1972 and 1973 about 700 operator instructors and 200 clerical instructors had been given courses of jobskill analysis, and a further 700 training officers from private companies had also been given courses on teaching methods. In addition, the TSA instructor training colleges—where the skillcentre instructors were given training—also provided training for instructors from industry. The TSA plans to continue and expand such work and will place more emphasis on such courses being held on employer's premises.

The new procedure of levy exemption being operated by ITBs will emphasize the need for firms to have competent training staff. The policy is that firms must have proper training plans and effective training operations if exemption from levy is to be granted. The boards' own advisers will need to make a practical contribution to helping firms improve their training arrangements so as to achieve levy exemption, and this will require more and more well-qualified advisers.

There are many professional and voluntary bodies concerned with training, such as the Institute of Personnel Management and the Institution of Training Officers. Two recent additions are the Technician Education Council, which is developing courses to meet the requirements of technicians and the Business Education Council which gives awards for training in areas of commerce and business below university degree level. The Agency is aware of the need to gain the cooperation of these organizations and to utilize their specialist knowledge. It has been proposed that a national training institute should be set up to bring together the expertise of specialist groups devoted to improving the effectiveness and efficiency of training. Such an institute could provide seminars and workshops

for practitioners and could conduct research and development activities. The TSA is now examining the possibility of setting up this national training institute and will report to the MSC very shortly.

Although basic vocational training in the UK is normally given in industry rather than in schools, the educational system has a vital part to play. Much of the training on the job is accompanied by instruction in colleges of further education, on day or block release, the syllabuses being agreed between industry and the colleges. Training for a few occupations is normally undertaken before enrolment in colleges of further education, for example, secretarial work. The important part that the colleges play in TOPS has already been mentioned. Training schemes may be set up on the basis of existing classes or on the basis of classes specially organized for TOPS.

### **Factors Making for Current Change**

All these institutional changes in the national training system are very recent. The MSC has only just completed its first year of work, having been set up on 1 January 1974; the TSA was established on 1 April 1974. It is therefore too early to give detailed accounts of the ways in which the new organizational set-up will attempt to solve particular training problems. The initial task was to develop a plan for action. This has been done and in 1974 the TSA Five Year Plan was published.

In the course of the first revision of this plan and more particularly in the preparation of a new policy for training young people, many difficulties in the existing system have come to light. These will undoubtedly lead to renewed discussion about training objectives in Britain.

Close attention is also being paid to the training needs of women. There has been a vast increase in the number of women at work but, in general, the occupational spread of their employment is still much too limited and the majority of them tend to seek work in traditional female occupations which, all too often, require only short periods of training with limited career prospects and which is often also below their capacity. More will be done to make TOPS more responsive to women's

needs and to attract them into a wider range of occupations. The TSA has recently set up a Project Group to examine the present limitations on the training of women, what action should be taken to overcome them, what policies should be adopted to this end and what the costs and benefits to employers and the economy would be if these policies were adopted. The Group is expected to report to the Manpower Services Commission in June 1975.

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#### 67. *Reform of vocational training within the Community*

A written question has been submitted to the Commission of the European Communities concerning the reform of the vocational training system throughout the Community. The question and the Commission's reply are printed below.

#### Written Question to the House No 717/74

From :

Mr Adams

To :

The Commission of the European Communities

Concerning :

Reform of the vocational training system.

1. Does the Commission propose to take an initiative in introducing an overall reform of the vocational training system throughout the Community ?

2. How long will it take for the European Vocational Training Centre to begin its work, and does the Commission feel that this institution is suited to carrying out the proposals concerned ?

3. Does the Commission not share the view that a reform of the vocational training system should aim to eliminate once and for all the use of apprentices as cheap labour ?

#### The Commission's reply to written Question No 717/74 submitted by Mr Adams

1. In the resolution of 21 January 1974 concerning a Social Action Programme<sup>1</sup> the Council of the European Communities indicated that, in order to achieve its principal goals, one of its priorities was the realization of a common policy in the field of vocational training. This policy is based on a general principle, established by a Council Resolution of 2 April 1963<sup>2</sup> and stipulates the conditions for a common, integrated and gradual process of reform. It is the task of all Member States and of the appropriate agencies of the Community to carry out this policy within the framework of the Treaty of Rome. The term 'reform of vocational training system' should be understood, in this context, as 'development and promotion of vocational training'.

Despite differences in the existing structures, systems and methods of individual Member States, this development and promotion can be carried out successfully at Community level. All the measures that have so far been effected by the Community in the field of vocational training have been and are intended as a contribution towards a reform.

2. The Commission is of the opinion that the European Centre for Vocational Training<sup>3</sup> through its scientific and technical activities, will provide a significant contribution to the realization of a reform programme within the framework of the guidelines set up by the Community. The Centre should be set up in July 1975

and be functioning by the beginning of 1976.

3. The Commission of the European Communities is aware that certain problems exist in the Community in connection with the legal provisions and the conditions for conducting apprenticeship training. For this reason, at the end of 1974, the Commission undertook an exhaustive survey of apprenticeship training in industrial, commercial, craft and agricultural enterprises in the nine Member States. The purpose of this was to gain as precise a picture as possible of the existing situation and to establish the basis for an assessment of the situation, so that appropriate proposals for vocational training may be submitted to the Council of the Commission at a specific time after the hearing of the Advisory Committee on Vocational Training.

This survey encompasses nine studies : one for every Member State, and a summarizing report containing an evaluation. It should be available in the autumn of 1975.

Source :

European Parliament. Translated from German original. PE 39 540/De.

#### 68. *Paid educational leave in France and the Federal Republic of Germany*

For almost a decade there has been a steady discussion of the broad concept of continuing education by such bodies as Unesco, OECD. The Council of Europe and others, together with a rapidly developing study of the principles of educational planning. The changes in this field have been in a number of dimensions. On only one issue, however, is there general consensus : the growing necessity for more varied educational opportunity at all stages of life, as a result of the technological and social developments of our times. If, in keeping pace with technical progress, it is accepted that entire trades and occupations will disappear, it seems reasonable to ensure that people will have the opportunity for retraining. However, the principal issue involved is that education usually had to be arranged in the adult's leisure

<sup>1</sup> OJ C13 of 12.2.1974, p. 1.

<sup>2</sup> OJ 63 of 20.4.1963, p. 1338/63.

<sup>3</sup> Council Resolution of 10.2.1975.

time. For many people the monotony of work conditions saps energy for enrolment in educational courses outside working hours, and the fees charged for attending courses bear hard on household budgets. Thanks to initiatives in particular from the International Labour Office, the European discussions now attribute increasing importance to the possibility of making such educational opportunities available in the middle of working life by what has come to be known as paid educational leave (PEL).

In October 1973 the Department of Education and Science (DES) in the UK invited the British National Institute of Adult Education to survey the situation regarding paid educational leave in three European countries: France, the Federal Republic of Germany and Sweden (see Bibliography item No 289). Preliminary inquiries revealed that the idea of paid leave for educational purpose was receiving support in all three countries and that legislation to bring it into effect in one form or another had been enacted or was under consideration. By 1970 all three countries were relatively wealthy and thus economically capable of introducing a major educational innovation.

The term 'paid educational leave' was defined by the DES for the purposes of the enquiry as 'leave granted to an employee over the age of 18 years, for educational purposes for a specific period during normal working hours, without loss of earnings or other benefits, such leave being granted under statutory provisions, collective agreements or some other type of arrangement'. Such a definition explicitly includes three major considerations:

- continuity of service with a firm; the employee will be able to return to his workplace;
- no financial loss to the person taking leave, in either wage, salary, pension rights or other benefits;
- leave within normal working hours.

This definition was interpreted as meaning in practice that an employee could have paid leave to follow a course described as 'educational' of a type and at a time agreed by his employer. However, the term 'paid educational leave' has different connotations in different countries.

In some countries, despite the law, there seems to be no actual right to educational leave. In other countries, where there is no legal right, employers do nevertheless send employees on courses.

In France it is considered that a real right to educational training leave, and consequently to continuing education, should include the entire recognition of the following:

- (i) The right to maintain one's salary;
- (ii) The right of initiative: this means a comprehensive guarantee that no harm whatsoever can come to the worker who decides, on his own, to apply for education/training leave;
- (iii) The right of return: '... the fact of applying for leave or of having actually benefited from leave should never be used as justifiable grounds for fair dismissal...';
- (iv) The right to free choice: this is closely related to the right of initiative and means the entire freedom of the employee to choose among all educational/training courses offered, with no outside pressures or economic constraints;
- (v) The right to equal access to education/training for all employees;
- (vi) Collective control over the right to educational/training leave;
- (vii) The right to a career: '... i.e. a guarantee by employers in some industrial sectors to give high priority to internal promotion'.

In Germany, the main features of paid educational leave (Bildungsurlaub) can be defined as follows:

- (1) Bildungsurlaub is the release of employed persons within the framework of the adult education system.
- (2) The right to Bildungsurlaub is to be secured by a Federal law. The law should lay down the minimum requirements; collective agreements which go beyond this remain unaffected. Legally, Bildungsurlaub has the same standing as annual holiday.
- (3) All employed persons have a right to Bildungsurlaub without having to demonstrate their

willingness or ability to enjoy this right. The right must be secured in some other way for housewives and the self-employed.

- (4) Bildungsurlaub is to be granted for worthwhile adult education courses of civic as well as further education, including extra-mural studies, where attendance is not guaranteed by some other law (e.g. The Promotion of Employment Act, 1969).
- (5) The length of the leave depends on the length of the course. Bildungsurlaub should be a minimum of ten days: within reason it may be taken in small parts or be accumulated.
- (6) Earnings which would normally be due to an employee during his period of Bildungsurlaub are to be paid by his employer. The State should cover, in part or in whole, costs arising from attending the course.
- (7) Evidence of attendance at a course is to be furnished by a certificate.
- (8) The courses are to be run by public or other recognized adult education bodies. The granting of recognition is in the hands of the appropriate Federal authority in conjunction with the Kultusministerium (Ministry of Education) of the Länder and/or the Standing Conference of Education Ministers.
- (9) Loans and grants may be provided from Federal funds for the expansion and equipment of institutions organizing courses, provided that the organizers make an appropriate contribution to the costs from their own funds.
- (10) Bildungsurlaub may be introduced gradually by limiting those eligible or by establishing maximum quotas in the initial period. Parliament is to receive regular progress reports on the working of the law.

Some important characteristics of the German concept of P.E.L. are the following. Firstly, there are inbuilt security measures to ensure that P.E.L. is not treated as extra holiday. These include the provision that the education must be organized by an institution

with state recognition, proof of attendance by the student, and control by the State of the nature of the education offered. Secondly, and crucially, P.E.L. in Germany is conceived of as a mass measure in continuing education since it provides access to education for approved purposes to the working population as a whole.

### The legal situation at present

In France, the law of 16 July 1971 No 71-576, concerning continuing vocational training, describes in particular the right to educational leave and the financial means of enjoying that right. However, this law is very complex and its actual operation depends on a series of administrative orders specifying, for example, a list of approved courses. Therefore, the opportunity for social and cultural development of the individual is largely determined by current administrative policy decisions.

In Germany, there is no law at Federal level guaranteeing paid educational leave as a right to the employed population as a whole. Rather, the situation is that only certain sections of the population have access to paid educational leave:

- (i) works councillors under the Works Constitution Act 1972;
- (ii) staff representatives under the Staff Representation Act 1974;
- (iii) some 3 300 000 Beamten (civil servants) who are eligible for paid educational leave under an Order of State of 18 August 1965.

Regional legislation is not characteristic of France. In Germany, however, each Land is able to legislate independently. The laws of two Länder are of particular interest, because in each there is an emphasis on civic education which is not found to the same degree in French law. The city state of Hamburg's law on paid educational leave of 21 January 1974 entitles all those whose main employment is in Hamburg to two weeks P.E.L. every other year. This law covers some 800 000 people. The city state of Berlin's Law for promoting participation in educational schemes dated 16 July 1970 entitles all persons under the age 21 years, employed in Berlin, to ten working days' paid educational leave per year.

Consequently, this is an instance of paid educational leave being granted not to a particular occupational or functional group, but to a section of the working population as a whole, namely, to young adults.

In the two countries, arrangements for paid educational leave are in a state of flux. In France, the applicability of the law of 1971 can be altered overnight by administrative order; in Germany the Federal Government General Plan for Education of 1973 promises a Federal Law giving up to 15 % per annum of the employed population a two week entitlement to paid educational leave by 1985. Plans are also being made for paid educational leave legislation in the Länder of Hessen, Bremen, Lower Saxony, the Saar, Rhineland-Palatinate, and Baden-Württemberg. Some of the Land bills restrict paid educational leave to certain age groups or to civic education only, otherwise they are very similar to the Hamburg law.

#### Source:

Paid educational leave, by A. Charnley, Department of Education and Science. St. Albans: Hart-Davis Educational, 1975.

### 69. Council of Europe on vocational guidance

Recommendations have recently been adopted by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe concerning vocational guidance in Austria, Belgium, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the UK. Governments are called upon to ensure that sufficient emphasis is given to vocational guidance, and various factors essential to the provision of adequate vocational guidance are outlined in Resolution AP (74) 3.

A fundamental principle of vocational guidance is seen to be the encouragement of the individual to assume conscious responsibility for his own career, and the importance of easy and continuing access to information about employment, training and post-school education is therefore stressed. Vocational guidance counsellors also need ready access to information, and the Committee recommends the

establishment in each country of a national documentation centre to collect existing publications and produce its own documentation on vocational guidance.

Other recommendations made by the Committee of Ministers concern:

- the educational qualifications of vocational guidance counsellors, whose training should be of university or comparable level and who should attend regular refresher courses;
- the desirability of close cooperation between guidance services and educational psychologists, schools and employers, and the encouragement of international research and exchanges.

#### Source:

Council of Europe.

### 70. European seminar on vocational guidance and training for women workers

At the end of 1975 the Commission of the European Communities will hold a seminar on vocational guidance and training for women workers as part of its efforts in 1975 to encourage equality of treatment between men and women workers. The seminar is intended for some 50 executive officials from government departments, public and private bodies and employers' and workers' organizations responsible for the vocational guidance and training of adult workers.

The aims of the seminar will be:

- to provide information on the present situation in the Community;
- to study, on the basis of a critical analysis of the situation, the main problems of common interest and any improvements which can be made;
- to examine how the various problems are being tackled by the Community, the solutions found in the individual EEC Member States and the results achieved so far;

- to propose action to be taken at various levels (regional, national, Community) and by various bodies (government, local authorities, trade unions, employers' organizations).

The Commission intends to draw up a Community action programme on vocational guidance and training for women workers and it is expected that the seminar will provide a useful contribution to this programme. In addition, it should serve to instil a better understanding of the specific problems experienced by women in the field of vocational guidance and training and, through the dissemination of the conclusions reached, to develop an appreciation of these problems among those officials responsible for guidance and training who will not participate in the seminar, as well as among opinion leaders in the EEC Member States.

## 71. *Developments in training in the offshore oil industry in Europe.*

### France

The recent considerable increase in underwater operations in France, such as deep-sea oil-drilling and public works, has led the French authorities to support the establishment of the Centre de formation professionnelle aux travaux immergés (Centre for Vocational Training in the underwater industry). The Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie (Chamber of Commerce and Industry) in Marseille has undertaken to set up and operate this centre, which is the first of its kind in the world. It gives both general instruction and specialized training to meet the needs of sub-aqua operations and also of public works (ports, dams etc.). Training courses commenced in October 1974 in provisional buildings and the construction of permanent training establishments is to commence in 1975.

Three parallel courses with 50 trainees on each are planned. Each course runs for 17 weeks and comprises 10 weeks of medical fitness training and basic training and 7 weeks of specialized training, during which trainees can choose one of two options:

- (a) deep-sea diving for oil development,
- (b) diving for public works.

Great importance is also placed on the teaching of safety rules. The physical condition of the trainee is tested throughout the course. The course instructors have all undergone special training in their respective subjects.

The centre is state-financed and trainees receive pay during the training period. Financial assistance is also expected from the European Social Fund.

### Ireland

In addition to preliminary seismic evidence of natural gas and oil finds in Irish offshore waters, recent finds have increased the prospect of large oil and gas discoveries within the Irish jurisdiction in the next couple of years. However, the offshore geology and mineral potential can only be determined by actual drilling, and the anticipated issuing of further exclusive exploration licences by the Irish government is likely to produce a marked increase in the level of exploration.

The Industrial Training Authority — AnCO — is considering the manpower and training implications for Ireland which may arise from the new activities. The total impact on the Irish economy of anticipated exploration and exploitation activities will depend largely on government policy, much of which is not yet specified. Nevertheless, some policy guidelines are available which have been taken into account in the AnCO consideration. The major policy objective of the Irish Government is the development of manpower resources in a manner which gives maximum benefit to the Irish people right through from exploration to processing. Having regard to Ireland's overall employment situation, the highest possible utilization of Irish manpower is desirable. It is in this area that AnCO's role in the training of labour is vital, since the availability of suitably trained manpower is essential for the development of Irish oil.

For the purpose of analysis it is useful to divide the crude oil and natural gas industries into pre-production and production stages. The former may

in turn be sub-divided into exploration and development phases. The exploration phase covers the period prior to the discovery of oil or gas. The initial activities during this phase are concerned with geological and geophysical analysis by means of seabed sampling and aero-magnet, gravity and seismic surveys. The second part of the exploration stage involves test drilling to establish whether or not hydrocarbon deposits exist in the structures which have been indicated to be potentially productive. This activity may be expected to follow on the issue of further exclusive licences for Irish waters. The pre-production phase is also concerned with the development of production facilities for any located hydrocarbon deposits. The production stage may ultimately lead to the development of processing industries requiring hydrocarbons as raw materials.

In the near future the offshore oil and gas development is likely to concentrate on:

- exploration and drilling,
- development of the known gas find near Kinsale in Cork.
- the possible development of other hydrocarbon deposits if these prove to be economically viable.

### *Manpower requirements*

The major manpower requirements for the early exploration phase are for geologists, geophysicists and their support staff, usually in the technician grades. Most of the training needs for these categories are normally met by higher educational institutions in their professional courses. However, courses specifically geared to the offshore oil industry labour force have hitherto not been offered in Ireland. Most of the geological and geophysical work has already been undertaken in the preparation of applications for exclusive concessions, so that future demands for personnel in this field may not be as great as for other fields of work. There may be possibilities also to substitute Irish for foreign labour, and the universities and the regional technical colleges are investigating the likely demand for professional courses under the auspices of The Irish National Science Council — the national authority for science and technology.

The second exploration phase is concerned with test drilling activity. Exploration wells are usually drilled from mobile rigs — jack-up or semi-submersible — or from drilling ships. There is little variation in the types of skills employed in the various kinds of drilling units and the only extra requirements, over and above skilled workers involved in drilling on dry land, are for people in marine occupations, such as master mariners, catering crew, stewards and radio operators. Personnel employed on rigs and drillships fall into a number of categories according to function. The people actually involved in the drilling function are tool-pushers, drillers, derrickmen and floormen. The tool-pusher is the coordinator of drilling operations on a drilling rig. He is responsible for correct equipment and must be conversant with the functioning of latest equipment in the oil industry. A driller is responsible for the work carried out by the drilling crew in accordance with programmes given to him. However, he must have sufficient knowledge and experience to be able to make alterations to the programme if necessary. The derrickman is an assistant driller, who, together with the driller, is responsible for the proper handling of drilling tools inside and outside the hole. Floormen are labourers on the rig floor.

All the jobs in the drilling crew are within reach of men who start as labourers, and promotion is customarily from within the crew. In the light of the fact that senior drilling personnel are basically multinational, recruited from areas of previous exploration activity, initial training is likely to be confined only to the lower grades of the drilling crew.

The second major functional category employed on drilling rigs are those who undertake the technical maintenance activities, such as fitters, electricians, welders and mechanics. These workers usually have trade qualifications, but there may also be opportunities for some people to undergo training courses in at least some of the above-mentioned occupations.

## United Kingdom

Britain's training programme for offshore oil development will include the

establishment of two new centres, one for deep-sea divers and one for engineers and technologists. Post-graduate university courses in petroleum geology and engineering have also been funded and action has been taken to ensure the training of skilled artisans in adequate numbers.

The programme was initiated in 1973 when the Department of Employment set up a working party (the Working Party for Education and Training for Offshore Development - ETOD) to consider the education and training needs for the offshore oil industry and to propose any necessary action. The report of the party concluded that there were three main training requirements:

- (a) post-graduate university training in petroleum geology and engineering;
- (b) advanced underwater training, which did not exist in this country;
- (c) a training centre for drilling technology.

On the recommendation of the working party the following action has been taken:

- (1) The University Grants Committee has approved three one-year graduate courses in petroleum geology and engineering. Herriot Watt University, Edinburgh, has been awarded £50 000 p.a. for a course, Imperial College, London, £40 000 p.a. and Aberdeen University £10 000.
- (2) The Manpower Services Commission (MSC) has asked the Shenley Trust Limited, in conjunction with the Training Services Agency (TSA), to establish an underwater diving training centre at Fort William on Loch Linnhe, Invernesshire. The capital cost of £2 000 000 will be borne out of public funds provided by the MSC. The centre will undertake training in basic diving and underwater working, as well as provide courses in deep-diving techniques. It will also run specialized courses for diving supervisors and instructors. The centre will be operated on a commercial basis.

The TSA has been running a pilot course in basic diving (down to 50 metres), from which recommended training standards are

currently being developed for use at the new centre and other commercial diving schools.

- (3) The Petroleum Industry Training Board, in consultation with the TSA, is proceeding with plans to site a pilot project on drilling techniques at Livingston New Town in Scotland pending a decision on a location for a permanent establishment. The MSC is providing the main part of the funds for the provision of these facilities. The capital cost is expected to be £255 000 of which half will be advanced as a grant by the MSC, £10 000 will be provided by the Offshore Petroleum Association and the remainder advanced on loan terms by the MSC. The centre will be equipped with its own drilling rig and will provide specialized courses for drilling engineers and technologists, as well as the off-the-job basic and upgrading training for rig crews. It is hoped that the initial courses will begin in July 1975.

The drilling rig will be shore-based, because effective on-the-job training in the adverse conditions of the North Sea is difficult to carry out without costly loss of drilling time.

## *Manufacture of oil rigs and production platforms*

Following the ETOD report, the TSA set up a working party in December 1973 to look into the needs for skilled manpower in Scotland and north-east England for the construction of oil rigs and platforms. With the assistance of the Engineering Industry Training Board (EITB) the study was extended to cover manpower requirements for engineering construction site work. The report highlighted potential shortages of skilled manpower in the major occupations such as welders, platers, pipe-fitters and rigger-erectors. This report was supplemented by a national survey by the National Economic Development Office (NEDO) of the Engineering Construction Industry's requirements for skilled workmen. It showed that an extra 17 000 people in main key skills are needed over the next two and a half years. These requirements coincided with the increasing needs for

discuss the manpower problems that skilled workers in the shipbuilding and heavy engineering industries, in those areas where platform construction yards or sites existed or were expected. This meant that engineering construction contractors could not, as formerly, rely on drawing skilled labour from other industries.

Following the report and the survey, a series of steps was taken to meet the expected problem :

- (a) With the approval of the MSC, the TSA set up a special Sector Committee for the Mechanical and Electrical Engineering Construction Industry (MEEC), under the EITB, to provide a central training point for defining and meeting the needs of this industry.
- (b) The TSA negotiated draft training programmes for 1974/1976 with EITB which would assist the industry in training additional skilled labour rather than relying on poaching.
- (c) The Manpower Services Commission made available a grant of up to £3 500 000 for the engineering industry, to be paid through the EITB, on the understanding that the industry would raise a compulsory levy fund. The money would be used to provide training facilities and to improve training

arrangements in the industry and enable it to meet the training target in the two-year programme.

- (d) In addition to the £3 500 000, during the financial year 1974/75 an initial sum of £250 000 was made available for the early provision of training facilities.

In October 1974, a TSA and NEDO national conference was held with representatives from all the industries concerned, (including the petroleum industry, the engineering industry, the shipbuilding industry and the construction industry, government departments and their agencies. The expected problems were explained in some detail and an opportunity was given to the representatives to put forward their views. There was general support for the TSA proposal that a national coordinating committee should be set up to keep all the requirements of the situation under review. Subsequently, arrangements were made by the TSA, with the approval of the MSC, to establish a coordinating committee of this kind. The committee, known as The National Committee for Engineering Construction and Related Industries Manpower (ECRIM), has been set up under the chairmanship of the TSA to keep under review the current and future critical manpower requirements for certain skills in industries such as engineering construction, shipbuilding, navy engineering (steel production platforms and oil rig manufacture) and construction (concrete gravity platforms and other key areas), so that recommendations about required action can be made and attention drawn to future needs for redeployment. On this committee are represented government departments concerned, the MSC and its agencies and those Industry Training Boards particularly concerned with the manpower situation in these industries.

Under the ECRIM committee, regional and local committees will be formed to help in dealing with local problems. Discussions are taking place with a view to establishing a regional committee for north-east England with sub-regional committees for Tyne and Wear, another for Teesside and a committee for Scotland. Government departments and agencies, employers and trade unions will be represented on the committees. Each committee will provide a forum in which to discuss the manpower problems that

arise in the locality, and it is hoped that the representation of employers and trade unions on the committee will ensure that a flexible approach is adopted to meet the local needs.

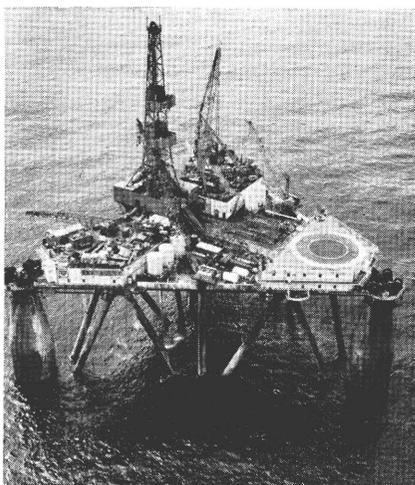
The ECRIM committee is serviced by a unit in the TSA which is arranging for the collection and processing of statistical and other information on those skilled trades which are likely to be in short supply. The unit is keeping in touch with all the government departments and agencies concerned and will seek to ensure that the various steps being taken to meet manpower needs are coordinated and likely to secure the attainment of the general objective.

### *Supply and demand of manpower*

In June 1974, the Manpower Services Commission authorized a study to provide a picture of the manpower, employment, training, and mobility problems arising from the development of the oil industry, and to identify serious gaps in the ongoing attempts to analyse the situation. The report was published the same year in December. It outlines the present and possible future discoveries of oil as well as the gas and oil production forecasts. The onshore and offshore activities involved are defined together with the time schedule for manpower requirements for the various areas so that the migration and housing needs can be estimated. A regional picture is given of the demand for manpower skills in associated industries, mainly shipbuilding and engineering construction. Statistical data of the manpower supply show that regional and national shortfalls in labour supply are due to migration and lack of training. The report examines the measures taken and gives proposals for meeting the training problems of both offshore and onshore activities.

### **Skilled manpower required for North Sea oil onshore developments**

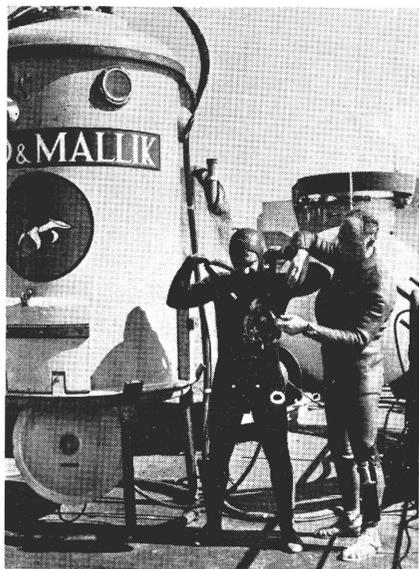
The MSC has made known that it regards the development of North Sea oil as one of its major priorities and this is recognized in the TSA's five-year plan. The TSA, with MSC approval, has now considered a series of initiatives with the Shipbuilding,



*The British Petroleum Co. Ltd.*  
drilling platform

Engineering and Construction Industry Training Boards—ITBS— to increase the number of young people and adults to be recruited and given some form of off-the-job training this year and the next in occupational areas such as plating, pipefitting, shipbuilding, welding and electrical installation, all of which are crucial in the fabrication of platforms, oil rigs, modules, semi-submersibles and special vessels.

The Construction ITB has undertaken studies in the last six months into the needs for skilled craft labour in Scotland. It concluded that there is a need for more bricklayers, carpenters and scaffolders and that there is an acute shortage of these in north and north-east Scotland, because of the increasing demand for the infrastructure needed for North Sea oil developments. Increased training facilities for these crafts are currently being planned.



The British Petroleum Co. Ltd. Divers and decompression chamber on board drilling platform in the North Sea.

As a result of the development of concrete gravity platform construction in west Scotland, the TSA had drawn the attention of the Construction ITB to the need for trained bar-benders, steel fixers, scaffolders and formwork

erectors to meet the new demands of concrete platform contractors. It was therefore suggested that a construction training centre should be established in west Scotland as soon as possible. The Construction ITB, in conjunction with the contractors, has now drawn up plans for a training centre on the outskirts of Glasgow, and the TSA, with the approval of the MSC, will make a substantial financial contribution towards the centre. A Scottish sub-committee has been set up to draw up the training courses. Initially, the centre will concentrate on developing trainees' skills in concrete platform work but is also expected to provide building craft training. The Engineering ITB is considering special measures to provide additional skilled labour for platform, module and oil rig fabrications and the TSA will assist in the introduction of the new measures.

#### *Training via 'training opportunities scheme' (TOPS)*

The major TOPS contribution has been in training people in Scotland and in the north-east of England in fabrication engineering trades (mainly welding). In addition, schemes have been set up in Scotland in the construction trades in connection with housing and platform installation and, to a lesser extent, in the clerical and commercial fields. It is not possible to quantify the proportion of TOPS trainees who go directly into employment, but some idea of the scale of the TOPS contribution can be obtained from a comparison of the estimate of skilled workers required by the offshore oil industries with the actual numbers of workers trained under TOPS in the appropriate skills. It is envisaged that 5 500 skilled workers are needed during 1974-76, although the actual number of trained workers did not quite reach 1 200 in 1974 and is not expected to rise above 1 500 in 1975. These figures do not include people trained in

clerical and commercial skills and storekeeping operations in Colleges of Further Education, and it is known that a fairly high proportion of these are finding employment with companies engaged in servicing North Sea oil projects. Six TOPS students are at present taking diploma courses in offshore engineering.

Some financial assistance from the European Social Fund is received for training under the TOPS scheme and has also been given to the pilot scheme for divers. Additional financial support has been applied for to set up the offshore training centre and the underwater training centre.

#### *72. Anglo-French course gets degree status*

A joint Anglo-French business administration course run by Middlesex Polytechnic, London, with a college in Rheims has been given degree status by the British Council for National

Academic Awards. 48 students (24 French, 24 English) will study together on a four-year course, spending two years in France and two years in Britain. They will also spend equal amounts of time working in British and French industry.

Lectures at the polytechnic and the Ecole Supérieure de Commerce et d'Administration will follow the same programme, developed jointly in both colleges. Examination boards will be made up of equal numbers of French and British staff.

British students must have French or mathematics at advanced level (higher secondary) and both subjects at ordinary level (lower secondary). French students must have passed the baccalauréat in both subjects.

*Source: The Times, 24 June 1975.*

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235. LEARNING OF PROBLEM-SOLVING BEHAVIOUR IN ADULTS (E). Forschungszentrum für Rehabilitation Prävention und berufliche Bildung. Heidelberg : Stiftung Rehabilitation, 1974. 137 pp. (also available in German : Lernen von Problemlöseverhalten in Erwachsenenalter).

The central interest of the project is to further the kind of thinking that enables terns are not at hand. In this report in situations where familiar behaviour patterns are not at hand. In this report interests are centred on the possibility of behaviour modification in problem solving. To that end a critical study of five varying and representative ways of helping people in problem situations follows after a summary of the work of the research team. The account ends with a detailed description of the teaching materials developed or modified within the framework of this project.

236. PROBLEM-SOLVING THROUGH CREATIVE ANALYSIS, (UK) by Tudor Rickards. Epping: Gower Press, 1974. 198pp. £ 4.75.

The objective of this book is to help managers tackle open-ended problems (those which have no logically correct answer). Part one discusses and assesses individual problem-solving procedures and group techniques. Part two presents 23 case studies of creative problem-solving in a variety of environments, such as marketing, market research, research and development and training.

237. AUSWAHLUNTERSUCHUNGEN BEI FÜHRUNGSNACHWUCHSKRÄFTEN. (D) Selection procedures for a new generation of middle managers, by G. Marschner. In *Psychologie und Praxis*, Vol. XVI, July-September 1972, pp 116-127.

A description of an extensive investigation by the psychology division of the health centre at the mine works in Eschweiler. As a consequence of their taking over another mine, various management problems arose. By using a selection procedure involving psychological tests optimum solutions were found. A number of illustrative tables and graphs are included.

238. EDUCATION IN ECONOMICS FOR WORKERS AND THEIR REPRESENTATIVES. (UK) Paris ; OECD, 1974. 40 pp.

The final report from a regional seminar on this subject held in Düsseldorf on 9-12 November 1971 and attended by about 50 trade union leaders and experts from Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Italy, The Netherlands, United Kingdom and Sweden. The seminar sought; to identify which were the most important economic issues for trade union leaders and what training needs were involved; to analyse ways of improving the economic knowledge of workers and their representatives and to examine the respective roles of trade union, employers, the State and private agencies in providing economic education.

239. PROFILE OF A SUPERVISOR. (UK) London: Institute of Personnel Management, 1975. 21pp. £ 0.75. (IPM Information Report 17).

A survey of current practice in 108 UK manufacturing companies reveals the present status of the supervisor, measured in terms of benefits, in relation to that of management and of the operatives he supervises. It also reviews his authority in relation to such matters as engagement, induction and training of staff, time recording and disciplinary procedures.

240. TEACHING MATERIALS FOR DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN, (UK) by Ronald Guilford and Paul Widlake. Evans/Methuen Educational, 1975. 159 pp. £ 1.25. (Schools Council Curriculum Bulletin 5).

In 1972 the Schools Council set up a one-year project to examine the use of project materials by teachers of disadvantaged children (the 15 to 20 per cent of pupils least successful at school). The terms of reference were: to examine the problems experienced by these pupils when using existing materials produced as a result of certain Schools Council projects; to examine the principles upon which successful uses and adaptations of materials have been based; to publish a survey of good practice and particularly successful adaptations. This survey covers project materials for teaching English, humanities, moral and religious education, science, mathematics, design and craft education.

241. ESSENTIAL STEPS IN MANPOWER PLANNING (E) by A.P. O'Reilly. Dublin : The Industrial Training Authority, (AnCo), 1974. 23 pp.

In recent years a great deal has been written and spoken about manpower planning. The purpose of this booklet is to strip away the mystique from this field. A number of ways are illustrated in which managers—particularly in small and medium sized companies—can put manpower planning into practice, to the benefit of the company and the people who staff it. For example:—how to determine organizational training needs; how to identify and utilize most effectively the talents in the organization; how to meet employees' expectations in terms of career prospects and how to anticipate redundancies and avoid layoffs.

242. THE PRACTICE OF MANPOWER FORECASTING. (E). Edited by Bashir Ahamad and Mark Blaug. Amsterdam : Elsevier Scientific Publishing Company. 1973. 351 pp.

This book is one of a series on problems of educational planning. It consists of ten case studies; an introduction and a conclusion. The case studies illustrate that manpower forecasts have been used for a wide variety of policy decisions ranging from short-term labour market adjustments to long-term educational planning. The authors argue that manpower forecasting models currently used are much more satisfactory for making short-term rather than long-term forecasts.

243. A NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE UNEMPLOYED, (E) by W.W. Daniel. London : Political and Economic Planning, 1974. 162 pp. £2.50. (Vol. XL Broadsheet No 546).

The findings in this report consider characteristics of the unemployed; the proportion of those registered who were effectively not in the labour market; the costs that they endured out of work and when re-employed; the circumstances under which they lost their old jobs; their experience and behaviour while seeking new jobs and the effectiveness of the public employment service in helping them; the factors which influenced the length of time they were out of work and the effect of different types of financial benefit on their job seeking and job choice; their attitudes and experiences in relation to retraining and moving house to find a new job. A representative sample of 1 479 unemployed workers was used.

244. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN FINLAND. (E). Hameenlinna : National Board of Vocational Education (Ammatitusvatushallitus), 1973. 154 pp.

A guide to the organization and the educational activities of the National Board of Vocational Education in Finland. The guide is simple, well illustrated with maps and graphs and covers a wide variety of topics including: vocational training institutions, apprentice training, vocational qualifying examinations, commercial, technical and agricultural education of seafarers and legislation concerning the vocational education subordinate to the National Board of Vocational Education. The final 12 pages are devoted to statistical tables.

245. KEY QUALIFICATIONS IN BASIC AND FURTHER EDUCATION. (E), by Dr Dieter Mertens. Strasbourg: Committee for Out-of-school Education and Cultural Development. Council of Europe 1972. 18 pp.

This report seeks to identify quantitative requirements which must be satisfied when an educational system is being developed and reformed if the dual aim of individual and economic utility is to be recognized. Key qualifications are defined as 'knowledge, aptitudes and skills which confer the ability to perform a wide range of jobs and functions and the ability to adjust to a series of changes in the demands made by one's job'. The report goes on to suggest the nature and format of a curriculum for teaching those basic skills which might lead to such key qualifications.

246. L'ACCES LA VIE PROFESSIONNELLE A LA SORTIE DES INSTITUTS UNIVERSITAIRES DE TECHNOLOGIE. (F). Career opportunities on leaving technical universities. Centre d'études et de recherches sur les qualifications. Paris: Documentation Française, 1975. 187 pp. (Dossier No 7).

This enquiry sets out to survey the conditions of transition from study to working life. In particular it brings out lines of entry, and first job positions. The analysis stresses three essential factors, namely training speciality, region and sex, and is the first to pay close attention to the progress and impact of students in new higher training areas. It answers the pressing demand for more information on the position of technicians and engineers, employed or undergoing study.

247. EVALUATION AND CONTROL OF TRAINING (UK) by A.C. Hamblin. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill. 1974. 208 pp. £ 4.25.

The author uses a model evaluation cycle which is made up of five levels of training effects, which also constitute the levels of objective-setting and evaluation: reactions, learning, job behaviour, organization and ultimate value. A description is given of the types of strategy for entering the evalua-

tion process at any level and of the range of techniques which may be used at each. A special section is devoted to the problem of evaluating external courses.

248. COMPARATIVE TABLE OF LATIN AMERICAN VOCATIONAL TRAINING BODIES. (UK) CINTERFOR. (Centro Interamericano de Investigacion y Documentacion sobre Formacion y Profesional). Geneva: International Labour Office. 1974. 24 pp.

This publication is a translation of Part 1 of the 1973 edition of the 'Comparative Table and data sheets of Latin American Vocational Bodies', published annually by the Inter-American Vocational Training Documentation and Research Centre. It provides a comprehensive picture of the national training bodies of Latin America listing their more important activities and objectives and giving a general description of their organizational structure.

249. SCHULVERSUCHE ZUM BLOCK-UNTERRICHT AN BERUFSSCHULEN IN RHEINLAND-PFALZ. ZWISCHENBERICHT 1971-1973. (D) Experiments with modular training methods in Rheinland-Pfalz. Interim report 1971-1973, by Erich Däüenhauer, Jürgen Klan and Walter Ackermann. Mainz: V. Hase & Koehler Verlag GmbH, 1973. 269 pp.

This book discusses the results of an experiment in Rheinland-Pfalz involving a modular learning method in vocational training. This method enables trainees to build up their own courses of study leading to a desired qualification. A research group of the Rheinland-Pfalz Ministry of Culture spent 20 months collecting data from visits to training establishments and questionnaires completed by trainees, teachers and parents. Copies of the questionnaires and answers are included.

250. PROCEEDINGS OF THE 46TH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SIEC (SOCIETE INTERNATIONALE POUR L'ENSEIGNEMENT COMMERCIAL), London 28 July - 4 August 1974. (UK) BACIE Journal, November 1974, pp 140-149.

This conference, organized by BACIE, consisted of lectures and visits examining current trends and developments in the fields of commercial education and training. Verbatim reports are given of the opening address by the Secretary of State for Education and Science, and speeches on the training of retail sales assistants and the training of secretaries in the education system. Résumés are given of papers on current economic and social trends in the U.K., the education system in England, industrial and commercial training in the U.K., as well as of visits made to illustrate the training of teachers, clerical training in the Army, secretarial training, sales training in the travel industry and training for finance.

251. EDUCATION ET FORMATION PROFESSIONNELLE DE MIGRANTS. (F) Contribution néerlandaise pour la Conférence Permanente des Ministres européens de l'éducation, The Hague: Ministerie van Onderwijs en Wetenschappen 1973. 24 pp. (Docinform 295 F). (Also available in English, title: Education and training for immigrants. Docinform 295E and German, title: Unterricht und Berufliche Weiterbildung für Einwanderer. Docinform 295 D).

This guide to immigrant education and training in the Netherlands is divided into five sections: policy, legislation, research, statistics and bibliography. A brief resume is given of Dutch policy and its implementation with regard to adult education, compulsory education and the length of stay of foreign workers. Legislative provisions affecting immigrants are also described. Statistics are given for the total number of immigrant workers, the educational situation for immigrant children, the number of immigrants by nationality, and the number of foreign pupils in primary education by nationality and age.

252. RELEVANT METHODS IN COMPARATIVE EDUCATION. (E). Report of a meeting of international experts edited by Reginald Edwards, Brian Holmes and John van de Graff. (Hamburg). Unesco Institute for Education, 1973. 270 pp.

The Unesco Institute for Education has sponsored expert meetings in comparative education since 1955. The 1971 meeting, reported in this volume, undertook to assess the situation of comparative education in the context of the trend towards empiricism and social science practices. The book is devoted principally to methodological approaches and includes reports from three working groups researching problems intrinsic and extrinsic to the field.

253. CAREER EDUCATION PROGRAM: PROGRAM PLAN FOR FISCAL YEAR 1975. (UK) Washington: National Institute of Education, 1974. 49 pp.

In April 1973 the National Institute of Education (USA) published the *Forward Plan for Career Education Research and Development* which outlined the framework around which the Institute's programme would be built and described the projects under way. The present plan for 1975 reviews the Institute's goals, the strategies for achieving them and provides abstracts of the projects currently being administered by the Career Education Program. The goals are to improve understanding of the relationship between education and work and to increase the contribution education makes to individual's abilities to choose, enter and progress in work that is beneficial to themselves and others. The strategies involve investigating research, planning and

policy analysis; guidance, counselling and placement; curriculum; financial barriers; alternative settings; systemic or institutional changes.

254. ANNUAL CAREERS GUIDE: OPPORTUNITIES IN THE PROFESSIONS, INDUSTRY, COMMERCE AND THE PUBLIC SERVICE, (UK) by the Department of Employment. 12th ed. London: HMSO, 1974. Various pagination. £1.40.

Articles for 108 careers give the minimum educational requirements for entry and a brief description of the work, opportunities and prospects, personal characteristics required, education and training.

255. ONDERWIJS AAN KINDEREN VAN BUITENLANDSE WERKNEMERS. (NL) Education of children of foreign employees. In Nieuwsbrief buitenlandse werknemers No. 6. The Hague: Ministerie van Cultuur, Recreatie en Maatschappelijk Werk, 1973. 45 pp.

This is a special edition, solely dealing with the education of children of immigrants in The Netherlands. Besides pure educational aspects, the articles also cover transportation to and from school, cultural differences and the possibility of legal and social aid for immigrants and their children.

256. INTERNATIONALIZING EDUCATION. SUMMARY OF REPORTS FROM THE SWEDISH COMMITTEE FOR INTERNATIONALIZING UNIVERSITY EDUCATION. (E). Stockholm: Universitetskanslersämbetet och Utbildningsförlaget 1974, 56 pp.

The Committee whose five reports are summarized in this publication was appointed in 1972 by the Universitetskanslersämbetet (Office of the Chancellor of the Swedish Universities.) It sets worldwide solidarity as the main goal in internationalizing education at all levels. Education must also see to it that different kinds of vocational pursuits acquire an increasing international component.

257. L'EDUCATION DES JEUNES DE 16 à 19 ANS DANS LE SYSTEME NEERLANDAIS D'ENSEIGNEMENT. (F). The education of 16 to 19 year olds in the Dutch education systems. The Hague: Documentation Division, Ministry of Education and Science, 1973/74. 15 pp. (Docinform 299 F). Also available in:

Dutch: Het onderwijs aan de 16-19 jarigen in het nederlandse onderwijsstelsel. (Docinform 299).

German: Der Unterricht für sechzehnbis neunzehnjährige in niederländischen Unterrichtssystem. (Docinform 299D).

The report looks at the democratization of the Dutch education system that took place during the 1960s. Educational trends discussed include pre-university teaching, comprehensive schools, student participation in education and evening classes. Major education problems, costs of university education and grants for secondary education are also outlined.

258. HIGHLIGHTS OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN THE NETHERLANDS. (E). The Hague: Information Department of the Ministry of Education and Science, 1973. 63 pp.

A review of all branches of technical education in the Netherlands, from elementary technical subjects to university courses in technology. The present series of articles also includes reference to a very special kind of teaching, known as individual technical education (ITO). This is designed for children who have had difficulty in keeping up at primary school and for children from special schools. The teaching is adapted to the individual needs of each pupil and includes a great deal of practical work.

259. DISCUSSION SUR L'ALPHABÉTISATION. (F). A discussion on promoting literacy. Six-monthly publication. Teheran: Institut international pour les méthodes d'alphabétisation des adultes, Spring, 1974. 228 pp.

The discussion consists of a series of documents on the work, philosophy and teaching methods of the Brazilian educationalist Paulo Freire. Freire's philosophy, largely existential in concept and terminology, as applied originally to the illiterate communities in the north-east of Brazil, but now serves as a basis for promoting literacy among adult illiterates in any underprivileged community. The section on methodology is substantiated by situations and illustrations based on the Brazilian model.

260. A LANGUAGE FOR LIFE. (E). Report of the Committee of Inquiry appointed by the Secretary of State for Education and Science under the chairmanship of Sir Alan Bullock. London: HMSO, 1975. 609 pp. £5.00.

The Bullock report on literacy, as it is commonly known, describes the committee's results and recommendations after its investigation into all aspects of teaching the use of English in schools. It deals with the role of initial and in-service training of teachers, the teaching of adults and immigrants and includes proposals to improve the present practices in teaching, reading and writing.

261. PERMANENT EDUCATION. THE BASIS AND ESSENTIALS. (E). Report of the Council for Cultural Cooperation. Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 1973. 66 pp.

A synopsis of 15 previous studies on the concept of continuing education and its implication for a changing European society, this report sets out in succinct form the main lines of thought. It takes as a starting point existing and foreseeable changes and discusses the conflict between learner-centred and goal-orientated educational systems as well as the need for long-term planning for an economically and culturally integrated education structure. Basic elements of an organizational pattern are proposed in the conclusion.

262. TOWARDS MASS HIGHER EDUCATION: ISSUES AND DILEMMAS. (UK) Conference on future structures of post-secondary education, Paris, 26-29 June 1973. Paris: OECD, 1974. 227pp. £2.20.

Four studies relating to the major themes of the conference are reproduced here. The papers discuss quantitative trends and admission policies in post-secondary education, new relations between post-secondary education and employment and the cost and finance of post-secondary education.

263. DIRECTORY OF INFORMATION SOURCES AND ADVISORY SERVICES IN EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY, (UK) edited by Olivia Fairfax. London: Council for Educational Technology, 1974. 206 pp. £2.20.

A directory of 134 British organizations willing to offer information or advice about educational technology in general, teaching and learning methods, curriculum review and development, selection and acquisition of learning material and equipment, the organization of learning resources and deployment of staff. Brief details of each organization's structure, function and services are given.

264. AUDIOVISUELLE MITTEL IN DER MODERNEN SCHULE, (D) Audio-visual aids in the modern school by Erhard Bergmann. München: Bayerischer Schulbuch-Verlag. 1970. 91 pp.

As a result of technological advances made during the past few years, the number of audio-visual teaching aids has increased. The aim of this book is to give teachers a concise picture of audio-visual aids available today, together with their respective teaching applications. Hints are also given as to the combined use of audio-visual aids and to measuring their efficiency.

265. PERMANENT EDUCATION. SOME MODELS OF ADULT LEARNING AND ADULT CHANGE. (E). A.M. Huberman. Strasbourg: Council for cultural cooperation, Council of Europe, 1974. 78 pp.

Only in very recent years has adulthood been studied as constituting a significant and complex developmental period. Professor Huberman's study discusses the implications of adulthood with regard to policies for continuing education. In particular, references are made to the effects of emotional and physiological changes on learning motivation and capacity among adult students, to learning conditions and to the institutional setting of continuing education.

266. PAID EDUCATIONAL LEAVE: A REPORT OF PRACTICE IN FRANCE, GERMANY AND SWEDEN. (E), by Alan Charnley. St. Albans: Hart-Davis Educational, 1975. 148 pp. £1.75.

In some European countries provision for paid educational leave is more advanced than the thirty-year old day-release system operating in the United Kingdom. Financed by the British Department of Education and Science, the National Institute of Adult Education in the UK undertook a year's investigation into the rights of employees to paid educational leave in three European countries. The author includes chapters on the legislative and administrative backgrounds, finance, provision and demand, while his European researchers submit chapters on their findings.

267. REDEPLOYMENT AND RETRAINING. (E), by Pat Webster. London: Working Together Campaign, 1974. 15 pp. £0.15.

A case study which describes a very large company's policy to help employees whose jobs become redundant to find positions in other divisions of the company, and to help with retraining and encourage selftraining and personal development.

268. MANAGEMENT EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN THE USSR, (UK) by Sir David Watherston, *BACIE Journal*, January 1975, pp 11-12.

In 1973 when the author visited the USSR much greater priority was being given to management education and training than before. He describes the growing emphasis given to economics in courses, the expansion in post-experience courses in management studies and the recognition of the importance of research. Also described is the Soviet emphasis on specialization whereby a student committed to a particular course of study was obliged to pursue any further education or training at post-graduate or post-experience level in the same field, and the system which insisted on all teachers being given further training every five years.

269. RAPPORT D'ACTIVITÉ DES ORGANISATIONS INTERNATIONALES 1971-1972. (F) A report on the activities of international organisations 1971-1972. Conférences permanente des ministres européens de l'éducation. Huitième Session. Berne 5-7 juin 1973. Strasbourg: TREG, 1973. 81 pp.

This annual report was presented by the Standing Conference of European Education Ministers during their eighth session in Berne in 1973.

It contains brief resumés of activities in the educational sphere undertaken by UNESCO, OECD, the Council of Europe and the European Communities within the geographical limits of these organizations. Among the topics covered are: adult education, illiteracy, retraining, life-long education, university education and research.

270. INTELLIGENCE AND MOTIVATION AMONG DAY-RELEASE STUDENTS. (UK) A selection of papers by Ethel Venables. Windsor: National Foundation for Educational Research Publishing Co Ltd, 1974. 173 pp. £ 3.65.

Ten papers, previously published in a variety of journals, are reprinted in this volume, including the final chapter from the author's book *Apprentices Out of Their Time*.

The papers are entitled: the reserve of ability in part-time technical college courses; placement problems in part-time engineering courses; placement problems among engineering apprentices in part-time technical college courses (parts I and II); changes in intelligence test scores of engineering apprentices between the first and third years of at-

tendance at college; relationship between the intelligence of technical college students and size of family; success in technical college courses according to size of firm; social differences among day-release students in relation to their recruitment and examination success; differences between verbal and non-verbal ability in relation to personality scores among part-time day-release students; the human costs of part-time day-release; education for living.

271. 150 ORE - RECUPERO DELL'OBBLIGO - UNA ESPERIENZA DI FORMAZIONE DEI FORMATORI. (I). 150 hours - Paid study leave - A training experiment for instructors. Quaderni di Formazione No 2. Rome: ISFOL (Istituto per lo sviluppo della Formazione Professionale dei Lavoratori). 1974. 146 pp.

Under the terms of their Contract of Work workers in the metal engineering industry are entitled to paid study leave. This leave is limited to 150 hours over three years, provided the course of study lasts at least twice this period of time. This publication covers the plan of a course for training instructors for such study leave courses, the development of the course and a balance sheet of the experiment.

272. COLLOQUE SUR LA FORMATION ET LE PERFECTIONNEMENT PROFESSIONNELS DANS LES PETITES ET MOYENNES ENTREPRISES: ALLOCUTIONS ET RAPPORTS. (F) Conference on vocational training and refresher courses in small and medium-sized companies: speeches and reports, by the Centre Liegeois de Formation, de Perfectionnement et d'Assistance technique pour les petites et moyennes entreprises. Liège, 1973. 89 pp.

Reports are given by representatives from France, Switzerland, Luxembourg and Belgium. One article discusses the Belgian law of 24 December 1958 which made provisions for training candidates in companies using craft skills, in small and medium-sized commercial companies and in light industry. Another examines vocational training, refresher courses for managers and technical assistance given to small and medium-sized companies.

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