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AUTHOR Schweitzer, Cordula; Wolfinger, Claudia
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ABSTRACT

A study examined the vocational counseling needs of girls and young women when choosing an occupation in Germany. Available literature on the following topics was reviewed: the relationship of the sexes in education and training; girls' choices of occupations in the changed arena of structural discrimination and roles assigned to females by society and personal interests; utilization of vocational counseling; and females' expectations from vocational counseling and approaches to upgrade vocational training for girls/young women. It was concluded that although girls make use of vocational counseling just as often as boys do, they express stronger overall dissatisfaction with available vocational counseling services. Vocational counseling for females must proceed from the different initial situations of girls and their restricted access to certain career paths rather than from the ideal of "free choice of occupation." More attention must be paid to the special problems encountered by girls when choosing an occupation. (Contains 117 references. Appended are 24 tables/figures and glossaries of selected institutions, legislation, and terminology.) (MN)

CEDEFOP panorama

Determining the need for vocational counselling among different target groups of young people under 28 years of age in the Federal Republic of Germany

Counselling needs of girls and young women when choosing an occupation

National report

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CEDEFOP panorama

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Counselling needs of girls and young women when choosing an occupation

Literature study by:
Cordula Schweitzer
Claudia Wolfinger
Nuremberg

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Edited by:
CEDEFOP- European Centre for the
Development of Vocational Training
Jean Monnet House,
Bundesallee 22, D-10717 Berlin
Tel.: 49-30+88 41 20
Fax: 49-30+88 41 22 22
Telex: 184 163 eucen d

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Preface by CEDEFOP

In developing the careers of young people and integrating them into working life, career guidance is becoming increasingly important. Persistent, structurally-caused unemployment, higher qualification requirements, complex training paths with eased transition between initial and continuing training, the increasing deregulation of the labour market and the emergence of new values and life styles among young people present career guidance services, as the instrument for regulating supply and demand on training, education and labour markets, with fundamental and complex tasks. At the same time, European integration poses new challenges to the career guidance services in the Member States. The PETRA 3 programme has taken an initial step in this direction through setting up European-oriented national resource centres, through organizing transitional continuing training courses for occupational guidance counsellors and publishing the "European Manual for Occupational Guidance Counsellors".

The comparative studies[1] carried out by CEDEFOP and Task Force: Human Resources, Education, Training and Youth to support and monitor work in this field have increased transparency in national occupational guidance systems and qualification structures.

The activities and research work carried out aimed primarily to make proposals or provide support for improving occupational guidance activities, to focus such work in a European context on the basis of existing national structures. Counselling requirements were deduced from existing or forecasted demand (enquiries at guidance services) or from general data derived from labour market and occupational research.

To date the needs of various target groups of young people based on their economic and social and cultural situation, their values, their career plans, their conception of the efficiency of occupational guidance offers etc. have not been taken into account.

This issue was examined in the project "Determination of (occupational) guidance needs for various groups of young people under 28 years of age in the European Union", carried out between March 1993 and May 1994, the results of which are now available (12 national reports, in the original language and English, partly in French, the synthesis report in English, French, German, Italian and Spanish).

A total of 21 target groups were examined; nine of the reports examined two of the groups and three reports examined one target group. Particular attention was devoted to young people at a particular disadvantage who had no or inadequate access to occupational guidance services. The target groups selected are listed in the appendices of the 12 national reports and the synthesis report as the aims and findings of the project - as stressed in the synthesis report - can only be viewed in the context of the interrelationships between the various elements. The national reports have been published in separate editions as certain readers are interested

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[1] Occupational profiles and training in occupational guidance counselling. CEDEFOP. 1992. 12 national studies and synthesis report.
Educational and vocational guidance services for youth and young adults in the EC. European Commission. 1993. 12 national reports and synthesis report. As a supplement:
EUROCOUNSEL. Counselling and long-term unemployment. European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. Dublin. 1992-1993. 6 national studies and synthesis report.

in specific target groups whose problems in finding training and work have supra-national features which are characteristic of other target groups which we selected.

This project was commissioned by Task Force: Human Resources, Education, Training and Youth as part of the PETRA 3 programme aiming to produce indicators for differentiated and demand-oriented occupational guidance practices and to create more offensive planning strategies to reach as far as possible those target groups which were excluded from guidance counselling for the reasons contained in the reports. New proposals are being formulated at present to prepare the gradual transition to the "LEONARDO DA VINCI Programme".

Enrique Retuerto de la Torre
Deputy Director

Gesa Chomé
Project Coordinator

Foreword

In the life of an individual, choosing an occupation is closely linked to the transition from general education to vocational training, a phase known as the "first threshold". It is inadvisable to confine ourselves to this transitional period because the diversity of training opportunities is already restricted with the decision to follow one branch of the education system rather than another. In the education system of the Federal Republic of Germany this decision has to be taken at a very early stage. In principle, only with university entrance qualifications can an individual gain access to the entire spectrum of educational opportunities ranging from dual training to full-time training courses at school, to university study. Therefore, the "choice of an occupation" is not a once-in-a-lifetime decision - as the term falsely implies - but rather a long-term process consisting of several stages. At each stage the individual makes choices regarding education, training, continuing training, occupation and place of employment (Stooss 1991).

Up to the 1960s upper school education and vocational training qualifications were not considered necessary for girls and young women in view of their future duties within the family. The girls' own plans for the future as well as those dictated by society were almost exclusively restricted to the roles of housewife and mother. Only in cases of financial need would it be considered acceptable for women to take on outside employment and "add" to the family income. This situation changed with the debates on the connection between education and economic growth, sparked off by the "sputnik shock", and finally resulting in a massive extension of the education system. The goal of this educational reform was to activate "reserves of talent".

This educational expansion led to a decisive change in the relationship of the sexes. Bringing women's level of education in line with men's, together with high professional and occupational motivation, are expression of the great changes that have taken place in women's lives. Young women are assertively demanding their right to "a life of their own" - a life which is no longer socially justifiable purely through the role of "serving others" (Beck-Gernsheim 1983). Sound vocational training has gained in importance in two ways: on the one hand, there is an increasing number of better educated young

women who after leaving school are interested in learning a specific occupation; on the other hand, women need an occupation as the basis for a financially secure life of their own, free from the traditional dependence on a partner or spouse. In this context, the period of education and training seems to be an important formative phase. It is the time when the foundations of women's motivational energy are formed and their demand for and claims to changed life orientation are moulded and stabilized. The central role which training and occupation play in women's lives does not necessarily mean that the "other" sphere of their lives - living with a partner, having children and family life - will lose all its importance. Quite the contrary! Numerous studies have shown that women opt for both occupation and family (Seidenspinner/Burger 1982; Allerbeck/Hoag 1985; Faulstich-Wieland/Horstkemper 1985a).

The transitional system that has developed within the context of the educational expansion process supports emancipating tendencies by allowing an increasing number of women to take advantage of training. At the same time, new aspects of unequal opportunities between the sexes have surfaced at the structural level. Not only do school qualifications and personal performance limit the choice of an occupation; the chances for training and occupation are also subject to further mechanisms of selection. Access to training now, as in the past, is also controlled and limited by societally determined inequalities, but "the ways in which society reproduces inequality have become much more complicated" (Brock 1991, p. 10). Contrary to the intentions of the educational reformers working towards equal opportunities, new selection criteria and access patterns have emerged, some of which in turn have led to new forms of discrimination. Upon closer scrutiny, we see that equal opportunities for women is a relative term when it comes to training. There is a clear difference between young women's and young men's "choice" of training occupations and training paths. Despite the high percentage of women taking part in vocational training and their marked occupational motivation, many women still fill low-paid positions. Sex-specific "choice of occupation" continues to reinforce unequal occupational opportunities.

Against this background we have to question the causes of sex-specific vocational training courses and training patterns. We assume that on the one hand, we are dealing here with

choices of training that are prompted by patterns of socialization. There are also indications that sex-specific entrance restrictions exist within the training system (Krüger 1991). Accordingly, girls' and young women's choice of occupation could be interpreted as a process, "which is determined by structural conditions, current economic, technical and organizational developments on the labour market, and societal norms. This process is also determined by young people's perception and interpretation of reality and their attempts to adjust to or form their surroundings" (Lemmermöhle-Thüsing 1990, p. 167f.).

This study focuses on the guidance girls and young women need during the process of choosing an occupation. Virtually no empirical studies have been conducted so far on what vocational guidance[1] girls and young women need and require, what assistance they expect and the extent to which the existing offer meets their expectations. Irrespective of the fact that much research remains to be done, an analysis of girls' and young women's vocational counselling needs must take into account their personal views and how they interpret their world as well as the various dimensions of sex-specific choice of occupation.

According to studies carried out by Heinz/Krüger (1985), however, the social dimension of choosing an occupation usually remains concealed. In retrospect, girls will often redefine their choice of particular training paths and occupations which were imposed upon them by basic structural conditions as their own decision; they personalize contradictory experiences and conflicts. It is therefore sensible to opt for an approach that deduces somewhat indirectly what counselling girls and young women need when choosing an occupation. In other words, our starting point should be the current situation in which vocational training opportunities for girls are still restricted and restricting, which contradicts the assumption that the sexes enjoy equal rights.

Vocational guidance and counselling play a decisive role in the process of choosing an occupation. Counselling may help to counteract the existing discrimination against girls and to assert, at least partially, the demand for equal rights when it comes to occupations.

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[1] The terms vocational guidance and vocational counselling have been used as synonyms in this text.

At the same time, counselling cannot be a "cure-all" in view of the above-mentioned problems and the insecure future of the training and labour markets. In addition, the individual help provided in vocational counselling sessions must take into account the personal preferences of those seeking advice, i.e. vocational counselling cannot be based exclusively on the principle of equal opportunities for both sexes.

The current structure of vocational guidance reflects these main areas of activity: vocational orientation, individual vocational guidance and training placement. This system is based on the Labour Promotion Law. Although in the Federal Republic of Germany the Federal Labour Office alone is responsible for vocational counselling, young people also draw on other sources for information. In addition to parents and teachers, friends and acquaintances have a considerable influence on young people's choice of an occupation.

The aim of this study, which has been supplemented by talks with experts[2], is to investigate the opportunities and the reality of vocational counselling with regard to the specific needs of girls. After having taken stock of their situation in the education system (Chapter I), we shall present a number of important theoretical approaches to explain the roots of sex-specific training and the sex-specific labour market and examine their relevance to identifying sex-specific behaviour when choosing an occupation.

On the basis of these theoretical reflections, we shall derive approaches for vocational counselling work which will take into account the specifically female elements in the process of choosing an occupation (Chapter II). The third part of the study will describe existing vocational guidance offers and the use young people make of them. Our final step will be to outline the vocational counselling needs of girls and young women (Chapter IV), taking into consideration the theoretical reflections mentioned in Chapter II.

So far we have only spoken of "girls and young women" in relation to their unequal opportunities without reflecting on the fact that "below" the structural category of sex,

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[2] Labour administrative representatives were approached as experts.

differences in their life situation - such as their origin, nationality and education - play an important role as well. Therefore, our study will also deal with specific target groups among young women. In most cases, however, we are only able to differentiate according to young women's qualificational levels since there is little data available. Whenever possible, the vocational counselling needs of lower secondary, intermediate secondary and grammar school leavers, as well as of disadvantaged girls and young foreigners, have been investigated separately.

I Relationship of the sexes in education and training

1 Better educated ...

Up to the 1960s there was clear evidence of discrimination against women in education both in the Federal Republic of Germany and also internationally. Following the motto "you are going to get married anyway", no special importance was attached to the specialized training of girls beyond their societally prescribed role of housewives and mothers. This discrimination becomes apparent when we look at the percentage of girls among the total number of school-leavers over the last 25 years.

The percentage of females in the general population between the ages of 10 and 20 has remained relatively constant at approximately 49%. Under the assumption that there is no sex-specific discrimination in education, the number of girls leaving all three types of school should roughly correspond to this percentage. In fact, in the 1960s this was the case only for lower secondary and intermediate secondary schools. In grammar schools, girls and young women were clearly under-represented. In 1967, young women made up only 37% of all school-leavers who had obtained university entrance qualifications (Table 1).

This situation has changed radically over the last 25 years. The general educational level of girls and boys has become more similar and much higher overall. The last couple of decades has been marked by a clear rise in the percentage of women leaving school with the highest level of school qualifications. At the same time, the percentage of girls among school-leavers with a lower secondary school leaving certificate is currently 44.4%, below the expected percentage. Among those leaving school without a lower secondary school leaving certificate the percentage of girls is at 38.2% even lower. In contrast to this, girls have always been inclined to attend intermediate secondary schools. Since the 1960s they have made up - to varying degrees - well over 50% of the intermediate school population.

The most apparent changes in the participation of girls in education can be observed in the number of young women who are leaving school with university entrance qualifications. Although at 46.6% they are still slightly under-represented, the percentage of women leaving school with university entrance qualifications has risen by roughly 10% since the mid-sixties (Table 1). Statistics for the 1990s indicate there is no longer educational discrimination against girls and young women. In addition, empirical studies show that girls often do better at school than their male peers (Hurrelmann/Rodax/Spitz 1986).

It is not possible to address the issue of discrimination against girls and young women in training from a purely numerical aspect, however. When starting school, girls and boys already have clear ideas, acquired from their primary socialization within the family, about what is typically male or female behaviour. A summary description of the findings obtained in school research by Hagemann-White (1984) indicates that schools tend to reinforce sexual stereotypes rather than break them down. Girls face subtle discrimination (Brehmer 1982) with regard to curricula and interaction in the classroom, both of which considerably influence their choice of subjects, courses and areas of specialization. Since the 1960s, for example, increasing numbers of girls have taken modern languages at grammar schools while they are clearly under-represented in mathematics, natural science and classical language classes (Hurrelmann/Rodax/Spitz 1986). This results in a reproduction of sex-specific training courses and educational paths.

This brings us face to face with an ambivalent situation: The number of disadvantages in education has been reduced. At the same time the expectations we have of vocational training, which are changing because of the increasing level of education, have met with barriers resulting from sex-specific division of labour and the sex-specific hierarchical structure of the training and labour markets. Although women have gained from the expansion in education, we find upon closer scrutiny that girls' increased level of general education does not pay off in appropriate training and better chances on the labour market, as the following section will show.

2 ... but still not equal: the phenomenon of sex-specific training markets

2.1 Female and male patterns of transition from general education schools to the training system

Now as in the past there are clear sex-specific differences in the patterns of transition from general education schools to the training system, a stage known as the "first threshold". Young women and young men often take different paths upon entering the vocational training system, leading to different types of training and then, in turn, to different occupational fields (Rabe-Kleeberg 1987).

By means of the Master Calculation for Education developed by the Institute for Employment Research, it is possible to calculate the qualification-specific patterns of transition at this first threshold. Tables 2a-c show the variety of possible transitions from general education schools and changes in the patterns of transition over the last two decades.

Distinct sex-specific differences in the direct transitions at the first threshold are apparent throughout the years. Full-time specialized vocational schools are much more important for young women than for young men. The latter, in turn more often choose to train in an enterprise (Tables 2a-c).

If we make a distinction according to the level of school certificate obtained, we will find that girls and boys who have completed lower secondary school attach great importance - although to a significantly different degree - to the dual system of training. Just under half of the girls and more than two-thirds of the boys opted for dual training in 1975.

In subsequent years, the transitional behaviour of this group changed considerably. In 1982, only nearly 38% of the girls and roughly 15% of the boys went into dual training from lower secondary schools. At the same time, there was an increase in the rate of both girls and boys opting for full-time specialized vocational training. In 1982, one-third of the girls (1975: 28%) and roughly 15% of the boys (1975: 11%) from lower secondary

schools decided to attend full-time specialized vocational schools.

The training place crisis of the mid-1970s and even more so in the early 1980s had a decisive impact on the development of educational behaviour in the Federal Republic of Germany. The growing number of school-leavers from general education schools and the increasing demand for training places led to more competitive selection practices on the market for training places in enterprises. This meant that girls, young people without a lower secondary school-leaving certificate and also young people who had obtained a lower secondary school leaving certificate had little chance on the training place market (Schober 1985, p. 253). The rates for direct transition from lower secondary school to dual system training have plummeted for both sexes since 1975, although the drop has been more pronounced among boys than girls.

As a result of the expansion of the education system and the continuing recession, intense competition among young people of the same sex with different school qualifications has been playing an even more important role than competition between the sexes. In 1975, only 37% of the girls attending an intermediate secondary school went straight from school into training in the dual system; seven years later the figure had increased to 47%. Parallel to this, the percentage of girls with lower secondary schooling transferring to the dual system declined (Tables 2a+b).

Demographic and economic developments towards the end of the 1980s led to an overall improvement in the situation on the training place market. While there has been a clear decline in the overall number of school-leavers, the rate of girls from lower secondary schools entering the dual training system has increased by almost 20% since 1982 and the rate of boys from lower secondary schools has increased by almost 10%. Thus, the percentage of both sexes transferring to the dual training system has tended to become more similar, although there are still clear sex-specific disparities when it comes to transition to full-time specialized vocational schools. More than twice as many lower secondary school girls (20.5%) than lower secondary school boys (8.9%) opt to transfer to full-time school courses. This means that compared to 1982, this type of training has become far less important for both sexes, although the sex-specific differences in transfer

rates have not changed. We note, however, that in the case of school-leavers with intermediate secondary school leaving qualifications, girls and boys are tending to behave more similarly when it comes to transferring to full-time specialized vocational schools. In 1982, just under one-third of the girls but only 14% of the boys transferred to a full-time specialized vocational school; seven years later the number had dropped to a mere quarter of all girls leaving intermediate secondary schools and to almost one-fifth of all boys leaving intermediate secondary schools.

If we look at the transfer rates of school-leavers with university entrance qualifications from 1975 onward, we note that dual training has gained in importance compared with university study, a trend that has been relatively constant. While in 1975 only roughly 4% of school-leavers with university entrance qualifications started dual training, the proportion had risen to 17% by 1990. In contrast, two-thirds of all school-leavers with university entrance qualifications transferred from school to university in 1975; seven years later this percentage had dropped to 40%, a figure that has remained relatively constant in subsequent years. In the same period the percentage of young women, who after completing grammar school neither entered a training programme nor took on employment, has clearly increased (1975: 3.7%, 1990: 9.3%) whereas the proportion of those entering employment directly after grammar school has increased by only 3% to 14.8%.

2.2 The situation of young women in vocational training

The German vocational training system differentiates, as we mentioned above, between training within the dual system and full-time training courses in schools. In discussions on vocational training in scientific and political circles, full-time training in schools has often been neglected in favour of training in enterprises, although the former comprises traditionally important types of training for girls. In the following section we will deal in detail with quantitative and qualitative structural aspects of the two types of initial vocational training for young women.

2.2.1 Training of young women in enterprises

The percentage of women in initial training in enterprises increased from 35.4% in 1970 to 42.2% in 1991, after reaching a peak at 43.1% in 1989 (Table 3). The proportion of women increased especially in the crafts sector (from 17% to 27%), in agriculture (from 19% to 33%) and in the public service sector (from 21% to 47%). The percentage of women remained largely constant in industry and commerce, however (41% to 43%). Despite past growth, if we take into account the proportion of women in the relevant age groups, we find that female trainees are still clearly under-represented when it comes to training in enterprises. As is the case in the general education area, it is not exclusively quantitative criteria that shed light on equality of opportunities, or the lack of it, in vocational training. Discrimination on the grounds of sex becomes apparent above all if we apply qualitative aspects as the yardstick.

Although women have access to almost the entire range of altogether 376 recognized training occupations, the spectrum of occupations is clearly more restricted for female trainees than for young men. Approximately 55% of all female trainees do their training in the ten most popular training occupations. This means that although the concentration of girls in a limited number of training occupations has declined - in 1975, 61% of female trainees were to be found in only ten training occupations - the high concentration of male trainees in the most popular training occupations is significantly lower at 38%. Every thirteenth female trainee in the dual system is presently being trained as a doctor's assistant, every fifteenth as a retail trade clerk or hairdresser, every sixteenth as an office clerk or industrial clerk and every nineteenth as a dentist's assistant. Male and female trainees do not share a single common training occupation among the six most popular occupations (Federal Ministry of Education and Science 1993, p. 54).

On the basis of this highly pronounced sex-specific segregation it is quite legitimate to speak of female and male occupations. In academic discussions female and male occupations respectively are defined as those occupations where less than 20% of the other sex is represented.

At present 37.5%, i.e. 226 000 young women, are training in an occupation in which over four-fifths of the trainees are female. In 1977, the percentage was 47.1% (Table 4). This decline stems from the fact that far fewer women are training to become a hairdresser or a shop assistant and not because there has been a corresponding increase in the number of male trainees in female occupations. The most popular women's occupations include doctor's and dentist's assistant (99.9% women), specialist salesperson in the food sector (98.6% women), lawyer's and notary public's assistant (98.2% women) and hairdresser (94.1% women). When it comes to the commercial and technical fields, occupations in the clothing industry as well as bakers and pastry-makers make up two occupational groups with a relatively high percentage of female trainees (Berufsbildungsstatistik 1991 and the authors' own calculations).

Typical female occupations are often characterized by an accumulation of several factors that put people who have trained in these occupations at a disadvantage. For example, many of these occupations tend to have an over-abundance of new trainees which means that after completing their training an above-average number of them end up unemployed or employed below their level of qualifications (Alex 1993, p.7). Typically female occupations are also characterized by low trainee remuneration. Trainees in the tailoring and dressmaking trades receive the lowest earnings by far. The average earnings of a gentlemen's tailor trainee are DM 255 per month and a dressmaker trainee averages DM 273 per month. At DM 453 per month, trainee payment in the hairdressing trade is also relatively low. "Top earners", however, are trainees in the building trade, which admits women to a restricted number of occupations only. Future masons, carpenters, road builders, plasterers, tile setters, pavers and mosaic setters receive an average of DM 1 235 per month while training (Federal Institute of Vocational Training). Aside from these extremes, there are many other cases where women receive far less pay as trainees than their male counterparts. The comparably high level of school education of young women apparently does not pay off "in cash" when they transfer to vocational training.

Since the 1970s, pilot projects under the motto "young women in male occupations" have been promoted within the framework of educational and political reform movements in order to break up the concentration of women in typically female occupations. The

projects concentrate above all on commercial and technical training occupations which account for more than half of all training places. From the viewpoint of educational policy, the small number of young women in the metalworking and electrical engineering occupations is of central importance, all the more so since these occupations are considered to have a promising future. These are frequently occupations requiring comparably high qualifications and ones which open up a broad spectrum of opportunities in various fields of employment. Trainees in these occupations can generally be sure of obtaining employment befitting their qualifications after they have completed their training.

In the last fifteen years, the number of young women in male- dominated training occupations has risen from 2.5% in 1977 to 8.9% in 1991 (Table 4). Now as in the past, however, the percentage of women in the promising metalworking and electrical engineering occupations remains low at 2.8% and 3.3% respectively. The above-mentioned pilot projects were obviously incapable of altering this situation. The largest increase in the number of women in male-dominated occupations occurred in the craft trades: 30% of this increase alone can be traced to the occupations of gardener, painter/varnisher, pastry-maker, baker and chef. These are occupations in which even men face an above-average threat of unemployment. For example, 5.2% of male painters and varnishers are unemployed while the unemployment rate of their female counterparts is 15.2% (Federal Labour Office 1993a).

In 1977, there were 186 occupations altogether in which less than 20% of the trainees were women. The number has meanwhile dropped to "only" 132 male occupations (Chaberny/Schade 1993). In most cases only a relatively small number of women have managed to gain a foothold in training occupations which were male-dominated in 1977. We find more than 1 000 female trainees in only 14 of a total of 54 occupations (Table 5). Although these occupations entail a high risk of unemployment for young men, in many cases the unemployment rate for women is even higher.

Given the manner in which former male-dominated occupations have become accessible to females, it is increasingly questionable whether this opening-up of the male working

world will really result in new, long-term, sound occupational prospects and a secure future for women. In view of emerging trends, a fundamental improvement in the training situation cannot be attained automatically by merely increasing the number of occupations accessible to women. On the contrary, a real improvement in the long run will depend on whether or not women manage to gain broad access to qualified and future-oriented commercial and technical occupations.

While in some areas, the dividing line between male and female occupations is becoming more deeply rooted, in others it is disappearing or taking on new forms within the employment system. Young women and men are taking up training occupations without limiting themselves solely to traditionally female or male occupations. However, we find female and male trainees in roughly equal numbers in only just under a quarter of all occupations (where women account for 40% to 60% of all trainees; see Table 4). These include in particular the numerically significant training occupations of industrial clerk (59.9% women), bank clerk (53.3%), engineering draughtsman/woman (53.1% women), insurance clerk (44.6 % women) as well as wholesale and retail clerk (41.7%). A study conducted by the Institute for Employment Research, however, also documented sex-specific differences in the above-mentioned occupations. Women clearly opt for shorter courses of training, particularly where related training occupations offer both short and long training courses (e.g. retail clerk and sales person). We also note that girls have a much higher level of education than their male counterparts in the same courses of training. For example, women represented two-thirds of all industrial clerks who had completed more than one year of vocational training within the education system before entering the dual system (Engelbrech 1991, p. 532). Young men are able to make better use of even lower qualifications than their female counterparts when entering the vocational training system. Young women have to invest more in their education in order to remain competitive (Krüger 1991).

2.2.2 Young women in full-time vocational training within the education system

The discussion on vocational training in academic and political circles is often restricted to the dual system of training as conducted in enterprises and vocational schools. This discussion neglects, however, full-time vocational training courses within the education system, which is of great importance to girls. Aside from traditional science's well-known insensitivity to the needs of women, this lack of interest in vocational training outside the dual system can be explained by the great diversity of full-time school-based vocational training courses in the individual Laender and the variety of subjects, areas of specialization, contents and forms of organization, the design and functions of which are frequently varied. Full-time vocational schools include vocational extension schools, higher technical schools, full-time specialized vocational schools, schools specializing in health services, schools providing a pre-vocational year or a basic vocational training year. A typical feature of full-time vocational schooling is the heterogeneity of the final qualifications ranging from general education certificates to entitlement to enter other educational paths (vocational extension schools, higher technical schools) to preparation for an occupation or partial qualifications (pre-vocational year, basic vocational training year, some full-time specialized vocational schools) or to complete vocational qualifications (full-time specialized vocational schools, schools specializing in health services).

Full-time specialized vocational schools constitute the numerically most significant sub-area of full-time vocational schooling, having always had a over-proportionally high concentration of women. The total number of pupils in full-time specialized vocational schools reached its peak in the early 1980s (356 000), then dropped back to the level of the 1970s and was approximately 242 000 in 1991 (BMBW 1993, p. 78). Parallel to this development, the percentage of women declined noticeably: currently, roughly 63% of pupils in full-time specialized vocational schools are girls whereas they accounted for 70% in 1984 (BMBW 1992). One explanation for the high percentage of women in full-time specialized vocational schools is the fact that these schools train above all in traditionally female occupations such as in the fields of home economics, social welfare and health.

In 1989, the situation in the various full-time specialized vocational schools areas was the following: 35.4% of all female pupils in full-time specialized vocational schools completed training leading to vocational qualifications (32.4% outside the scope of the Vocational Training Act or the Crafts Code; 3.0% within the scope of the Vocational Training Act or the Crafts Code). The remaining female pupils underwent basic vocational training - nearly one-third obtained intermediate secondary school qualifications, at the same time over a quarter already fulfilled the requirements of intermediate secondary school qualifications and approximately 7% had qualifications below the level of intermediate secondary school qualifications when beginning and finishing their basic vocational training (see Table 6).

Training outside the scope of the Vocational Training Act and the Crafts Code concentrates on occupations in social welfare and child care (total of 24 253, percentage of women 95.3%) and on office occupations, foreign languages (total of 9 532, percentage of women 79.0%). The various "assistance" occupations (e.g. chemical technical assistant, pharmaceutical assistant) also play a significant role. Full-time specialized vocational schools teaching courses leading to qualifications within the scope of the Vocational Training Act or the Crafts Code have the highest enrolments in courses for future textile process workers (total of 1 588, share of women 96.0%), skilled office workers and assistant office workers (total of 1 198, share of women 71.1%) and home economics occupations (total of 1 091, share of women 99.1%) (Statistisches Bundesamt 1989; authors' calculations).

Mention should also be made of schools specializing in health services with their nearly 90 000 pupils at the end of 1989, approximately 10 000 less than in the year before 1988 (BMBW 1991, p. 51).

The assessment of training given at full-time specialized vocational schools depends to a great extent on the type of school in question and the qualifications pupils can obtain. Schools specializing in health services and at least many of the full-time specialized vocational schools in which training qualifications can be obtained offer high quality training. Other types of full-time specialized vocational schools (see Table 6) have a

major weakness in that they do not provide their pupils with official qualifications for an occupation; they can be regarded as merely a preliminary stage for another vocational training course. This does not apply to full-time specialized vocational schools leading to intermediate secondary school qualifications, i.e. those that impart general educational qualifications.

As is the case among women training under the dual system in enterprises, young women attending full-time specialized vocational schools concentrate on only a few training occupations, and these differ significantly from those chosen by their fellow male pupils. An extra degree of discrimination against women can be seen in the fact that no trainee remuneration is paid at these schools where young women are in the majority (an exception are the schools specialized in health services), and that the qualifications acquired at these schools often have a lower market value (Krüger 1991). Moreover, cutbacks in pupil allowances as guaranteed in the Federal Law on Education and Training Promotion have meant that the majority of young women attending these schools have to depend solely on their parents for financial support once again.

II Girls choosing an occupation in the charged arena of structural discrimination, roles assigned to them by society and their personal interests

1 Is it merely a question of a "wrong" choice of occupation? Theoretical approaches and empirical findings concerning the sex-specific training and labour markets

Our analysis of the training market situation has shown that clear differences in the conditions under which young women and men take up vocational training are a result of a sex-specific segmentation of the training markets. According to sociological studies, the choice of an occupation and first employment have far-reaching effects on the course of a person's career (Blossfeld 1985). The causes of this segmentation are of central importance when analysing the counselling needs of girls and young women choosing an occupation. On the one hand, we can assume that patterns of socially determined career choices are being reproduced, on the other hand, there are indications that male and female workers are employed in different ways and in separate sub-labour markets on the basis of enterprises' prejudices and justified expectations. There are several patterns of interpretation of the sex-specific training market in relevant academic discussions, which we will examine for their applicability.

The human capital approach provides one explanation for the existence of sex-specific training and labour markets. With reference to the classic labour market model, which presupposes perfect competition among workers and a free exchange of jobs according to rational economic decisions and perfect mobility, the human capital approach still relies on the premises of "homogeneity" and "flexibility" of labour offered on the labour market, but supplements these premises with "human capital investments" made by the workers themselves. This was an attempt to attribute unequal income structures to workers' differing productivity levels, which in turn depend on what workers have invested in qualifications and education. According to this approach, sex-specific differences in income result from women's low level of investment in education and their interrupted working careers. This approach suffers from a severe shortcoming because it fails to clarify why the salaries of men and women differ even when they have made the

same investments in training. In view of the harmonization of training qualifications, patterns of interpretation based on female labour's "deficits" are increasingly losing their applicability in explaining sex-specific differences in remuneration.

The concept developed by Lapp to explain the sex-specific training and labour market segmentation (Lapp 1982) builds upon the model of a "segmented labour market" (Mendius/Sengenberger 1976). The segmentation approach was originally developed to analyze the employment problems of disadvantaged groups of the population as well as the institutional solidification of labour market structures. This approach also showed promise as a means of explaining sex-specific training and labour markets. These reflections are based on the observed division of the labour market into two more or less clearly separated sub-labour markets.

The primary labour market segment is marked by stable jobs which are relatively unaffected by employment fluctuations and have good qualification and career prospects. This labour market segment is also characterized by long-term employment with a single enterprise. The secondary labour market segment, however, is marked by a high level of job insecurity, few qualification and career prospects and high employment fluctuations, depending on cyclical trends. The strict separation between sub-labour markets constitutes an essential aspect of the segmentation. In accordance with economic considerations, enterprises' personnel policies in the secondary segment are characterized by the use of employment groups which comply with the demand that the labour reserve can be employed flexibly. In the relevant literature we will find a number of reasons why women seem to be particularly well-suited to these jobs because of the specific circumstances of their lives.

According to this segmented labour market model, the high concentration of women in a limited number of economic sectors and occupational groups cannot be attributed so much to their choice of occupation as to the specific structure of the demand for labour. This structure is founded on enterprises' expectations with regard to differing utilization of human capital on the basis of sex. Since it is assumed that women will in many cases interrupt or end their employment because of their role in the family, women constitute -

from an economic point of view - a special "risk group". Therefore, enterprises attempt to minimize their training investments in young women.

One might counter these sex-specific investment practices by arguing that male workers also pose a certain investment risk because employers do not profit if they change enterprises once they have completed their vocational training. Moreover, women's employment behaviour has stabilized in recent years. Employment interruptions are becoming less frequent, they are postponed and are shorter overall. This makes the utilization of human resources a more predictable factor for enterprises.

In addition, the segmentation approach is criticized in literature on the grounds that empirical validations of this model are largely restricted to industrial enterprises. Up to now, these analyses have in particular neglected the service sector, which has always been of importance to women, offering them in many cases qualified employment (Gottschall/Müller 1986). The approach of utilizing female labour in the sense of having a flexibly employable labour reserve on the basis of sex-specific division of labour is largely undisputed. Applying this general principle of how society functions, attempts were made to derive data on the opportunities available to women on the training and labour markets in individual sectors and enterprises. This proved to be an explanatory approach of limited use (Schiermsmann 1987).

The historically-based studies on women's employment conducted by Willms-Herget (1985) led to a differentiation of this model. These studies also list various strategies practised by enterprises to reduce the "risk" when employing female labour, and which lead in the final analysis to a clear sex-specific segmentation of employment. The historical approach reveals, however, that the feasibility of these strategies differs and is subject to changes within the contemporary and cultural context according to sector and occupation, technical equipment and work organization as well as different wage levels.

Conversely, according to theoretical socialization approaches, young women's strongly internalized feelings of responsibility towards future family duties promote an orientation towards occupations which are more easily compatible with family life. These are, for

example, occupations in which part-time employment dominates or where interruptions in employment have only a minor influence on career development. These are conditions which according to investigations by Engelbrech (1987) can be found especially in typically female occupations requiring a low level of qualifications (e.g. shop assistant, cleaner). The findings of the project entitled "Girls and occupational choices" by Lemmermöhle-Thüsing (1990) show that girls' awareness that they will later be expected to make occupation and family compatible determines to a great extent their choice of occupation. This explains why girls, despite their high occupational motivation, are willing to accept part-time work or a temporary interruption in employment.

Beck-Gernsheim/Ostner's theory of "female work capability" constitutes another theoretical socialization approach developed in the 1970s to explain sex-specific training and labour market structures. The basic idea of this approach is to define housework and the pursuit of a career as two separate but nevertheless complementary forms of work needed by society. Because duties in the household and family are assigned to the female sex, women develop certain dispositions relating to the circumstances of their lives. These attitudes have their roots in the sex-specific socialization processes originating from the division of labour between men and women. The situation of girls when choosing an occupation is thus to a certain degree to be considered as a compromise between their abilities and orientations towards reproduction work in relation to the family, on the one hand, and the demands and requirements of the work in the occupation on the other. This means they try to choose an occupation which allows them to the greatest degree possible to pursue the interests and aspects of "female culture" (i.e. to be people-oriented, to be loving and caring, to be well dressed and well made-up, etc.) and become teachers, kindergarten teachers, nurses, hairdressers, etc. (Beck-Gernsheim 1976, p. 77). Thus, according to Beck-Gernsheim, women's historically-based duties in the household and family lead to a life-long internalization of traditional female attitudes and patterns of behaviour. These patterns translate into the typical female orientations which women take with them when entering working life. Enterprises, for their part, use these reproduction-related, sensorimotor and social skills and abilities to make profits (since they come free of charge).

This approach addresses the weaknesses of the previous explanatory models by analysing the discrimination against women with reference to all the work performed in developed industrialized nations, and thus goes beyond the scope of the labour market, the occupation system and wage-labour (Gottschall 1990, p. 42). Nevertheless, this approach remains controversial in social science circles. Criticism does not centre on the application of this concept to typical occupational fields of work such as nursing. The weaknesses of this approach lie above all in its universalization. Investigations on the development of women's industrial work have shown (Willms-Herget 1985) that it has neither been possible to establish *at all times*, i.e. in the general historical context, a concurrence of enterprises' personnel strategies with so-called "female work capability", nor has it been possible to reduce the whole spectrum of female employment to the contents of "female work capability" (Gottschall 1990, p. 45). Neither the necessary physical strength nor the proximity to reproduction work is a sufficient criterion for delineating the fields of work for women in industry. Moreover, there are many occupations and sectors which have been given a different sex-specific classification in the course of the last century, the most well-known example being the occupation of secretary.

In addition, the results of an investigation of the Institute for Employment Research have shown that men, when assessing their own occupational activities, emphasize more often than women that they are better suited for their work because of their sex. Even in occupations such as those of the goods trader or bank and insurance clerks where an equal percentage of men and women are employed, men emphasize occupational segregation more frequently than women. Interviewees' background and experience also play a major role in their assessment of sex-specific work capability. Gainfully employed women more frequently regard the activities they are asked to assess as "equally suited to men and women" than women who are not gainfully employed. The same holds true for younger women compared with older women or highly qualified women compared with less qualified women. (Engelbrech 1991, p. 535).

More recent studies on attitudes to occupational values have corroborated these theoretical socialization approaches and document young women's preferences for occupations with

social aspects. According to a survey carried out by the Institute for Employment Research on the training and occupational prospects of young people, 43% of the girls but only 24% of the boys questioned at the end of the ninth grade attached importance "to having jobs involving contact with people"; 41% of the girls compared to 25% of the boys would like to carry out an occupation where they "can help other people" (Saterdag/Stegmann 1980, p. 103). 17% of the parents questioned regarded the "social orientation" of an occupation as important for their daughters, whereas only 8% of the parents considered it to be important for their sons. Parents generally thought that the social orientation of an occupation did not play an overly important role.

Recent studies have also shown that young men and women clearly have differing demands when it comes to training and occupations. Young men consider criteria such as "high income", "job security", "ability to pursue a career and feed my family" to be of greater importance than their female counterparts. Conversely, young women tend to rely more heavily on social orientation when choosing an occupation (Heye/Borchers/Heuwinkel 1990; Schweikert 1989).

By comparing trainees' original choices of training with the vocational training they actually received, arguments which focus on young women's "choice of training" when transferring from school to vocational training as the source of their difficulties can be seen in a different light. What is more, empirical studies indicate the existence of sex-specific access restrictions. This means that women will more often have to take up an occupation which corresponds neither to what they had envisioned nor to their aptitudes and interests. Of all the young people leaving school in 1977 who started and successfully completed training in the dual system, 51% of the young women compared to 38% of the young men learned an occupation which did not comply with their original choice.

It is of course possible, based on the experience they gained in training, that the young people later came to identify with their acquired alternative occupation. The results of the survey show, however, that only 33% of the young people who trained in an alternative occupation would choose this occupation again, compared to /5% of those

who trained in the occupation of their original choice (Schober 1985b, pp. 161 ff). A study carried out by Westhoff (1990) shows that sex-specific differences between the occupation envisioned and the actual vocational training received have hardly changed in recent years: 54% of young women and 34% of young men train in an occupation which does not correspond with the occupation of their original choice.

Altogether, the above-mentioned approaches clearly show that model theoretical observations of the sex-specific training and labour markets are capable of shedding light on some aspects in certain historical contexts with respect to certain occupational fields. It is necessary, however, to link theoretical socialization and labour market approaches and apply them to the present situation of young women choosing an occupation.

The above-mentioned empirical studies indicate that the differences between young women and men starting vocational training as well as the high concentration of women in very few training occupations result directly from women's less-favourable prospects on the labour market. At the same time it is important not to overrate the significance of vocational counselling work in improving training market prospects; no matter how good a didactic occupational orientation concept may be, it will do nothing to alter the sex-specific training market (Lemmermöhle-Thüsing 1990). On the other hand, socially determined modes of behaviour also influence choice of occupation, as has been shown in empirical studies on the value young people attach to occupations.

2 Starting points for vocational counselling for girls and young women which take into account the specifically female process of choosing an occupation

The previously described explanatory approaches to the sex-specific training and labour markets have clarified two things with respect to the causes of sex-specific choices of occupation: on the one hand, the choice of an occupation is a social process which is influenced and structured by society; on the other hand, social norms are always linked to subjective interpretation and formation. Accordingly, the process of choosing an occupation is neither exclusively determined by society nor is it solely influenced by the individual's autonomous actions and rational choices based on personal competencies, inclinations and resources. There is, rather, a clear interdependence of societal and personal factors in the process of choosing an occupation, as Kohli's theoretical approach shows. Because of its dynamic character, he describes this process as an "occupational career". An occupational career is a product of the existing society because it takes form in and aims to conform with the social conditions surrounding it. The individual contributes to the reproduction or restructuring of these conditions by personally interpreting the occupationally relevant experiences he has gained and deciding among various possible goals and paths (Kohli 1975, p. 132).

The existing relationship between the sexes in society provides the pre-determined framework within which girls choose an occupation. Since the employment system defines a "normal employee" as one who is continuously employed and free from family duties, the deviation of women's life patterns from those of men has far-reaching consequences for the position of women in working life. As mentioned above, young women and young men already tend to take different paths in initial vocational training because both the training and the labour markets are on the whole structured according to sex-specific criteria.

A limiting effect on the spectrum of occupational choices can also be brought about through the "daily life theories" of persons influencing the process of choosing an occupation, such as parents, friends, vocational counsellors and teachers, which assign certain abilities and aptitudes to women and men according to sexual stereotypes. The

media also play an important role in spreading and reinforcing gender stereotypes.

Boys and girls do not differ greatly with respect to their occupational and family attitudes. The main difference between the two is that only girls have to give thought to reconciling both realms of their lives. Unlike boys, girls are not only faced with different alternatives and varying degrees of feasibility when choosing an occupation. They are also confronted with sexual stereotypes as well as contradictory behavioural expectations and discriminatory exclusion. In this respect, the choice of an occupation places higher demands on young women. In addition to the "original" tasks of occupational choice, young women have to deal with sex-specific demands and discrimination, and interpret them individually with a view to their applicability. They have to make their "occupational choice" by accepting or rejecting sexual stereotypes and restrictions. Most young women may not be fully aware of the complexity of these difficulties.

Vocational counselling has to concentrate mainly on helping young women and others to become aware of and to overcome attitudes based on prejudices as well as the constraints on occupational and working life. Many women virtually accept these attitudes and constraints as a fait accompli. Thus a counselling concept is needed which starts out from rather than denies the different situations of girls and boys when choosing an occupation.

At first glance the counselling concepts available seem to be sexually neutral since they are intended for both girls and boys. Many concepts simplify, however, the complexity of the process of choosing an occupation; they neglect the overall influence of factors such as sex-specific socialization, training and labour markets' sex-specific expectations and the sex-specific division of labour. In view of the sex-specific discrimination linked with these factors, the above-mentioned situation entails adverse consequences especially for girls, as we will show in the following sections.

III How vocational counselling is utilized

Article 12 of the Basic Law guarantees individuals' freedom to select the occupation of their choice. It is debatable whether there are limits to making use of this right since individuals are inadequately prepared to take advantage of this freedom because they can neither make sufficient use of their opportunities nor can they correctly assess the risks involved (Nieder 1981, p. 9 f.). It is all the more debatable because coming to terms with the choice of an occupation is hindered by increasingly complex educational and training paths, changes in the structure of occupations and employment opportunities as well as new values in society. Various forms of vocational guidance in various societal contexts have been designed to help individuals make the right decision when choosing an occupation.

Counselling is understood to be a process of social interaction between those seeking and those offering advice (Gabriel 1975, p. 264). In contrast to everyday "guidance" by friends and family, this term refers to counselling within an institutional framework, carried out by professional counsellors trained for this purpose. The aim of counselling is to help individuals to cope more effectively with current and future problems by helping them to help themselves (see Rogers 1972).

Educational guidance is the subdivision of counselling within the education system. It is supposed to provide orientation and decision-making assistance to those pursuing specific educational goals.

The German Council for Education declared in 1970 that educational guidance constitutes an essential element of the education system and that it has to address all individuals in the educational process. Educational guidance thus covers personal psychological counselling, guidance in school, studies and training courses as well as counselling for teachers and parents. Accordingly, educational guidance is directed at all pupils with the aim of making the education system more transparent for them and as a way of helping them make decisions. It also addresses other relevant persons and organizations to support them in their roles as counsellors (Rosemann 1975, p. 355).

Despite uniform goals, educational guidance differs greatly in the individual federal Laender because of their autonomy in cultural and educational matters. Since it is difficult for schools to provide all the relevant information on occupations and working life that pupils need to make their choice of occupation, it was only logical that educational and vocational counselling should be separated. Nevertheless, cooperation remains necessary because of interdependencies which mark educational and vocational counselling (Sections III.1.2.1 and III.2.1).

In the following sections we will deal in detail with vocational counselling currently on offer and how it is being used by young women. We will focus on the vocational counselling services provided by the labour offices of the Federal Labour Office (Section III.1). The Federal Labour Office has the exclusive right to provide personal vocational counselling and training placement (Article 4 of the Labour Promotion Law) and so provides the most extensive offer as a quasi governmental form of counselling.

Other institutions also provide counselling. They concentrate less on personal vocational counselling, giving their clients information and general, not exclusively occupation-related counselling.

In Section III.2 we will deal with counselling provided by schools, institutions of higher education and other organizations; we will also look at "counselling" by family and friends. In Section III.3 these offers and the counselling provided by the Federal Labour Office will be examined to ascertain the extent to which the individual target groups make use of them.

1 Vocational guidance conducted by the Federal Labour Office, taking particular account of the needs of women

1.1 Foundations and structure of the division of labour in vocational guidance

Seen from the viewpoint of society as a whole, **vocational guidance** is an institution which, as an instrument of labour market and social policies, should mediate between the education and employment systems and accompany and support individuals during their transition from school to employment. The exact contents and conditions of this counselling are laid out in the **Labour Promotion Law** of 1969 (Federal Labour Office, 1993b). The Labour Promotion Law calls for vocational guidance to be offered at a personal level to help individuals choose an occupation and it should mediate between the education and employment systems at the overall level of society (see Article 1 of the Labour Promotion Law). It also stipulates that the Federal Labour Office alone is responsible for personal vocational counselling and job and training placement (Article 4 of the Labour Promotion Law). More concrete provisions on vocational guidance that go beyond the stipulations of the Labour Promotion Law can be found in the Vocational Guidance Guidelines (Richtlinien der Berufsberatung, Federal Labour Office 1969) and in the Provisional Specialized Instructions on Vocational Guidance (Vorläufige Fachliche Anweisungen für die Berufsberatung, Federal Labour Office 1993c).

Article 25(1) of the Labour Promotion Law gives the following definition of the term **vocational guidance** as used by the Federal Labour Office: "Vocational guidance in the sense of this law consists of providing advice and information on the choice and change of occupation. Guidance is supplemented by detailed information on the relevant occupation, information on the promotion of vocational education and training in individual cases and placement in vocational training centres." Article 26(1) of the Labour Promotion Law concretely defines the task of the Federal Labour Office in this respect: "The Federal Labour Office has the task of advising young people and adults before they start and during their active working life in all questions concerning their choice of occupation (Article 25) and their occupational career. In doing so, it has to take due consideration of the current state and development of occupations and the labour

market. The Federal Labour Office is to place social needs above the interests of individual economic sectors and occupations."

The principles of vocational guidance are outlined in Article 27 of the Labour Promotion Law. "Vocational guidance is to take account of the physical and mental qualities, the personal traits, inclinations and personal circumstances of those seeking advice." As late as the 1960s vocational guidance (according to the then valid law on job placement and unemployment insurance, the forerunner law to the Labour Promotion Law) was still based on the idea of helping the individual arrive at a once-in-a-lifetime decision on which training he should take. Nowadays choosing an occupation and the vocational counselling that goes with it are seen as a **continuous process** extending over a good part of an individual's school life and continuing into adult life. Article 26(3) of the Labour Promotion Law takes account of this view when it emphasizes that the Federal Labour Office will counsel those seeking advice even after they have started training. Paragraph A.I.2 of the Guidelines on Vocational Guidance echoes this attitude when it stipulates that extensive vocational counselling should cover all stages of the process of choosing an occupation (from initial occupational orientation up to the choice of training, continuing training, or a change of occupation) (Federal Labour Office 1969).

The concept of vocational guidance offered by the Federal Labour Office is based on the principle of **helping people to help themselves**. It is not the aim of a counsellor or counselling to make decisions for the persons concerned. Rather, counselling should enable them to make decisions for themselves (Federal Labour Office 1969, A.II.7; see Section III.1.2.2). "Vocational counselling is intended above all to strengthen the ability of young people to arrive at a decision when faced with various occupational opportunities." The aim is to support them in developing prospects in their lives (Lange/Neuser 1985a. p. 234).

Before going into the individual areas of vocational counselling duties within the Federal Labour Office, we will deal briefly with the structural organization in the offices. Vocational guidance together with job placement constitute one single department in the regional (Laender) labour offices while in the individual labour offices vocational

guidance is one of four separate departments. As a rule there are the following **four types of vocational guidance positions** at the execution level:

- General vocational counsellor for secondary stage I;
- Counsellors for holders of university entrance qualifications and students at institutions of higher education;
- Counsellors for people with a disability;
- Counsellors for people with a disability who either hold university entrance qualifications or are enrolled at institutions of higher education (see also Schröder 1989, p. 98).

Since 1990 **commissioners for the interests of women** have been working in all specialized departments of the labour offices (Federal Labour Office 1990, Runderlass 100). This is a full-time position at Laender level. At local labour offices, the job placement, employment advisory service, vocational guidance and benefit departments each have one employee who is responsible for looking after the interests of women. Work within the departments has to be delegated in a manner that ensures that the commissioners have time to look after "the needs and interests of women" in addition to their other work. Commissioners for the interests of women employed in vocational guidance are entrusted with the following tasks:

- Continuous observation of the training situation of girls;
- Extension of the range of training opportunities for girls;
- Organization of events (lecture series, exhibitions, etc.) aimed specifically at girls;
- Facilitation of girls' transition at the second threshold;
- Organization of special informational sessions on the subject of "Girls in commercial and technical occupations" in trade and industry, commerce, craft trades, the public service and the liberal professions;
- Cooperation with schools, e.g. in teaching units on subjects related to women;
- Cooperation with other institutions and organizations on relevant activities aimed at promoting women (Federal Labour Office 1990, Runderlass 100).

Upon request, guidance can be provided solely by female counsellors. Details of such events are posted in the vocational counselling departments. (Federal Labour Office 1990, Runderlass 100).

1.2 Areas of vocational counselling duties

Article 25(1) of the Labour Promotion Law distinguishes between four task areas of vocational guidance (see Fig. 1). In the following we will describe three of these areas; the "Promotion of vocational education and training" has been omitted since it is of no particular relevance to the vocational counselling needs of young women (see Deichsel 1992, p. 58).

Figure 1: The different areas of vocational guidance of the Federal Labour Office

Vocational Guidance

Vocational orientation = Information on occupations Art. 31	Vocational counselling Art. 25	Training placement Art. 29	Promotion of vocational education and training Art. 28

Survey/ transparency	Individual-ization/ assessment	Implementation aids

Vocational orientation proceeds from a general introduction by way of questions on occupational fields and prospects to a more specialized discussion on certain occupations.

This is then intensified in personal vocational guidance sessions. The counselling responsibilities of the Labour Office do not end with finding a training position for a client. Efforts are made to offer ongoing counselling as well, e.g. when clients need to take new decisions related to their jobs or careers, training or continuing training. Vocational guidance should take a chronological form if possible in order to support those seeking advice throughout the entire process of choosing an occupation. This type of process-oriented counselling definitely requires cooperation with other bodies, especially with schools and parents (Federal Labour Office 1993c, I.1.3).

1.2.1 Vocational orientation

Vocational orientation is understood to encompass all the means and measures which the Federal Labour Office has at its disposal to inform its clients about questions concerning choice of occupation, occupations in general, the requirements and prospects of certain occupations, options and promotional programmes for vocational training, and developments in enterprises, administrations and the labour market that are of importance to certain occupations. Vocational orientation is also understood to mean all the facilities of the Labour Office by means of which clients can access information themselves (Article 31, Labour Promotion Law).

Vocational orientation should be seen as a preparative step prior to actual counselling because its main task consists of imparting the knowledge and strategies needed to choose an occupation (Federal Labour Office 1969, B.I.1). Orientation focuses on specific target groups, differentiated as outlined below (Federal Labour Office 1969, B.I.3):

- Secondary stage I pupils,
- Secondary stage II pupils,
- Pupils at vocational schools,
- Students at institutions of higher education,
- Trainees,
- Parents,
- Social workers and other persons who work with young people (see Leinfelder

1987, p. 43).

Women and girls do not constitute a target group of their own in the eyes of the Federal Labour Office, as the above list shows.

There are three different types of vocational orientation: direct group orientation, self-access information facilities, and indirect orientation (Federal Labour Office 1969, B.II.5).

Direct group orientation includes the first and second school sessions which pupils are obliged to attend. It also includes a school talk on the types of schools and the paths of education they lead to, a detailed group information session, parent meetings, talks and films, practice-oriented occupational information as well as public dissemination of information on occupations (Federal Labour Office 1993c, I.1.1-I.1.8).

School sessions are organized group meetings that focus on occupations and careers. They are generally held twice (first and second meeting) for each upper-level class and are intended to address the most pressing matters of concern for young candidates preparing to choose an occupation Federal Labour Office 1993c, I.1.15). The first school session in the form of a normal class generally constitutes the first contact between pupils and the vocational counsellor. The talks on schools and the paths they lead to are held when needed and give pupils an overview of the scholastic opportunities to be gained by switching to a higher-level school (Federal Labour Office 1993c, I.1.21).

The detailed group information targets young people who have not obtained appropriate vocational training; the goal is to maintain their interest in training (Federal Labour Office 1993c, I.1.31).

Parent meetings are intended to inform parents about occupational choices so that they are able to support their children as competent counsellors (Federal Labour Office 1993c, I.1.42).

Occupationally-oriented talks come in a variety of different organizational forms and provide pupils with additional and more specific information. For example, a professional or a skilled worker (trainers and trainees) might report on his/her occupation or training (Federal Labour Office 1993c, I.1.51-53).

All of these measures are intended to provide information about what vocational counselling is available and to disseminate data about occupations. Moreover, they are intended to motivate individuals to utilize additional vocational counselling offers (Federal Labour Office 1993c, I.1.15). Occupational orientation within the framework of talk series usually addresses specific issues and target groups. They often deal with women's issues.

Careers information centres and mobile careers information booths which were set up in 1976, play an important role in conjunction with **self-access informational facilities.** They are visited by about 2.6 million people per year. With information folders, films, audio programmes, slide shows, books and magazines, they are a source of information for individuals and groups. Empirical studies have shown that these media are of great importance to individuals choosing an occupation (Jaide 1981).

The Federal Labour Office provides publications addressing the special needs of such target groups as special school, lower secondary school, intermediate secondary school and grammar school pupils, teachers, parents, and foreigners and their parents. These publications (e.g. "mach's richtig" - "do it right") help orientate and prepare young people to choose an occupation and provide information to those involved in the process of choosing an occupation. Publications as well as occupational and university studies provide information about individual occupations, training programmes and courses of study (e.g. "sheets on careers education").

The pre-counselling self-exploration programme (STEP)is intended to help young people recognize their expectations and abilities so that they are able to prepare themselves to make as independent a choice as possible when it comes to choosing a career (Nieder 1981, p. 61). The more familiar pupils are with these publications, the more they will be

used as a source of information. For this reason attempts are being made to incorporate them more into careers information classes at school (Nieder 1981, p. 69).

In addition to contacts with school and parent representatives, **indirect measures** also include classes to prepare young people to choose an occupation. These classes are a type of pilot project. They are being conducted in a number of federal Laender in conjunction with vocational counselling centres and the schools. Indirect measures are intended to facilitate the cooperation between schools and other important centres involved in the process of young people choosing an occupation. They are meant to publicize and support the efforts being made by these institutions to increase the use made of them (Federal Labour Office 1993c, I.3.11; see Section III.2.1).

1.2.2 Personal vocational guidance

The **goal** of personal vocational guidance is to support young people on a person to person basis so they are able to make an autonomous and well-informed decision about training, studies and a career or occupation. This applies to all phases: before, during and after an individual has chosen an occupation (Federal Labour Office 1993c, Section II.1.1). This counselling takes place by arrangement and might consist of a number of sessions (Federal Labour Office 1993c, Section II, 6.4). In addition to counselling on the premises, individuals may obtain guidance by phone.

A distinction can be made between three basic forms of vocational guidance. The diagnostic angle to determine an individual's aptitudes, inclinations, abilities and interests plays a role in all three types:

1. Informational counselling (consists of providing information about training opportunities, occupational contents and requirements, employment prospects, etc., which serve as a basis to making decisions),

2. Decision-making counselling (focuses on helping individuals become aware of the alternatives involved so they are able to make an informed decision),

3. Implementation counselling (takes place after an individual has decided on an occupation and is happy with his/her choice for the time being; to implement his/her choice, however, an individual might require the Labour Office's assistance in such matters as finding a training site, financial support, training placement, etc.) (Schröder 1989, p. 87-89; Schaefer 1977, p. 29-34).

Depending on the problem at hand, individuals might make use of one, two, or all three types of counselling. Regardless of type of counselling provided, each contains specific elements. This includes gathering information about the young people's situation and plans and determining their aptitudes and inclinations. At the same time, it is the counsellor's job to provide informational assistance, to sketch out alternative vocational paths with the young people and provide them with the assistance they need to realise their vocational goals (Meisel 1978, p. 79).

Young people should be treated as active partners in the counselling process rather than as passive recipients of information. In keeping with this concept, vocational counsellors endeavour to help those seeking advice to choose the occupation which is most appropriate for them as individuals (see Federal Labour Office 1993c, Section II.1.2.1). Thus, vocational guidance promotes the process of choosing an occupation consciously, autonomously and as rationally as possible, without neglecting the emotional dimension (see Federal Labour Office 1993c, Section II.1.2.2). The counselling process strives to achieve the most realistic assessment possible of both the individual's personal qualities (e.g. her/his personal aptitudes) and the objective facts concerning vocational opportunities (see Federal Labour Office 1993c, Section II, 1.2.3).

As shown above (Section III.1.1), choosing an occupation is not a once-in-a-lifetime decision linked with a specific period in life. Thus, vocational counselling addresses the long-term needs of individuals throughout this process which has various stages and involves decisions being taken on education, training and continuing training. Since choosing an occupation is viewed as a continuing process, the tasks of vocational counsellors are becoming more and more diverse. It is often necessary to provide an outline of the entire range of educational opportunities from training to higher education,

regularly taking into account all new educational offers. Consequently, vocational counselling is increasingly taking on the function of career counselling (see Federal Labour Office 1993c, Section II.1.2.5)

Counsellors have to establish a personal rapport with their clients to ensure the success of the counselling process. It is important to create a relationship based on trust where young people can talk openly about their hopes, fears and concrete plans for the future. Counsellors need to adapt to the individual needs of their clientele which is often heterogeneous with respect to age, level of education and development, and personal interests. This aspect is of particular importance when it comes to counselling disadvantaged young people because they often view the process with suspicion and scepticism; they often even reject vocational counselling altogether (Faulstich-Wieland 1985b, p. 227). It is therefore of the upmost importance that counsellors are accepting; taking those seeking advice seriously is a precondition to a successful working relationship in the vocational counselling process. Young people need sufficient time to ask questions. This means that vocational counsellors must keep the amount of time they spend speaking in check. They must alter the conversation methodically, adapting to their clients' personality and situation, and encourage openness and understanding, which are the prerequisites for intensive and cooperative interaction and communication. This form of vocational counselling focuses on diagnostic and prognostic elements which are essential to the discussion, clarification and weighing up of vocational issues (Meisel 1978, p. 75).

1.2.3 Training placement

Training placement includes all professional activities aimed at mediating between supply and demand to achieve occupational **training relationships** (Article 29(1) Labour Promotion Law). As is the case with individual counselling, the Federal Labour Office is solely responsible for this area (Article 4 Labour Promotion Law). Placement only occurs upon the request of the trainee and as commissioned by the enterprise concerned (Federal Labour Office 1993c, III.10.51). The Labour Promotion Law (Article 29(2)) stipulates that only "suitable persons seeking advice will be placed in specialized, healthy

and educationally sound training positions. The personal situation of the perspective trainee and the special circumstances of the vacant training positions must also be taken into consideration" (see also Federal Labour Office 1993c, III.1.12). Training placement has to abide by the rule of bringing together only appropriate trainees and training positions; counsellors have to respect enterprises' wishes concerning trainees and their qualities and vice versa. In view of the severely limited range of occupational opportunities available to girls and young women, the Labour Office plays a central role in the process of their choosing an occupation. It is not merely a matter of locating a sufficient number of training places for girls and young women (Federal Labour Office 1993c, III.1.32 and 33); rather, enterprises have to be encouraged to take on young women for atypical female occupations. Although the labour offices are supposed to see that positions are advertised for both sexes, vocational counsellors report that clearly more places are advertised exclusively for men than for women or for both sexes (see Section IV.2.1).

1.3 Women's image in vocational guidance

Most theories concerning the choice of an occupation deal with the traditional male process of choosing an occupation and the normal male biography; the career is the focus of life and family-related aspects, that is to say, double orientation and harmonization of family and career/occupation are hardly taken into consideration. Consequently, vocational counselling measures and activities which are based on these theories of choosing an occupation are in danger of being either orientated to male life models only or encouraging sexual stereotypes of training and occupations (Leferink 1988, p. 39).

As mentioned above, girls and young women do not represent a separate target group for vocational counselling. Accordingly, no counselling concept has been developed to meet their special needs. However, the relationship between sex and choice of occupation should be taken into consideration during vocational counselling. Corresponding women's issues are only supposed to be dealt with in counselling sessions if they are directly or indirectly broached by the young women themselves. Counselling is supposed to focus on the problems which those seeking advice mention of their own accord, a

situation ascribed to the relatively small amount of time allotted to each counselling session.

Young women should be encouraged in general, however, to widen the spectrum of their occupational choices to include the commercial-technical fields (Federal Labour Office 1993c, Section II, 4.2.3). This does not mean that all young women will be advised to take up a commercial-technical occupation; counsellors would only recommend such training in cases where the girls demonstrated the aptitudes required. Young women who seek vocational counselling with concrete occupational ambitions are only directed towards alternative occupations if their original wishes are impractical, i.e. cannot be realised. Some vocational counsellors react with reserve to young women's proposals concerning commercial-technical training because they anticipate these women will run into trouble at the "second threshold", the transition from training to a job (interview with an expert). These fears are justified by surveys of young women's chances and the risks involved in taking up a commercial-technical occupation; the number of women who remained unemployed after completing training (1984: 14.4%) was significantly higher than the number of men (8.6%) (Stegmann/Kraft 1986, p. 443).

In general, the principle holds that everyone should receive "equal" counselling. Accordingly, women's issues are not an integral part of counsellor training. This means that each counsellor's personal level of involvement has up to now almost exclusively determined the extent to which women's needs are taken into consideration. A revision of the curriculum for counsellor training is currently in the planning stages. A working group for the "Promotion of Women" will collaborate on this revision. The goal is to deal with women's needs in the various units of the course, thus helping counsellors become more sensitive to the issues involved (interview with an expert).

The Federal Labour Office has not introduced very many programmes to address the needs of women in the vocational counselling they provide. It has appointed commissioners for women's interests (Section III.1.1), and developed a special seminar for young women about choosing an occupation. This seminar, which is meant to serve as material for talks, deals with topics such as the sex-specific division of the labour

market and atypical female choices of occupation. There is no information to date showing the extent to which this information has been included in vocational counselling in the field and the degree to which young women are making use of it.

Apart from the approaches directly developed by the Federal Labour Office, regional administrations are planning even more programmes along these lines. For example, the Labour Office in the Land of North Rhine-Westphalia has developed a specialized aid to "extend the occupational prospects of girls and young women" which is now being distributed throughout Germany by the Federal Labour Office (Arbeitskreis der Berufsberatung 1988). This aid consists of model approaches to extend young women's occupational choices with reference to all areas of vocational guidance (see Section IV.2).

2 Supporting the process of choosing an occupation outside the Federal Labour Office, taking sex-specific aspects into consideration

2.1 Schools

Schools must give guidance on vocational issues. This was decided by the Conference of Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs in 1991 and laid down in the "general agreement on cooperation between schools and vocational counsellors" in 1971, and in corresponding agreements between the Federal Labour Office the above-mentioned Conference. The aim of these agreements is to introduce work-related topics into the range of school subjects that are taught and to intensify the cooperation between schools and vocational counsellors.

Preparation for working life classes as an integral part of the school curriculum is the principal path schools take to fulfil this educational task. The subject is taught in lower secondary schools, intermediate secondary schools and meanwhile in grammar schools as well. The generic term "preparation for working life" includes classes on practical subjects and vocational preparation subjects such as lessons on preparing pupils to choose an occupation, technical and textile work, preparation for working life and domestic science, economics, etc. - subjects that help pupils make a decision about what type of work they would like to pursue later on. Since it is the responsibility of the Laender to draft the curriculum for the subject "preparation for working life", relevant regulations were agreed upon with the individual federal Laender. Throughout Germany the common objective in this subject is to teach pupils technical basics and give them insight into socio-economic issues so they are prepared for the world of work and the business world and able to make a qualified choice of occupation. The tasks are distributed in such a way that schools assume the responsibility above all for imparting basic knowledge about the world of work while it is the task of vocational counsellors to concentrate on those areas that prepare the individual to choose an occupation.

School psychologists and guidance teachers are generally responsible for **educational guidance** at school. Their tasks include counselling parents and pupils about the most

suitable type of school for the child, individual psychological counselling, giving guidance to schools and teachers and cooperating with other counselling services (see Schmid-Jörg / Krebsbach-Gnath / Hübner 1981, p. 243; Mönikes 1983, p. 417; Ermert / Friedrich 1990, pp. 21-25 and pp. 45-49).

For the past few years **secondary school stage I** pupils have been given the opportunity of doing **work experience in an enterprise** as part of their preparation for choosing an occupation. This is intended to supplement the traditional vocational preparation classes at school. Work experience allows pupils to get more insight into working life - an aspect they frequently welcome as positive and helpful for their choice of occupation. However, pupils often do not make a conscious decision about where they should do their work experience. They tend to stumble into their later training occupation (Schober /Tessaring 1993, pp. 15 f.). What is more, if they have had a negative experience during their work experience in an enterprise, they often tend to reject the relevant training occupation, even though it might only be one particular experience related to the enterprise or a certain person.

In summary, it can be said that although work experience might be only one element in a systematic accumulation of information on careers and the working world, its importance for gaining direct experience of the world of work should not be underestimated. There is evidence of two types of sex-specific differences when it comes to work experience: firstly, sex plays a role in what work experience a pupil opts for and secondly, male and female pupils are given different tasks during their work experience: While boys more often have the opportunity to assist and observe, girls are asked to perform menial tasks much more frequently. Thus they have far fewer opportunities of doing independent and qualified work under instruction (Beyersdorf 1984, p. 115; Lemmermöhle-Thüsing 1990, p. 177; see Section IV.2.2.).

Grammar schools also offer **vocational orientation** as part of their basic socio-economic and technical education in the secondary school stage I. The way it is incorporated into the curriculum differs considerably from Land to Land, however. Apart from this basic briefing, some federal Laender (Bavaria, Berlin and Bremen) provide systematic

preparation courses for choosing an occupation even in the secondary school stage I (lower secondary) while in most federal Laender this preparation takes place only in the upper secondary school. For a long time it was assumed that holders of university entrance qualifications did not require special assistance in choosing an occupation because of their high level of general education. For this reason the corresponding preparation courses for choosing an occupation were introduced later at grammar schools than in other types of schools (Dibbern, 1983b, p. 438; Bäcker 1988, p. 7f.).

The fact that now as in the past schools still treat girls and boys differently poses a problem when it comes to girls' choosing a cerain job or career. School research findings prove not only that girls are encouraged less to take an interest in the sciences and technical subjects, less attention is also paid to teaching them to become self-confident (see Hamburger Leitstelle für Gleichstellung der Frauen 1989, p. 42 and Krüger 1984, p. 13). This is especially problematic since teachers exercise a strong influence on pupils during their entire schooling. This means that school has a greater influence than vocational guidance if we take only the time factor into consideration (Stark 1975, p. 23). In addition, teachers also carry out counselling functions in helping pupils to choose an occupation (and thus they influence them in this respect as well). Nevertheless, teachers' training and further training include no careers education or subjects related to the world of work or any sex-specific subjects.

2.2 Establishments of higher education

The most important elements of **student counselling** which are based upon recommendations of the Scientific Council are the following:

- Decentrally organized student counselling in the individual faculties. This counselling is provided by university staff and is subject-oriented;

- Psychological and psychotherapeutic counselling of students (provided by various bodies);

- General, centrally organized counselling of students and prospective students covering questions such as preparation for study courses and careers.

Student counselling provides information on the organization, contents and requirements of studies. In addition, it is also supposed to give students support and any assistance they need during their studies. This means that apart from providing counselling on choice of studies and careers, student counsellors pass on information on study conditions and requirements and assist students if they have problems related to their studies or personal problems. Student counselling is available to all students and prospective students; it makes no distinction among other target groups. (Jöhrens / Rausch 1975, pp. 694-701). Commissioners for the interests of women can also be found at establishments of higher education and they often provide counselling. Women's departments and sometimes women' initiatives set up by female students also offer counselling (see Section IV.2.2).

2.3 Family and friends

Although empirical studies assess the degree of influence family and friends have on a young person's choice of occupation differently, they do not question the role of the family and friends in this respect (see Wolf 1985; Beinke 1983; Alt 1985; Hellmann-Stiegler 1986). According to a survey conducted in Konstanz in 1981, two-thirds of the young people interviewed had discussed their choice of occupation with their parents, relatives and friends. The information was found the more helpful the higher the educational level of those giving and seeking advice. This means that pupils from lower social strata are at an additional disadvantage because of the lower competence and information level of their social environment (see Peisert / Bargel 1981, p. 30). As a rule, family and friends are accepted as "advisers" and are welcome to provide assistance.

Parents and relatives serve as important role models when young people choose an occupation. There is, however, a lack of female models for girls since the occupational range of the "mother generation" is more limited compared to that of younger women. This applies to an even greater extent to foreign girls. There are hardly any female role

models. As a rule the status of the mother is below that of the father and, at least in Turkish families, also below that of the eldest son. Generally speaking, it is only accepted that women work when there is a financial emergency within the family, i.e. when it is considered necessary that women help to boost the family income (Boos-Nünning 1990; see Section IV.2).

2.4 Other counselling centres

The limited possibilities of institutional counselling (e.g. it does not reach all young people; mistrust on the part of young people; little influence since the contact lasts for a very limited period of time) are the reason why other organizations also become involved in guidance. Counselling is also provided by e.g. the churches, the municipalities and charitable organizations as well as the Workers' Welfare Organization and the German Equal Representation Welfare Association (Deutsche Paritätische Wohlfahrtsverband). Often these organizations explicitly address certain target groups such as unemployed young people or women re-entering the workforce. They address girls and young women or sub-groups of girls and young women less frequently.

Because the Federal Labour Office enjoys a monopoly, the counselling offers of the above-mentioned institutions are not structured to cover a broader range although, for example, the charitable organizations and organizations run by the churches have appropriate counselling concepts for working with specific target groups. The primary concerns of these counselling centres are the general problems of young people which may also include problems related to them choosing an occupation. Since young people do not expect these centres to help them in very concrete terms with regard to their choice of occupation (such as providing them with a training place), they are not under direct pressure to succeed and thus, they are able to focus their efforts on the young people's personal problems (Faulstich-Wieland 1985, p. 232: see Section IV.2).

The work of the Working Group of German Education Centres can be mentioned as an example here. Various organizations such as the German Trade Union Federation and church institutions offer seminars for lower secondary school pupils and unemployed

young people where they learn in supportive team work how to develop job prospects. The work is intended to help them gain self-confidence and become independent. These seminars apply didactic concepts that take the different situation of girls and boys into account (Burger / Seidenspinner 1979, pp. 46-55).

3. How girls and young women make use of vocational counselling

3.1 The importance of vocational guidance in the process of choosing an occupation

Since the occupation they choose is of decisive importance for young people's futures, any vocational counselling which influences this process plays a vital role. Counselling should not only provide information on training opportunities, it should also give young people insight into their skills and aptitudes. The assistance they are given should enable them to make a responsible and independent choice (see Section III.1.1).

When it comes to girls and young women choosing an occupation, they are seen to make two levels of concessions with regard to their desired occupation. Even before they have lessons at school to prepare them for choosing an occupation, they restrict themselves on the basis of their stereotype perception of what is appropriate for themselves as girls. Later on, once they begin to think consciously about their vocational options, they often adapt their wishes to the training place market and its sex-specific structure.

We need first to examine how girls and young women in the relevant target groups make use of vocational counselling. In a second step we need to clarify whether it is possible to compensate, at least partly, for the restrictions mentioned above.

3.2 Utilization of the services provided by the Federal Labour Office

Vocational counselling is **provided throughout Germany,** i.e. in principle every young person regardless of where he/she lives, whether in a large city or in the country, has the opportunity to receive vocational guidance. In the following section, we will describe the extent to which the various services are made use of.

In the field of **vocational orientation,** the number of **traditional talks at schools** has increased and new **forms of orientation** have been developed for the higher education area and for the secondary school stage II (e.g. vocational counsellors are present at the

schools at certain times and they hold classes on choosing an occupation). Since parts of occupational orientation (e.g. talks at schools) are compulsory for all pupils, pupils make use of them to a very high degree. Talks at schools are of great importance in vocational counselling: firstly, the number of talks held has virtually quadrupled from 1970 to 1990 (from 25 540 to 104 266; see Table 7) and secondly, they are compulsory. Because of the mandatory nature of these talks, which are primarily intended to provide information and make young people aware of the problems involved in choosing an occupation, we can assume that no selective mechanisms have an effect either in favour of girls or to their disadvantage.

If we examine where the greatest increase in the number of school talks has occurred and record this according to school type, we see - analogous to the expansion of education - the biggest increase has been at grammar schools. The number of school talks has increased in other types of schools, too, however, partly for demographic reasons. It has doubled in lower secondary schools and tripled in special, intermediate secondary and full-time specialized vocational schools (see Table 8).

In contrast to the situation at these general school talks where attendance is compulsory, there are clear differences - depending on the focus of the talk - among the individual target groups when it comes to attendance at **lectures on specific occupations.** Unfortunately, official statistics do not provide any relevant data on this. According to the findings of Schweikert / Hüttel (1982, pp. 5-23), we can speak of a sex-specific self-selection, which was apparent at least up to the early 1980s. Girls usually attend lectures on typical women's occupations and boys usually attend lectures on male occupations. This indicates that as early as the vocational orientation phase girls and boys lean towards occupations which are typical for their sex. Schweikert / Meissner arrive at the conclusion that girls and boys select information at a very early stage, which leads to them concentrating on very few occupations later on (Schweikert / Meissner 1984, p. 11). Lectures on the subject "Women in commercial-technical occupations", which are meanwhile held nearly everywhere, is an attempt to counteract this effect.

In 1984, Schweikert and Meissner investigated the extent to which young people made use of Careers Information Centres, taking Berlin as an example. This study also reveals relatively consistent sex-specific features with regard to the structure of audiences at talks. On the whole, more girls than boys attend such lectures (67% compared to 33%). Half of the girls but only 30% of the boys attend more than one lecture. The percentage of pupils from the different types of school also differ: 18% come from lower secondary schools, 45% from intermediate secondary schools, 9% from grammar schools and 23% from comprehensive schools. This means that an overproportional number of intermediate secondary school pupils attend such sessions while grammar school pupils are under-represented. This finding has to qualified, however, because Berlin has a high percentage of pupils attending comprehensive schools who cannot be clearly assigned to a particular type of school of the above categories. Added to this, lectures for grammar school pupils are often held at the universities and not at the Careers Information Centres.

A breakdown according to sex and qualifications shows that 75% of grammar school pupils attending lectures at the Careers Information Centres are female. Accordingly, the proportion of grammar school girls in the audience is much higher than the overall percentage of girls regardless of school-type (67%). The survey also shows that girls gather information about various occupations more frequently than boys, which might be an indication that they expect to meet with more trouble than boys when trying to find a training place. Sex-specific differences in communication and information behaviour might also play a role in this respect, however. Girls take more pains to obtain information as a basis for decision-making.

Sex-specific differences can also be seen in the lectures boys and girls choose to attend at the Careers Information Centres. While occupations such as pre-school teacher, nurse, and children's nurse are on the top of the list for girls, boys most frequently ask about such occupations as police officer, motor mechanic, electrical fitter (Table 9). More boys than girls express the wish to take up on-the-job vocational training under the dual system (57% compared to 43%), whereas girls favour school-based vocational training (Table 10). The authors Saterdag and Stegmann arrive at similar conclusions (1980).

With regard to the use of **publications for vocational orientation**, reference should be made to a study conducted by Saterdag and Stegmann. According to this survey, approximately 70% of the pupils interviewed were familiar with such publications. Broken down according to the type of school, we have the following picture: 82% of girls attending intermediate secondary schools compared to 79% of boys attending this type of school indicated they were familiar with vocational orientation publications. Among lower secondary school pupils, 70% of girls compared to 64% of boys were familiar with them. This means that girls have a slight lead in this respect, at least those attending lower and intermediate secondary schools. The publications they cited most frequently were: Beruf aktuell, STEP, mach's richtig and Blätter zur Berufskunde (Saterdag / Stegmann 1980, p. 72).

Since pupils are free to take advantage of **personal vocational counselling** on a voluntary basis (as different from the compulsory talks at schools), it seems safe to assume that self-selection mechanisms are effective with regard to the use made of and the subject matter of counselling in a similar way as occurs with the sex-specific choice of lectures. For example, those seeking advice tend to be among the more successful pupils and they are more inclined to discuss their personal problems (Lange / Neuser 1985a, p. 243).

There was a distinct increase in the number of persons seeking advice in personal vocational counselling sessions up to the mid-1980s (924 737 in 1970 compared to 1 383 809 in 1984). Since then the number has dropped slightly (1 284 876 in 1991). This trend is mainly the result of demographic developments but it also reflects the more relaxed situation on the training place market. The sharper decline in the number of girls and women seeking advice suggests that with the easing of the situation on the training place market, it is easier for women to find a training place and accordingly their need for counselling has likewise declined. The percentage of women rose from 47.4% in 1970 to 54.7% in 1990 and has dropped since then (49.4% in 1991) (Table 11).

If we examine the qualifications of those seeking advice, we will notice differences among the individual target groups. Both in the case of boys and girls, the percentage of clients with or without a lower secondary school leaving certificate has declined. The

number of girls has dropped more markedly (from 63.9% in 1970 to 35.2% in 1991) than the number of boys (from 66.8% in 1970 to 48.2% in 1991). The percentage of holders of intermediate secondary school leaving certificates among the clients has remained more constant than that of clients with other levels of school qualification. It is, however, still quite high (1970: 28.4% of girls and 23.1% of boys; 1991: 38.3% of girls and 29.2% of boys). The biggest changes can be registered among holders of university entrance qualifications. The percentage of both boys and girls has increased in this group while the number of girls has risen to a greater extent than that of boys. In 1970 the percentage of girls with university entrance qualifications who sought vocational guidance was 7.7% and in 1991 it was 26.5%. The percentage of boys increased from 10.1% in 1970 to 22.3% in 1991 (Tables 12 and 13 and Diagram 1). These differences can be attributed partly to demographic developments although the general **trend towards higher qualifications** and the changed age structure of those seeking advice are also of importance in this regard.

The need for counselling on "school" educational matters, which apart from general education and vocational schools also includes establishments of higher education, has declined slightly among women (310 716 in 1985 and 301 008 in 1991) while it has shown a slight increase among men(220 443 in 1985 and 250 425 in 1991). Broken down according to the desired path of school education or training, both girls and boys have been showing less interest in receiving counselling on full-time vocational schooling. This decline in interest can be attributed among other things to the relaxation on the training place market, which in turn has led to less interest in full-time school vocational training. Although the overall number of those seeking guidance about training at full-time specialized vocational schools has declined (in the case of girls from 92 321 in 1985 to 51 876 in 1991 and in the case of boys from 32 202 to 25 068), the number of girls interested in school-based training is still higher than that of boys (see Section II.2). While the trend to take up higher education was on the rise for many years, since 1989 the number of counselling sessions dealing with university studies has fallen for both men and women. An increase in the popularity of general education schools has been observed, however (in 1985, 125 096 girls and 98 340 boys compared to 173 530 girls and 147 410 boys in 1991) (Table 14).

A survey conducted by Stegmann (1981) on **pupils leaving school with university entrance qualifications** in the year 1976 reveals great differences between boys and girls. While 50% of the girls declared that they had obtained personal counselling and information, only 32% of boys did so. 44% of boys compared to 28% of girls had not been in touch with the Labour Office (Diagram 2). This leads to the assumption that girls with university entrance qualifications have a greater need for information and counselling when choosing an occupation or career than boys holding university entrance qualifications. On the other hand, it might indicate an information and communication trait specific to women which results in them seeking more information and being able to articulate their problems more easily.

With regard to the importance of counselling when choosing an occupation, far fewer girls than boys regarded counselling as "important" (61% compared to 51%) (Diagram 3). This suggests that, on the one hand, girls obtain less assistance from vocational counsellors than their male counterparts and that, on the other hand, they are assisted by others in taking a decision. A more recent study (Infas-Sozialforschung 1993) interviewing students deals with similar questions. In this survey, 29% of women declared that their uncertainty had increased as a result of the information they obtained (men: 19%); and 44% of women felt uncertain because they received contradictory information (men: 33%) (Table 15).

The growing variety of training opportunities means that young people, regardless of the level of their qualifications, are confronted with greater problems in arriving at a decision and that the issues they want to discuss during counselling are **more complex**. Although the situation is becoming more and more difficult, vocational guidance is regarded primarily as a source of information and far less as a place of counselling. Empirical studies show (see Section III.3.3), young people would rather turn to their parents, friends or teachers for support of this kind[3]. Mention has already been made of a study

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[3] The interviewing method is, however, of great importance in this respect: with open questions the influence of parents declines, while parents are cited as the prime contact persons in closed questions (Schober / Tessaring 1993, p. 16)

conducted by Saterdag and Stegmann (1980) with regard to this. In this survey, ninth-grade pupils were asked whether they had discussed what they should do when they left school with anyone and if so, with whom. Only 38% of the boys and 39% of the girls cited vocational counsellors as their contact persons. Thus they represented the least frequently consulted group of contact persons. Pupils discussed their future choice of occupation most frequently with their mothers (89% of the boys and 93% of the girls), fathers (83% of the boys and 81% of the girls) and friends (78% of the boys and 91% of the girls) (see also Kronenwett-Löhrlein 1984, p. 40; Busshoff 1980, pp. 66 f.; Seifert 1982, pp. 14 f.; Klockner / Lohmann 1991, p. 114; Watts 1993, p. 89).

3.3 The use made of vocational counselling services outside the Federal Labour Office

In this section we will examine certain aspects of the way in which vocational counselling services provided by the schools are used and the extent to which young people turn to their parents and friends for assistance when choosing an occupation.

Occupational orientation elements within schools generally tend to reach **all** pupils as was described in Section III.3.2. As a rule, these are compulsory elements of the school syllabus and thus there are no differences in the way males and females make use of them. The same holds true for participation in **work experience in enterprises**; equal numbers of girls and boys do work experience but there are marked differences in the types of workplaces girls and boys choose. Just as applies in their choice of training occupations, girls are more likely to opt for typical women's occupations to do work experience. In addition, girls are more likely to be given menial tasks during work experience whereas boys are more often given the opportunity to work independently and carry out more qualified work (see Section III.2.1.).

Young people often turn to their **parents and friends** for help when choosing an occupation. According to various studies, parents and friends rank very high in the hierarchy of competent contact persons. Depending on the interviewing method used, there are, however, definite discrepancies in the reported degree to which young people

consult their parents. In the following we will refer to the findings of a survey conducted by Saterdag and Stegmann.

Saterdag and Stegmann interviewed ninth-grade pupils in their survey. Parents were cited as being the youngsters' most important contact persons (93% of the girls consulted their mothers, 81% their fathers; 91% of the boys consulted their mothers, 82% their fathers). Then came friends (91% of the girls and 84% of the boys) and teachers (60% of the girls and 59% of the boys). Other contact persons mentioned by about 50% of the interviewees were brothers and sisters, other relatives and acquaintances. Vocational counsellors ranked last on the list (39% of the girls and 38% of the boys referred to them). Differences between the girls' and the boys' behaviour was observed only in the fact that girls far more frequently consult their friends as a source of information and advice (Table 16). Becher et al. (1983) arrived at similar conclusions although in their survey, the pupils indicated that they turned less frequently to their parents and the difference in behaviour between the sexes was greater.

It is also interesting to note the degree to which young people take an interest in occupations carried out by persons in their immediate social environment, i.e. the degree to which occupations are "inherited". Thus, Saterdag and Stegmann asked young people whether they had considered taking up the occupation pursued by their father, mother, sisters or brothers, relatives or friends. There were big differences according to both sex and qualifications. The differences according to qualifications were more pronounced with girls than with boys. Broken down according to target groups, 11% of girls attending lower secondary schools compared to 33% of boys attending the same type of school cited their father's occupation; 24% of girls compared to 5% of boys cited that of their mother; 38% of girls compared to 31% of boys mentioned that of their brother or sister; 30% of girls compared to 31% of boys mentioned that of relatives and 47% of boys compared to 37% of girls that of friends (multiple answers were possible).

The situation was similar among girls attending intermediate secondary schools although a slight shift away from the mother's occupation was recorded (20% of girls compared to 5% of boys) in favour of the father's occupation (14% of girls compared to 30% of

boys).

Girls with university entrance qualifications showed a greater interest in their father's occupation: 18% of girls cited their father's occupation compared to 33% of boys. The occupations of the other persons did not carry so much weight: 20% of girls (compared to 7% of boys) cited their mother's occupation, 34% of girls (compared to 32% of boys) that of their brother or sister; 23% of girls (compared to 29% of boys) that of relatives and 31% of girls (compared to 23% of boys) that of friends. This means that with a higher level of school education, girls attach more importance to their father's occupation than to their mother's (Table 17).

It is an established fact that both boys and girls resort to a high degree to their family and friends for assistance when choosing an occupation. Family and friends often serve as models in this respect - an aspect with negative consequences for girls since their models are frequently to be found in typical women's occupations only. And thus the cycle of sex-specific choice of occupation continues. Moreover, parents as members of an "older" generation are often trapped in thinking along the lines of traditional stereotypes and roles, which hinders girls from taking up atypical occupations for women. Parents from a different cultural background sometimes tend to discourage their daughters from starting any sort of vocational training (see Section IV.2).

IV What girls and young women expect from vocational counselling and approaches to upgrade vocational training for them

Following the description of counselling services and how they are used by girls and young women, the next section will deal with how the persons concerned assess these counselling services (Section IV.1). In a further step, the counselling needs of the individual target groups will be derived from what has been said and we will describe approaches to improve vocational counselling in the interests of girls and young women (Section IV.2).

1 How girls and young women assess vocational guidance

With regard to how young persons assess vocational counselling we would like to refer to a survey conducted by Becher et al. (1983) and mention the following results of a polarity profile: **girls attending lower secondary** and **intermediate secondary schools** see vocational guidance in a more positive light than their male peers. In contrast, **girls attending grammar schools** have a more negative view of counselling than their male counterparts. Their main complaint centres on the (lack of) competence of the counsellors in matters of up-to-date information. Regardless of their level of school education, girls see their choice of occupation as less governed by vocational counsellors than boys. This might of course indicate that girls are more easily influenced than boys (see Table 18).

The study also shows that vocational orientation sessions tend to manifest sex-specific concepts of occupational values rather than that break them down. Girls' awareness that they are free to take up traditional male occupations is rising more slowly than boys's awareness that traditional female jobs are now open to them (10% of girls compared to 21% of boys). It must be noted, however, that before attending such orientation sessions, girls less frequently assume that they are restricted exclusively to sex-specific occupational roles.

Sex-specific differences are also apparent when it comes to **assessing** whether such orientation sessions are **useful** for choosing an occupation later on. 81% of girls attending grammar schools and 75% of boys attending the same type of school declare that such events have not helped them. This relates to the findings that such sessions tend to intensify sex-specific orientations and give grounds for the assumption that the needs of girls and young women are taken into even less account than the needs of young men. Since girls attend orientation sessions more frequently than boys, we assume that they do not question their usefulness beforehand. Another survey with similar questions revealed that 61% of girls attending grammar schools compared to 51% of their male peers regarded counselling as unimportant for their own choice of occupation. (see Diagram 3).

Infas (1993) asked male and female students what matters they required counselling in. At first women appeared to have a greater **need of counselling** in nearly all the mentioned subject areas. The difference was greatest in the question about alternatives to the occupation of their choice (83% of female students needed counselling on this issue compared to 70% of male students). This leads to the assumption that women give more thought to alternative professions/occupations than their male peers. The importance women attach to obtaining information about employment prospects has to be seen in the same context: 61% of female students and 51% of male students indicated they needed counselling in this matter. The same applies to information on occupational fields; 75% of women compared to 68% of men felt the need to be advised on future employment opportunities. There are also sex-specific differences in assessing the chances of being able to work in the occupation of one's choice. According to a survey by Beinke (1993), roughly one-third of girls but nearly 50% of boys believe they might be able to work in the occupation of their choice. Conversely, 14% of girls and 8% of boys consider it less than likely that they will be able to work in the occupation of their choice (see Diagram 4). This shows that girls assess their poorer chances on the labour market realistically.

Girls and boys differ in what they **expect** from counselling, regardless of the type of school they attend. Girls, on the one hand, would like to be informed about training opportunities; on the other hand, they expect to get a deeper insight into their personal inclinations and interests. Compared with girls, boys have less realistic expectations.

They hope to receive a "patent remedy", i.e. that the vocational counsellor will suggest an occupation or make the decision for them (Lange / Becher 1981a, pp. 41-50; Lange / Becher 1981b, pp. 351 f.).

Although girls make use of vocational counselling just as often as boys do, their overall stronger dissatisfaction indicates that they do not always receive the assistance they feel they need.

2 Special vocational counselling needs of girls and young women and approaches to improve counselling

It is very difficult to determine the counselling needs of girls and young women since they constitute no special target group for vocational counselling. Accordingly, there are no appropriate counselling concepts to which vocational counsellors may resort. Within the context of this study, it means that on the one hand we have to determine their counselling needs indirectly on the basis of the girls' and women's situation on the training place and labour markets. On the other hand, we have to rely on the data on the use made of vocational counselling services and their effectiveness.

Mechanisms that *de facto* restrict the occupational choice of girls and young women have already been described (Section II.1). If we proceed from the demand for equality, we will notice that the **special needs** of girls and young women arise at the point where these restricting mechanisms become effective. This means that counselling cannot proceed from the ideal that a "free choice of occupation" is granted and that all groups of persons have equal access to all occupations. Counselling must rather start from the different initial situations of girls and their restricted access to certain career paths, making this the subject of counselling.

More attention must be paid to the special problems girls encounter when choosing an occupation. Vocational counselling cannot change the general social conditions affecting the process of choosing an occupation. It can, however, have an influence on how the individuals concerned interpret these conditions. For this purpose, girls, and not only they, must be made aware of biased attitudes concerning choice of occupation and the economic factors behind them. This means that "vocational guidance... has to develop activities to draw the attention of young women to occupational alternatives. It also means that young women have to be shown how they can break down prejudices which prevent them from giving thought to occupations that do not conform with traditional ideas about who can do what occupation. It is also the duty of vocational guidance consellors to gain the willingness of the responsible persons in enterprises to open training and employment in all occupations to young women (Arbeitskreis der Berufsberatung

1988, p. 4).

All in all, vocational counselling for women has to take account of the general social conditions affecting young women's choice of occupation. These general social conditions include sex-specific socialization, training place and labour markets divided according to sex, and sex-specific division of labour in the private sphere. In the following section we will accordingly describe counselling needs from the viewpoint of girls and young women. Using these as a basis, we will then suggest a few approaches to improve vocational counselling for them.

2.1 Vocational counselling provided by the Federal Labour Office

The following five aspects of counselling in the interests of girls will be addressed as particularly important in connection with vocational guidance provided by the Federal Labour Office.

1. Young people are confronted with **institutional obstacles** when they make use of the vocational guidance service of the Federal Labour Office. The non-committal and uncoordinated nature of the various counselling services poses a problem to girls and boys alike. This applies to the other counselling services at the Federal Labour Office as well. The wide variety of services (occupation orientation, Careers Information Centres, personal counselling) often tends to confuse young people. There is often a lack of information about what exactly is being offered. This aggravates the predicament of the youngsters even more. The services need to be made more transparent and better coordinated. According to Schweikert (1982), occupational orientation needs to be interlinked more efficiently with personal vocational guidance.

   The bureaucratic atmosphere that often prevails also has a negative effect on the counselling climate (Faulstich-Wieland 1985). The young people become wary, often fearing that they are being manipulated into choosing a certain occupation. These institutional obstacles are all the more marked, the lower the educational

level of those seeking advice. A higher level of education is often coupled with higher social skills and thus, a greater ability to react and display more self-confidence in a new situation such as a first visit to a vocational guidance centre (Gabriel 1975, p. 272).

2. **Information on training and employment opportunities** is of major importance for **extending the spectrum of occupational choice.** Methods must be developed in all fields - from occupation orientation to personal vocational counselling to training placement - to break down traditional sex-specific prejudices.

Within the framework of **occupational orientation measures**, this means that it should not simply be taken for granted that girls choose to attend sex-specific vocational talks since this is merely a reflection of the fact that girls limit their own choice of occupation at a very early age. It would be of benefit if this type of sex-specific selection behaviour were discussed during compulsory school counselling sessions. Girls could then be made more aware that their behaviour is based on traditional patterns of choosing an occupation founded on preconceived ideas and sex-specific socialization. This would be a step in the right direction. It is important that parents become more involved (see Section IV.2.2) since girls taking new occupational paths need reinforcement and support.

The needs of girls and young women are similar when it comes to **personal vocational counselling**. It is also indispensable here that they be made aware of sex-specific training and occupational choices. This does not mean that all girls and young women should be channelled into commercial-technical occupations. Alternative choices should be explored with the young women to broaden their interests and increase their motivation to examine a wider range of potential occupations. At the same time, counsellors need to focus realistically on the special problems young women face in these occupations both during and after training. If girls come to counselling with "atypical" occupational goals, they must be given support in their choice of occupation.

In conjunction with **training placement**, enterprises must be made to realise that girls are just as suited to "typically male" training occupations as boys. In the final analysis, the occupational spectrum for girls and young women can only be extended if enterprises become as open-minded as the girls themselves, i.e. they have to be prepared to offer qualified training places and jobs to both men and women (Arbeitskreis der Berufsberatung 1988, p. 134).

Despite the fact that training places advertised by the vocational counselling services may only be restricted to a particular sex for special (justified) reasons, enterprises often still express the wish to have the position filled by a male candidate. This places counsellors in a dilemma. On the one hand, they are only allowed to place suitable candidates in enterprises, i.e. a male candidate if the enterprise requests a male. On the other hand, such requests by enterprises reflect far less the aptitudes of applications than the enterprises' sex-specific prejudices. Nevertheless, it is highly unlikely that enterprises that have explicitly declared their unwillingness to train young women will depart from their normal recruitment patterns following placement of a girl.

Counsellors can attempt beforehand in a detailed discussion to convince employers to train young women. Such arguments can be based on the fact that young women frequently have better examination results than their male peers and that they are highly motivated once they have decided in favour of an occupation which is atypical for girls, not to mention the fact that physical strength is becoming less important at the work place (Arbeitskreis der Berufsberatung 1988, p. 137f).

Furthermore, trainers in enterprises have an important role to play in improving the situation of young women in typically male occupations. These trainers should be better prepared to interact with young women; they need to be made sensitive to the difficulties faced by girls and young women in atypical female occupations.

Pilot projects aimed at opening up commercial-technical training occupations to young women serve as a starting point for formulating the special counselling needs of the **target group which takes in pupils attending lower secondary schools or intermediate secondary schools** (or grammar school pupils waiting to train in an enterprise). This pilot project was launched in 1978 with the goal of increasing the number of girls and young women in these occupations. For most of the participants in the pilot project, the concrete offer of a training place in an enterprise turned out to be a decisive factor in their choosing a commercial-technical occupation since many had not considered training in this area beforehand (see Wolf 1985, p. 15f.).

Girls need to be provided with more than just information concerning commercial-technical occupations; they also need to be shown that concrete training opportunities exist so that they may begin to see they have a future in the occupation of their choice. Parents can do a lot to discourage their daughters from restricting themselves to typically female occupations at an early stage. Extra programmes, e.g. courses to break down girls' reservations with regard to computers can also play an important role. Since all of these measures are directed at broadening the spectrum of occupational choices open to girls and young women, they should be implemented as early as possible (see Beinke 1988, p. 32; Dibbern 1983a, p. 336f. and Chaberny 1992, p. 3105).

These pilot projects only affect certain areas within the commercial-technical field, however. From a purely numerical aspect, we can say that the occupational spectrum for girls has been broadened; nevertheless, the majority of occupations which have been opened up to girls are those with the least promising prospects for the future. A much more comprehensive approach needs to be found. The current debate about girls in commercial-technical occupations conceals the fact that women have to perform both production and reproduction work, duties on the job and in the home. Vocational counsellors need to draw special attention to the problems woman have on the labour market as a result of this "double socialization". Girls need to be made aware of the risks involved in interrupting

problems woman have on the labour market as a result of this "double socialization". Girls need to be made aware of the risks involved in interrupting their career and they need to know that individual and unconventional courses of action exist as alternatives. They should also be given tips on how to minimize these risks should a family-related phase prove to be inevitable. Counsellors need to stress that such interruptions should not take place directly after a young woman has completed her training and that any interruption should be as brief as possible. Young women should be advised to keep in touch with the employing enterprise while they are off work (e.g. fill in when regular staff is on holiday).

Additional **counselling at the second threshold** is advisable to address the needs mentioned above since those seeking advice at this stage are older and the question of starting a family has become more relevant (interview with an expert).

Empirical studies indicate that young women with university entrance qualifications follow traditional sex-specific patterns of choosing an occupation, too (Infas 1993). Girls aspire to university studies less often than boys and they tend to opt for shorter and more practical vocational training courses with limited opportunities for advancement (Diagram 5). Orientation talks should address such decision patterns and heighten girls' awareness of the occupational consequences of such behaviour. "Vocational counselling measures have not broken down the sex-specific differences which often prevent girls from studying to the extent that would be desirable" (Becher et al. 1983, p. 144; see also Dippelhofer-Stiem 1981).

Since the situation of choosing an occupation is much more difficult for **disadvantaged young women** than for girls attending lower secondary schools, intermediate secondary schools or grammar schools, special attention will be paid to the problems faced by this target group and to their problems. Descriptions of "disadvantaged young people" as a group are many and varied, in most cases they relate to the various aspects of their particular social situation. Criteria used to define the sub-groups may be e.g. the lack of school qualifications, learning

disabilities, low learning and performance level, poor motivation, social and family-related problems, ethnic group or nationality. Although there are generally many interdependencies among the characteristics cited, "disadvantaged young people" constitutes a very heterogeneous group with varying counselling needs. For this reason we will differentiate in the following section between **disadvantaged girls** in the traditional sense and **foreign young women.**

According to statistics on vocational schools, the number of girls without a training contract attending vocational schools dropped from roughly 70% in the mid-60s to roughly 60% in the mid-70s. The Master Calculation for Education developed by the Institute for Employment Research indicates that since the mid-70s there has been a gradual decline in the percentage of women among the Not Formally Qualified (NFQ): from 59% in 1975 to 51% in 1988. Recent studies carried out by the Institute for Employment Research and EMNID (Federal Ministry of Education and Science 1991) show only minor discrepancies in the number of unskilled men and women. Although the ratio would appear to be more or less even, closer observation reveals that not all sex-specific discrimination has been combatted. While the Institute for Employment Research's survey indicated that 10% of young men and 14% of young women had no vocational training qualifications, the percentage of **girls who had attended special schools** was much higher than that of their male peers (67% compared to 47%).

Although the vocational integration of disadvantaged young people depends to a great extent on the situation on the labour market and state promotion programmes to support their vocational training, disadvantaged young women's opportunities for integration are clearly more restricted - as the findings of the study showed. This situation may result above all from enterprises' recruitment strategies and limited training opportunities for girls without lower secondary school qualifications. Special vocational training programmes have been drawn up over the last decade with the aim of supporting young people who are not mature enough to start learning an occupation, who have learning disabilities and are poor

performers, who have low motivation or are socially disadvantaged. The programmes try to raise the young people's willingness and ability to engage in training as well as their competency in choosing an occupation. They receive basic occupational knowledge and skills which improve their chances and give them the educational requirements they need for taking up vocational training.

If a young person fails to take up vocational training in spite of this support or seems likely to drop out of a programme already under way, the Federal Labour Office can, in accordance with Article 40c of the Labour Promotion Law, promote vocational training for foreign young people as well as for learning-impaired and socially disadvantaged German trainees. Article 40c provides for two types of measures to aid the vocational integration of disadvantaged trainees: **assistance parallel to training** is designed to help disadvantaged young people within the framework of regular on-the-job training (within the dual system) by providing additional and remedial teaching as well as social and educational supervision so that they are able to complete their vocational training in a recognized training occupation. If a young person is unable to find a position as a trainee despite this assistance, he/she is able to complete socially and pedagogically oriented vocational training in a recognized training occupation in an extra-plant facility.

An obvious discrepancy exists in the under-representation of disadvantaged women in these programmes compared to their much higher proportion among ex-special school pupils who underwent no vocational training. Here we see a lack of approaches for giving disadvantaged girls the promotion they need to secure their futures through vocational training.

The issues of increasing the occupational prospects of **foreign girls** must be viewed in a very different light since many more restrictions hinder them when choosing an occupation. To begin with, foreign boys and girls alike often attain lower school qualifications because of their poorer German language skills. Consequently, they are less likely to be accepted for training in certain occupations.

In keeping with their strong sense of family, families of foreign young people exert a far stronger influence on the life of the children. Patriarchal structures reign in many of the countries from which the foreigners in Germany have migrated which restricts foreign girls far more than foreign boys. Among the heterogeneous group of foreign girls, young Turkish women have the most limitations imposed upon them.

Empirical studies have shown that foreign girls are more at the mercy of their parents' - often unrealistic - plans to return to their home countries because of their weak position within the family (Boos-Nünning 1990). The strong ties to the home country often mean that girls have to abandon any ideas of training. When asked why they did not undergo training, approximately one-third of the surveyed foreign girls cited marriage and pregnancy, 25% the fact that they had to help in their parents' home and one-fifth because the parents were not in favour of them undergoing training. Foreign girls are often forced to give up their training for similar reasons (Schober 1992, p. 9f).

Even when foreign girls are able to take up training and complete it successfully, they have only limited opportunities to take up the occupation of their choice. Weitz (1989) describes that a training occupation is frequently only accepted by the family if it complies with the family's traditional image of women. Other criteria that play a role are the proximity of the training place to the parents' flat and a guarantee that the girls have little contact to men during training. These are restrictions which go far beyond the refusal to allow their daughters to take up occupations that are not typical for women.

It is essential that counsellors giving guidance to foreign girls are aware of their respective socio-cultural background and - from the angle of particular relevance to women - of the norms and attitudes this social background implies. Apart from these aspects, they need to involve the parents to a great degree from a very early stage. Counsellors have to be sensitive to the problems of foreign girls; the

background information they need should be taught in further training programmes. An idea worth considering is whether it would not be more sensible to employ foreign counsellors for this type of vocational guidance.

As mentioned above, the vocational guidance system in Germany has a highly efficient network for disseminating information. While sufficient information provides a basis for making a successful occupational choice, information alone is often not enough. Quite the contrary! Young people often shy away from a flood of information; it erodes their self-confidence and they feel they are not up to making a decision. In general, publications providing information are not directed at any one sex. This means they do not take up the women's special situation on the labour market and consequently, they do not deal with the special needs of women when it comes to information and guidance, (Boos-Nünning et al. 1990 p. 179). The **information material** of the Federal Labour Office needs to be revised in this respect.

3. Not only does the information material of the Federal Labour Office need to be improved, its **didactical concept** for vocational guidance likewise requires critical revision. Empirical studies have shown (see Section III.1.2.2) that women react negatively to counsellors "talking at" them and interpret it as overriding their own wishes; young women want their own ideas and wishes to be taken seriously (see Faulstich-Wieland 1985, p. 229). These findings match those found in other studies according to which young people tend to consult a contact person who is not a counsellor for these matters. On the one hand, "there is no basis for young people having confidence in the counsellors from the outset. On the other hand, young people expect a lot of counselling personnel: they expect counsellors to have a personal interest in them" (Faulstich-Wieland 1985, p. 227). Therefore, girls expect their counsellors to demonstrate **an accepting attitude toward them.** Counsellors need to show a personal commitment towards their clients if they want to establish the basis for successful counselling (see Section III.1.2.2).

As children, boys and girls are quite aware of the sex roles and norms expected of them as boys and girls respectively. If we examine the most important elements of these sex roles, we see that those moulding the female sex role tend to contradict the role expected of them in their occupation and emphasise the qualities of wife and mother. Vocational counsellors have to develop a concept to break down these stereotypes to make it possible for both sexes "to make open and critical decisions on occupations that are free from the constrains of thinking in terms of sexual stereotypes" (Alt 1985, p. 32).

Although vocational counselling can have only a relatively mild influence compared with schools and parents, it must help girls to develop more **self-confidence**, more responsibility for their own actions and a greater ability to assert themselves. A type of on-going guidance would be needed for this. Such support is necessary since girls' lack of confidence in their own abilities is an obstacle to them "in that it increases the low regard that others hold them in" (Faulstich-Wieland 1981, p. 148). Self-confidence is the basic prerequisite for being able to make a free decision about an occupation from the entire range of opportunities available (Krüger 1984, p. 13).

Planning a career and a future present a more difficult problem for girls than for boys since only girls have to try to accommodate both family and work obligations. Such is the division of labour in society. **Group vocational counselling**, which has been on offer for a number of years and is used principally by girls, can be employed very effectively to deal with the interests of women. It is a suitable way of improving guidance. Group counselling gives the members of the group the opportunity to talk to each other to work out solutions together and to give each other mutual support. It is a good forum for dealing with the emotional side of problems. A good starting point in such discussions is the more difficult initial situation of girls in working life (Arbeitskreis der Berufsberatung 1988, p. 128).

4. The high degree of **personalization** and the tendency to psychoanalyse problems associated with choosing an occupation pose problems since the overall social circumstances surrounding the process of choosing an occupation are often pushed into the background. Faulstich-Wieland thus criticizes the fact that "counselling... personalizes and takes a psychoanalytic approach to problems whose main causes can be found in social and educational deficiencies" (Faulstich-Wieland 1981, p. 133). Vocational counsellors must try to make social implications and their influence on occupational wishes and choices transparent and thus structure personal aspects in the overall social context.

5. Since personal counselling at the Federal Labour Office is usually restricted to one to two sessions, it has only a relatively slight influence on the overall process of choosing an occupation. **On-going counselling** would be a desirable alternative, however. This type of counselling could be arranged most easily in close cooperation with the schools, for example. Since the early 1970s, there has been some degree of cooperation with schools; it could be extended with reference to girls' choosing an occupation, however. In any case, occupational orientation in particular should be started much earlier so that young people are able to give thought to their own vocational interests and develop alternative plans from an early age.

   In addition to conducting occupation orientation programmes at schools, vocational counsellors should cooperate more intensively with teachers and parent representatives as well. This cooperation should preferably begin at a much earlier stage - when pupils are in about the sixth or seventh grade (Boos-Nünning et al. 1990, p. 194f.). Despite the fact that vocational guidance is provided throughout Germany, some labour offices are hard to reach, which is why the integration of vocational guidance into the schools is often demanded, e.g. by having days when counsellors are present at schools (see Bogner 1979, p. 182f. among others). It would also be desirable to institutionalize cooperation between vocational counsellors and parent associations, enterprises, etc. - in addition to the cooperation between vocational counsellors and school.

> It should be stressed that "contact is essential between all the institutions and persons involved in vocational orientation and counselling and vocational training ... and that more attempts must be made to develop models of cooperation" (Boos-Nünning et al. 1990, p. 195).

With respect to the above-mentioned five points, **a number of approaches** has also been developed **within the Federal Labour Office** with a view to addressing the counselling needs of girls and young women. **Commissioners for the interests of women** play an important role in this context (see Section III.1.1). This is a particularly important starting point in relation to the duties they are assigned (motivating girls to look at occupational alternatives, initiating information sessions for girls, counselling employers when women are recruited, etc.). Since the commissioners carry out these functions in addition to their original duties, it is becoming increasingly difficult for them to do justice to all that is required of them in the time availab' he extent to which they are able to perform these duties thus varies from office to o.ice, depending on the degree to which the commissioners are relieved of their original tasks. The part-time status of women's interests' responsibilities results in the personal dedication of the commissioners to women's issues having a strong influence on the extent to which they fulfil these duties. Full-time commissioners for women's issues must be employed to build the foundation of on-going work on women's issues (talk with an expert).

The planned counsellor training **curriculum revision** is also a prerequisite of vocational counselling conducted in the interests of women. The aim of this revision is to make future counsellors more sensitive to the specific needs of women. Since counsellors are also subject to "everyday theories" about typically male and female behavioural patterns and attitudes, they require **supervision**.

2.2 Vocational guidance work outside the Federal Labour Office

In the following section, approaches to improve the quality of vocational guidance provided outside the Federal Labour Office will be presented. This also covers the efforts of parents.

1. The hope that general coeducation in **schools** would help to open up equal opportunities to girls has not been justified, as research findings on schooling have indicated. Teachers pay girls far less attention; during their schooling, girls develop less self-confidence than boys. They end up facing a dilemma between the demands made of them at school and what is expected of them in their sex role. Attempts to alter this situation must begin with the teaching staff. Teachers must be made aware during their training and continuing training of the features and consequences of this "hidden curriculum" in educating boys and girls. Only when teachers are made aware that their perception of boys and girls and their behaviour towards them are unconsciously based on specific sexual stereotypes and that they help in this way to reinforce traditional roles and thus the disadvantages connected with them, can possibilities for alternative behaviour in dealing with pupils be developed. This is particularly important because the influence school has on young people's choice of occupation is much stronger than that of vocational guidance workers (Häfeli 1987, p. 30, see Section III.2.1).

Behaviour which is free from stereotype ideas about the sexes would be a step in the right direction. Another improvement would to motivate girls more than in the past to take up **natural science and technical subjects**. Restricting coeducation classes in these subjects for a short period of time might be a possibility worth exploring here. This might set the course - in the quasi preliminary stages - for dismantling traditional patterns of choosing an occupation (Arbeitskreis der Berufsberatung 1988, p.7).

An example of approaches with this objective can be seen in a pilot project in Baden-Württemberg. A further training seminar for teachers on the subject of teachers' behaviour and pupils' choice of occupation has been developed there on the initiative of the commissioners for women's interests in the regional labour office in conjunction with the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs. This seminar aims to make teachers aware of their own attitudes toward the position of men and women in working life and in society, and help them to recognize their responsibility in influencing pupils and developing alternative forms of behaviour.

The objective is to educate girls to develop responsibility for themselves and to promote the development of their personalities (talk with an expert).

Careers education classes in the interests of girls must contain as an integral part the subject of girls in qualified commercial-technical occupations. Since the general vocational guidance talks at schools are compulsory for all pupils whereas occupation orientation talks are not, schools should take organizational precautions to ensure that more pupils attend the latter so as to discourage pupils from attending only those talks dealing with typical occupation for their respective sex. This could be achieved by holding these sessions during normal school hours.

Publication of such events also needs to be improved. It is important that occupation orientation sessions are held at the level of the pupils and that they are not too academic. Even though studies have shown that young people are more informed after they have attended orientation talks, "their level of knowledge, seen overall, is still far too low. Additional measures would be necessary to improve this; they would preferably need to be incorporated in the school curriculum and conducted over a longer period of time" (Becher et al. 1983, p. 182). A concept would have to be developed to achieve this. It would "consciously have to take the side of girls and at the same time give an objective foundation to vocational orientation" (Lemmermöhle-Thüsing 1990, p. 164). This concept would need to pay attention to the respective situations of girls and boys, which are different because of sex-specific division of labour.

Male career biographies should **not** be seen as the norm and female biographies as deficient. In this connection, the starting point should rather be the total sum of all the work society needs to perform, and how it is distributed and evaluated.

In conjunction with **work experience**, schools must be made aware that girls and boys choose work experience according to their sex (see Section III.2.1). Bearing this in mind, orientation should commence very early, at the latest at the beginning of the eighth grade so that neither girls nor boys make a one-sided decision about

where they will do their work experience (Freimuth /Thege 1993, p. 114). Young people should be encouraged to give thought to occupational fields outside their current range of experience. Work experience could then be an attempt to gather information in a field in which a pupil has so far had no direct contact and which might not even have crossed his/her mind as a possible alternative.

As well as drawing attention to sex-specific choices of work experience and sex-specific tasks during work experience, better preparation and follow-up of this exercise is also called for. The enterprises should be visited beforehand so that contact to the enterprise is established. Empirical studies on the work experience of girls indicate that girls frequently have to carry out menial tasks and receive little opportunity to perform independent duties (see Section III.2.1). In cooperation with the enterprises, it would be important to change this situation so that girls are also given more opportunity to perform independent work. At the end of pupils' work experience, the exercise could be supplemented by purposeful media and additional visits to the enterprises in order to improve comparability and see acquired experience in a relative light (see Beinke 1993, p. 202). Positive effects could also be achieved by involving vocational counsellors. They could provide information on the occupation in question and supervise the work experience to a greater extent. In addition, it would be advisable to have vocational counsellors present (on at least two days per month) at schools. Their main tasks should be to provide information on occupations and supportive guidance.

2. The dropout rates among women are still much higher than among men at **establishments of higher education**. This indicates among other things that female students are confronted with greater problems during their studies. They generally have a greater lack of self-confidence than their male peers. They doubt their own abilities more often and consequently have more problems with examinations or even sitting examinations in the first place. Accordingly, it would be advisable to have specific counselling for female students at universities which would support and encourage women. In the meantime,

however, various universities and institutes of higher education have started projects where female counsellors deal exclusively with female students (e.g. the project "women studying engineering" at the Rhineland-Palatinate Institute of Higher Education). In some courses - principally in technical fields - there are also tutorials for women in their first year of studies, e.g. at the Berlin University of Technology (Heller 1975, p. 723). In addition to this counselling, organizational precautions are also essential. Although both male and female students are at an age where they might be starting a family, this fact is usually ignored by the universities when it comes to providing a corresponding infrastructure (e.g. child-care facilities).

3. Precisely because occupational orientation fails to compensate sufficiently with regard to sex-specific choice of occupation, parents must be included in this process. While **parents** have a strong influence when their children are in the process of choosing an occupation, they often have little knowledge about what training opportunities are available. It is essential that concepts be developed to extend parents' work in this area.

The Federal Labour Office has started to improve this situation with its so-called parents seminars. Through these seminars they try to help parents recognize the interests and abilities of their children, and give them information about occupations and the training position market. There are also seminars for the parents of secondary stage II pupils which look at various courses of study and provide information about the qualifications their children require in order to study. It is hoped that these seminars will give parents a basis for stimulating well-informed discussion on the potential future occupations and careers of their children (see Weidt-Klaes /Guckert /Häuser-Landua 1993, p. 2403).

There are also special publications on vocational guidance for parents. Publications for foreigners comprise one central area of these. The general idea of these publications is "to join forces with the young people and their families to find perspectives and solutions. To achieve this aim they must be given new ideas and shown new ways. New organizational forms have to be developed, e.g. family and weekend seminars attended by vocational counsellors. Other didactic concepts should complement or replace the ones commonly used to date; careers education orientation conducted by the schools and vocational counsellors should be complemented by diverse forms of supervision which could be started at an early stage. Vocational guidance methods ... have to be changed. Proposals include ... role playing and the use of film material" (Boos-Nünning et al. 1990, p. 196).

As well as providing parents with information, which is certainly important, parents must be made sensitive to the role stereotypes prevalent in bringing up children.

4. Irrespective of these aspects which involve schools, vocational counselling as conducted by the Federal Labour Office and parents, **enterprises** can also decide on measures to recruit more female junior staff and so make commercial-technical training more attractive to girls. They would need to do more PR work to achieve this aim. They would have to examine their recruitment criteria to see if it places girls at a disadvantage. Empirical findings indicate that girls who have taken up commercial-technical occupations run into particular trouble at the second threshold. Consequently, measures need to be taken to promote the later employment and the careers of female trainees (Stegmann / Kraft 1986).

An example of measures taking place in cooperation with enterprises are the "Technology Days for Girls", the aim of which is to provide girls with information and guidance. On these days individual enterprises give girls information on the training opportunities they can offer them.

The Wuppertaler Kreis, an association that promotes the continuing training of executives, has published material on means to promote female members of staff. Their material is targeted at personnel development departments in small and medium-sized enterprises. It deals with the problems of coping with a family and a career, with extending the spectrum of possible careers for women and with the subject of "women in managerial positions" (talk with experts).

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Annex - Tables

Table 1 Share of female school-leavers in total number of school-leavers according to type of qualifications in the old Länder

Year	Female school-leavers according to completion of mandatory full-time schooling			Female school-leavers with intermediate secondary certificate or relevant qualifications	Female school-leavers with university entrance qualifications
	Total	out of it			
		without lower secondary school certificate	with lower secondary school certificate		
1967	48,9	44,3	50,3	50,5	36,5
1968	48,7	43,6	50,2	50,2	38,1
1969	48,3	43,7	49,9	51,1	38,5
1970	47,9	44,5	49,3	51,6	39,4
1971	47,4	40,0	49,4	51,5	38,0
1972	47,2	41,7	49,4	51,5	36,1
1973	47,1	41,2	49,3	53,0	37,1
1974	46,8	41,2	18,7	53,9	38,8
1975	45,9	40,8	47,4	54,7	39,9
1976	45,6	40,5	47,3	53,7	41,7
1977	45,5	40,1	47,1	54,4	42,8
1978	45,1	39,7	46,8	55,1	44,3
1979	44,8	39,2	46,3	55,4	42,9
1980	44,1	38,1	45,8	55,4	45,4
1981	44,6	36,2	46,6	55,2	46,4
1982	43,7	38,4	45,3	55,0	46,3
1983	43,9	39,1	45,2	54,9	46,4
1984	43,5	39,2	44,5	54,7	46,9
1985	43,7	39,4	44,6	55,0	47,4
1986	43,6	39,7	44,4	53,8	47,4
1987	43,8	39,8	44,6	53,6	47,2
1988	43,3	38,9	44,3	52,3	46,4
1989	43,2	39,9	44,3	52,7	46,0
1990	43,1	38,9	44,2	52,3	46,3
1991	43,0	38,2	44,4	52,1	46,6

Source: Federal Minister of Education and Science (publ.): Grund- und Strukturdaten 1992/93, Bonn 1992, p. 94/95

Table 2: Direct transfer at the "first threshold" according to school-leaving certificate and sex in 1975, 1982 and 1990

a) 1975

Values in percentage absolute	Lower secondary school leaving certificate		Intermediate secondary school leaving certificate		University entrance qualifications		Total	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males*)	Females	Males*)
Apprenticeship training in an enterprise	47.5 98.179	69.2 168.402	37.0 45.694	59.8 61.081	4.2 2.076	3.3 1.933	38.4 145.949	57.1 231.416
Full-time specialized vocational school[1)]	27.7 57.251	11.2 27.164	27.0 33.349	6.5 8.040	2.3 1.163	0.6 331	24.1 91.763	8.8 35.535
BVTY/PY/PP[+]	6.8 13.971	9.2 22.318	3.5 4.287	0.2 238	0.1 33	0.3 165	4.8 18.291	5.6 22.721
Specialized institute	0.08 165	1.1 2.499	0.3 356	1.3 1.317	0.4 209	1.1 633	0.2 730	1.1 4.449
Higher technical school Specialized grammar school	/	/	9.6 11.821	18.0 18.377	/	/	3.1 11.821	4.5 18.377
Specialized institution of higher education	/	/	/	/	2.9 1.430	2.7 1.598	0.4 1.430	0.4 1.598
University	/	/	/	/	69.4 34.680	40.0 23.737	9.1 34.680	5.9 23.737
Military/ Community service	/	0.03 95	/	0.8 852	/	44.7 26.526	/	6.8 27.473
Employment [2)]	10.3 21.356	2.7 6.621	13.5 16.694	8.3 8.474	12.4 6.198	3.1 1.836	11.6 44.248	4.2 16.931
Unemployment	3.2 6.511	1.4 3.483	2.2 2.716	0.5 533	3.2 1.616	1.1 660	2.8 10.843	3.7 14.859
Persons outside the labour force	3.9 7.977	2.1 5.164	3.0 3.732	1.4 1.464	3.7 1.826	2.4 1.418	3.6 13.535	1.9 8.046
Others	0.7 1.451	3.3 8.085	3.9 4.812	1.8 1.813	1.5 755	0.9 556	1.8 7.018	2.6 10.454
Total % (N=...)	100 206.861	100 243.382	100 123.461	100 102.189	100 49.986	100 59.393	100 380.308	100 404.964

/ no transition possible from one institution to the other

1) including schools specializing in health services

2) without military/community service

+ BVTY = Basic vocational training year; PY = Prepararory year; PP = Preparatory programme

*) This table shows the **direct** transitions following attendance at general education schools. Since **males holding university entrance qualifications** generally do military/community service directly after leaving school, the transition rates are below their respective percentage in the individual target boxes (especially apprenticeship training in an enterprise, specialized institution of higher education and university). This also influences the scale of the direct transition rates for **males** "as a whole".

Source: Master calculation for education of the Institute for Employment Research; the authors' calculations

b) 1982

Values in percentage absolute	Lower secondary school leaving certificate		Intermediate secondary school leaving certificate		University entrance qualifications		Total	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males*)	Females	Males*)
Apprenticeship training in an enterprise	37.6 70.698	51.2 125.789	46.8 87.408	58.0 90.589	10.0 9.702	10.1 9.950	35.5 167.808	45.2 226.328
Full-time specialized vocational school[1)]	32.2 60.668	14.7 36.072	31.6 58.926	14.0 21.962	3.8 3.686	0.8 834	26.1 123.280	11.8 58.868
BVTY/PY/PP+	14.8 26.744	22.8 56.210	3.8 7.030	5.4 8.485	0.8 794	0.1 124	7.3 34.568	12.9 64.819
Specialized institute	0.1 229	0.2 390	0.6 1.177	0.9 1.357	1.7 1.646	0.7 716	0.7 3.052	0.5 2.463
Higher technical school Specialized grammar school	/	/	8.1 15.088	16.1 25.231	/	/	3.2 15.088	5.0 25.231
Specialized institution of higher education	/	/	/	/	6.3 6.149	4.2 4.116	1.3 6.149	0.8 4.116
University	/	/	/	/	40.0 38.888	23.6 23.264	8.2 38.888	4.6 23.264
Military/ Community service	/	0.02 56	/	0.3 500	/	53.5 52.802	/	10.7 53.358
Employment [2)]	3.1 5.763	1.8 4.352	5.5 10.239	2.2 3.454	13.2 12.800	2.3 2.220	6.1 28.802	2.0 10.026
Unemployment	10.6 20.033	7.3 17.859	2.3 4.362	1.5 2.331	7.5 7.302	1.7 1.716	6.7 31.697	4.4 21.906
Persons outside the labour force	2.0 3.701	1.2 3.050	0.8 1.504	0.6 911	13.2 12.861	1.4 1.376	3.8 18.066	1.1 5.337
Others	0.4 827	0.8 1.993	0.5 967	1.0 1.514	3.6 3.477	1.5 1.502	1.1 5.271	1.0 5.002
Total % (N=...)	100 188.663	100 245.771	100 186.701	100 156.334	100 97.307	100 98.620	100 472.671	100 500.725

/ no transition possible from one institution to the other

1) including schools specializing in health services

2) without military/community service

\+ BVTY = Basic vocational training year; PY = Preparatory year; PP = Preparatory programme

*) This table shows the **direct** transitions following attendance at general education schools. Since **males holding university entrance qualifications** generally do military/community service directly after leaving school, the transition rates are below their respective percentage in the individual target boxes (especially apprenticeship training in an enterprise, specialized institution of higher education and university). This also influences the scale of the direct transition rates for males "as a whole".

Source: Master calculation for education of the Institute for Employment Research; the authors' calculations

c) **1990**

Values in percentage absolute	Lower secondary school leaving certificate		Intermediate secondary school leaving certificate		University entrance qualifications		Total	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males*)	Females	Males*)
Apprenticeship training in an enterprise	55.8 55.559	61.9 84.306	61.2 74.402	53.3 58.485	17.3 15.484	11.9 10.418	46.8 145.445	45.9 153.209
Full-time specialized vocational school[1)]	20.5 20.441	8.9 12.160	22.5 27.318	18.4 20.194	5.7 5.058	0.9 768	17.0 52.817	9.9 33.122
BVTY/PY/PP+	12.4 12.385	14.4 19.603	4.1 4.967	7.0 7.624	0.1 78	0.1 90	5.1 17.430	8.2 37.317
Specialized institute	0.04 40	0.4 524	0.1 149	0.2 248	0.9 794	0.4 350	0.3 983	0.3 1.122
Higher technical school Specialized grammar school	/	/	5.2 6.302	14.2 15.557	/	/	2.0 6.302	4.7 15.557
Specialized institution of higher education	/	/	/	/	6.2 5.539	18.1 15.873	1.8 5.539	4.8 15.873
University	/	/	/	/	40.0 36.100	3.3 2.919	11.6 36.100	0.9 2.919
Military/ Community service	/	0.2 250	/	0.3 304	/	59.0 51.666	/	15.7 52.220
Employment [2)]	1.2 1.148	2.8 3.854	4.5 5.513	2.2 2.462	14.8 13.254	1.8 1.558	6.4 19.915	2.4 7.874
Unemployment	9.4 9.402	8.9 12.080	1.6 1.943	2.6 2.804	2.4 2.151	0.4 374	4.3 13.496	4.6 15.258
Persons outside the labour force	0.03 31	1.5 2.092	0.04 45	0.5 496	9.3 8.347	1.9 1.700	2.7 8.423	1.3 4.288
Others	0.6 572	1.1 1.449	0.7 897	1.4 1.590	2.9 2.558	2.1 1.816	1.3 4.027	1.5 4.855
Total % (N=...)	100 99.578	100 136.264	100 121.536	100 109.764	100 89.363	100 87.532	100 310.477	100 333.560

/ no transition possible from one institution to the other
1) including schools specializing in health services
2) without military/community service
+ BVTY = Basic vocational training year; PY = Preparatory year; PP = Preparatory programme

*) This table shows the **direct** transitions following attendance at general education schools. Since **males holding university entrance qualifications** generally do military/community service directly after leaving school, the transition rates are below their respective percentage in the individual target boxes (especially apprenticeship training in an enterprise, specialized institution of higher education and university). This also influences the scale of the direct transition rates for males "as a whole".

Source: Master calculation for education of the Institute for Employment Research; the authors' calculations*

Table 3 Development in the percentage of women in the area of dual training

Year	New vocational training contracts (1000)	Number of trainees	
		Total (1000)	Women (%)
1960		**1278.9**	**36.0**
1965		1338.4	36.8
1970		**1268.7**	**35.4**
1975	462.0	1328.9	35.4
1976	495.8	1316.6	36.1
1977	558.4	1397.4	36.5
1987	601.7	1517.3	37.3
1979	640.3	1644.6	37.8
1980	**650.0**	**1715.5**	**38.2**
1981	605.6	1676.9	38.6
1982	631.4	1675.9	39.0
1983	676.7	1722.4	39.3
1984	705.6	1800.1	39.9
1985	697.1	1831.3	40.6
1986	684.7	1805.2	41.3
1987	645.7	1738.7	42.1
1988	604.0	1658.0	43.1
1989	583.7	1552.5	43.1
1990	**545.2**	**1476.9**	**42.6**
1991	532.1	1430.0	42.2
1992	499.9		

Source: Federal Ministry of Education and Science: Berufsbildungsberichte; Grund- und Strukturdaten (various years)

Table 4 Female trainees in selected occupational groups in the old Laender 1977, 1990 und 1991

Group of training occupations[1]	Female trainees					
	Total			Percentage among the total number of female trainees		
	1977	1990	1991	1977	1990	1991
	Number			Percentage		
Male-dominated occupations (0% bis 20% female trainees)	13 000	57 000	54 000	2.5	9.0	8.9
Occupations carried out predominantly by men (20% bis 40% female trainees)	32 000	47 000	46 000	6.3	7.4	7.7
Occupations with a mixed share (40% bis 60% female trainees)	99 000	118 000	119 000	19.4	18.8	19.6
Occupations predominantly carried out by women (60% bis 80% female trainees)	126 000	169 000	159 000	24.7	26.8	26.3
Female-dominated occupations (80% bis 100% female trainees)	240 000	239 000	226 000	47.1	38.0	37.5

1) Groups formed according to the percentage of female trainees in 1977 or later

Source: Federal Ministry of Education and Science, Berufsbildungsbericht, Bonn 1993, p.56

Table 5 Female trainees in formerly male-dominated occupations

Selected training occupations	1977			1991		
	Total no. of trainees	Female trainees	Percentage of women	Total no. of trainees	Female trainees	Percentage of women
All male-dominated occupations (1977 < 20%)	659 398	12 965	2.0	637 466	56 800	8. 9
Livestock farmer	318	40	12.6	150	58	38.7
Gardener	12 411	2 453	19.8	13.249	5.261	39.7
Coloured stone engraver, agate cutter and gem engraver	29	4	13.8	2	1	50.0
Agate, diamond and precious stone cutter	43	1	2.3	27	7	25.9
Ceramic figure maker, industrial ceramic maker	108	15	13.9	172	44	25.6
Glass instrument maker, thermometer maker	171	7	4.1	97	35	36.1
Fluorescent tube glassblower	6			39	16	41.0
Glass processor, glass cutter and glass edger	196	10	5.1	48	16	33.3
Lense grinder, precision optician	298	33	11.1	280	121	43.2
Typesetter	2 297	281	12.2	3 091	1 802	58.3
Platemaker	277	40	14.4	1 873	1 111	59.3
Flexograph./steel roller engraver, stencil cutter etc.	22	3	13.6	15	8	53.3
Wood-turner, ivory cutter	102	4	3.9	49	13	26.5
Brushmaker	61	8	13.1	38	10	26.3
Tin caster	38	2	5.3	6	5	83.3
Engraver	283	39	13.8	177	70	39.5
Metal embosser	83	1	1.2	34	14	41.2
Enamelled lettering artist	7			3	3	100.0
Watch-maker, clock-maker	750	134	17.9	264	104	38.6
Brass fitter and metal printer	117	2	1.7	71	16	22.5
Violin-maker, plucked instrument maker	55	2	3.6	57	12	21.1
Woodwind instrument maker	43	4	9.3	27	6	22.2
Biology model maker	12			2	1	50.0
Textile machine operator- weaving, text. machine operator - band weaving	859	95	11.1	703	163	23.2
Textile machine operator-tufting (1st stage)				36	10	27.8
Textie mechanic - tufting (2nd stage)				9	3	33.3
Textile machine operator - mech. indust. (1st stage)	173	20	11.6	89	21	23.6
Textile decoration maker	23			46	36	78.3
Sail maker (incl. plastics and heavy fabrics)	137	24	17.5	129	39	30.2
Textile finisher - dyeing (2nd stage)	166	1	0.6	124	41	33.1
Textile finisher - finishing/dressing (2nd stage)	63	3	4.8	28	8	28.6
Shoemaker	362	17	4.7	291	59	20.3
Orthopaedic shoemaker	603	13	2.2	684	206	30.1
Footwear finisher	124	10	8,1	145	66	45.5
Saddler	297	4	1.3	246	82	33.3
Fine goods saddler	34	2	5.9	4	1	25.0
Baker	21 190	484	2.3	14 767	3 439	23.3
Patissier	7 289	1 411	19.4	6 161	3 828	62.1
Chef	16 501	2 449	14.8	19 433	5 307	27.3
Food technology assistant	42			565	215	38.1
Confectionary assistant	89	6	6.7	102	50	49.0
Interior designer	3 480	559	16.1	3 687	1 802	48.9
Vehicle upholsterer	92			296	132	44.6
Specialist packer	652	69	10.6	2 280	513	22.5
Road building technician, recultivation operative	40	2	5.0	59	27	45.8
Hydraulics technician	86	10	11.6	70	22	31.4
Mountain surveyor, surveyor	2 449	422	17.2	2 585	1 024	39.6
Techn. math. assistant, thermal stand assistant	8			1 078	504	46.8
Building material, precious metal, substance tester (chemical industry)	173	30	17.3	317	80	25.2
Rail and road transport clerk	58	2	3.4	163	70	42.9
Servicing operative in the postal service	6 431	1052	16.4	6 278	3 079	49.0
Sign and neon sign maker	529	72	13.6	1 173	454	38.7
Restaurant specialist	3 594	488	13.6	6 529	3 785	58.0
Energy supply and waste disposal operative				1 302	266	20.4
Occupations to which women are not admitted	55 922	61	0.1	40 878	207	0.5
Training of the disabled (§ 48 BBiG)				9 144	3 337	36.5
Mixed-/Female occupations	680 880	497 011	73.0	742 723	543 254	73.1
Total	1 396 200	510 037	36.5	1 430 211	603 598	42.2

Source: Chaberny, A. / Schade H.-J.: Frauen dringen nur langsam in die Berufswelt der Männer vor, IAB-Kurzbericht 1993 (authors' own presentation)

Table 6 Female pupils according to full-time specialized vocational school types (without schools specializing in health services)

Type of full-time specialized vocational school	Total (absolute numbers and as a percentage)	Sex	
		Female	Male
Full-time spec. voc. schools providing basic vocational training and leading to intermediate secondary school leaving qualifications	84 522 32.2	53 812 31.6	30. 710 33.4
Full-time spec. voc. schools providing basic vocational training and requiring at least intermediate secondary school leaving qualifications for admittance	73 786 28.1	44 637 26.2	29.149 31.7
Full-time spec. voc. schools providing basic vocational training not requiring intermediate secondary school leaving qualifications for admittance and not leading to intermediate secondary school qualifications	25 082 9.6	11 464 6.7	13 618 14.8
Full-time spec. voc. schools providing vocational qualifications in an occupation other than a recognized training occupation	70 078 26.7	55 241 32.4	14 837 16.1
Full-time spec. voc. schools providing vocational qualifications in a recognized training occupation in accordance with the Vocational Training Act or the Crafts Code respectively	8 738 3.3	5 137 3.0	3 601 3.9
Total	262 206 100	170 291 100	91 915 100

Source: Federal Statistical Office (1991): Berufliche Schulen 1989, Ergänzende Tabellen zur Fachserie 11 Bildung und Kultur, Series 2 - Berufliche Schulen, Wiesbaden; authors' own calculations

Table 7: Talks at schools and parents' meetings

	Talks at schools	Parents' meetings
1970/71	25 540	4 510
1975/76	37 600	5.500
1980/81	79 040	8 966
1985/86	99 523	10 012
1990/91	104 266	9 838
1991/92	102 607	9 700

Source: Federal Labour Office, Berufsberatung (various years)

Table 8: Talks at schools according to type of school

Year *)	Special schools	Lower secondary schools	Intermediate secondary schools	Grammar schools	Compre-hensive schools	Full-time specialized vocational schools
1975/76	2 200	18 600	7 200	5 200	1 900	2 500
1980/81	4 593	27 492	14 648	17 665	4 618	8 770
1985/86	5 256	32 291	20 283	23 407	5 448	5 282
1990/91	6 110	33 623	21 017	23 585	6 634	9 915
1991/92	6 236	32 940	20 514	30 370		9 216

*) No breakdown according to type of school is available for 1970/71; only data on the total number of talks at schools is available

Source: Federal Labour Office, Berufsberatung (various years)

Table 9: Occupations which young people most frequently ask about at the Careers Information Centre

Girls		Position	Boys	
Individual female visitors	Groups		Individual male visitors	Groups
Educator/ Kindergarten teacher	Educator/ Kindergarten teacher	1	Police officer	Motor mechanic
Nurse	Nurse	2	Motor mechanic	Police officer
Children's nurse	Children's nurse	3	Electrical fitter	Electrical fitter
Physiotherapist	Doctor's assistant	4	Customs officer	Radio and TV mechanic
Bank clerk	Hairdresser	5	Radio and TV mechanic	Bank clerk
Doctor's assistant	Bank clerk	6	Bank clerk	Joiner
Flight attendant	Zoo-keeper, Police officer	7	Pilot	Data processing clerk, painter, varnisher, professional driver
Dental technician	Saleswoman	8	Industrial clerk	Electrician
Saleswoman, photographer, mechan.draughts-woman	Stable hand	9	Joiner	Salesman

Source: Schweikert / Meissner 1984, pp. 11-16

Table 10: Training intentions of visitors to the Careers Information Centre

	Female	Male	Total
Grammar school	5%	3%	4%
Basic vocational training year	3%	2%	2%
Course enabling participants to work in a certain occupation	2%	4%	3%
Full-time specialized vocational school	9%	3%	5%
Specialized institute	7%	3%	5%
Higher technical school	5%	4%	4%
Training in an enterprise	43%	57%	50%
Taking on a job directly after school	3%	2%	2%
Study	14%	15%	14%
Miscellaneous	1%	1%	1%
"I do not know"	8%	7%	7%
No details given	1%	1%	2%

The sum is slightly above 100% because of multiple answers.
A total of 1474 persons were interviewed, 739 girls and 697 boys.

Source: Schweikert / Meissner 1984, p. 109

Table 11: Total number of men and women seeking advice and the percentage of women seeking advice in selected years (1970, 1975 and 1980 until 1991)

Year	Women	Men	Percentage of women
1970/71	437 973	486762	47.4
1975/76	522 952	493 728	51.4
1980/81	631.492	546 235	53.7
1981/82	695 433	596 576	53.8
1982/83	731 429	633 022	53.6
1983/84	756 598	635 060	54.4
1984/85	756 344	627 465	54.7
1985/86	753 058	623 880	54.7
1986/87	742 767	628 676	54.2
1987/88	706 510	623 805	53.1
1988/89	669 929	618 893	52.0
1989/90	655 728	639 217	50.6
1990/91	640 989	647 238	49.8
1991/92	634 140	650 736	49.4

Source: Federal Labour Office, Berufsberatung (various years)

Table 12: Breakdown of girls and women seeking advice according to school education, in absolute numbers as a percentage in selected years (1970, 1975, 1980, 1985, 1990 and 1991)

Year (value as a % and absolute	without lower secondary school final certificate)	with lower secondary school final certificate	with intermediate secondary school final certificate	with university entrance qualifications	Total	Female pupils seeking advice*)
1970/71	63.9 279 496		28.4 124 585	7.7 33 892	100 437 973	
1975/76	10.6 42 775	41.12 165 447	36.0 144 969	12.2 49 232	100 402 423	120 529
1980/81	10.5 51 110	33.8 164 470	42.9 208 420	12.8 62 019	100 488 019	143 473
1985/86	10.3 77 733	32.5 244 799	36.7 276 386	20.5 154 140	100 753 058	
1990/91	7.9 50 858	26.6 170 537	39.2 251 195	26.3 168 399	100 640 989	
1991/92	8.2 51 792	27.0 171 230	38.3 242 881	26.5 168 237	100 634 140	

*) Vocational counselling statistics do not indicate the number of pupils seeking advice every year.

Source: Federal Labour Office, Berufsberatung (various years)

Table 13: Breakdown of boys and girls seeking advice according to school education, in absolute numbers and as a percentage in selected years (1970, 1975, 1980, 1985, 1990 and 1991)

Year (value as a % and absolute	without lower secondary school final certificate	with lower secondary school final certificate	with intermediate secondary school final certificate	with university entrance qualifications	Total	Female pupils seeking advice *)
1970/71	66.8 325 857		23.1 112 414	10.1 49 301	100 486 762	
1975/76	18.2 73 325	40.3 162 564	27.6 111 288	13.9 55 947	100 403 124	90 604
1980/81	20.9 93 716	34.7 155 626	31.9 142 937	12.5 56 085	100 448 364	97 871
1985/86	18.4 114 546	36.2 225 914	26.4 164 625	19.0 118 795	100 623 880	
1990/91	13.9 89 954	34.1 220 405	29.2 189 246	22.8 147 633	100 647 238	
1991/92	14.3 92 926	34.2 222 287	29.2 189 579	22.3 145 944	100 650 736	

*) Vocational counselling statistics do not indicate the number of pupils seeking advice every year.

Source: Federal Labour Office, Berufsberatung (various years)

Table 14: Persons seeking advice on attending a certain type of school

	Persons seeking advice	intending to attend the following school				
		General education schools	Basic vocational training year	Full-time specialized vocational school	Other vocational schools	University/ Specialized establishment of higher education
Females						
1985/86	310 716	125 096	16 024	92 321	22 494	54 781
1986/87	331 548	144 163	14 979	88 523	22 845	61 038
1987/88	332 247	153 738	12 086	81 554	21 322	63 547
1988/89	318 235	163 374	8 853	68 580	19 012	58 416
1989/90	308 319	168 122	6 615	59 160	18 241	56 181
1990/91	300 223	169 390	5 535	53 733	17 774	53 791
1991/92	301 008	173 530	5 136	51 876	18 062	52 404
Males						
1985/86	220 443	98 340	18 861	32 202	12 070	58 970
1986/87	247 414	117 603	18 153	33 238	12 841	65 579
1987/88	254 870	125 909	16 459	32 567	12 426	67 509
1988/89	248 856	132 847	12 842	28 858	11 802	62 507
1989/90	248 663	138 255	10 734	25 709	12 781	61 184
1990/91	249 258	142 745	9 774	24 805	13 434	58 500
1991/92	250 425	147 410	9 672	25 068	13 687	54 588

Source: Federal Labour Office, Berufsberatung (various years)

Table 15: Students' assessment of information

	Applicable		Not applicable	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
Uncertainty because of contradictory information	33%	26%	56%	66%
Uncertainty increases with information	18%	12%	71%	81%
Information cannot be fully processed	15%	22%	76%	70%
No particular need for information	24%	26%	63%	61%
Careers information is necessary to draw the relevant conclusions for study	65%	64%	23%	25%
Difficult to distinguish between true and false information	54%	53%	31%	31%
Information does not replace decision-making	89%	88%	6%	7%

There is never a figure of 100% because of indecisiveness.

Source: Infas 1993

Table 16: Persons with whom pupils of the ninth form discuss their choice of an occupation

	Girls	Boys	Total
Father	81%	83%	82%
Mother	93%	89%	91%
Brothers and sisters	52%	47%	50%
Other relatives	54%	52%	53%
Friends	91%	78%	84%
Acquaintances	57%	51%	54%
Teachers	57%	60%	59%
Vocational counsellors	39%	38%	39%

Source: Saterdag / Stegmann 1980, p. 82
24 149 girls and 22 199 boys were interviewed.

Table 17: Interest taken by girls and boys of the ninth form (according to school type) in the occupations of various groups of persons

	Lower secondary school		Intermediate secondary school		Grammar school	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Father	11%	33%	14%	30%	18%	33%
Mother	24%	5%	20%	5%	20%	7%
Brothers and sisters	38%	31%	38%	35%	34%	32%
Relatives	30%	31%	29%	32%	23%	29%
Friends	47%	37%	45%	38%	31%	23%

Source: Saterdag / Stegmann 1980, p. 69
as a percentage, multiple answers possible

Table 18: How young people assess personal vocational counselling

Quality	Grammar school pupils	Lower secondary and intermediate secondary school pupils
Positive: very informative	54%	70%
very useful	37%	67%
very practical	34%	58%
very important	39%	54%
Negative: very forceful	10%	21%
very slow	13%	6%

Source: Becher et al. 1983, p. 63

Table 19: Areas in which students feel the need for counselling

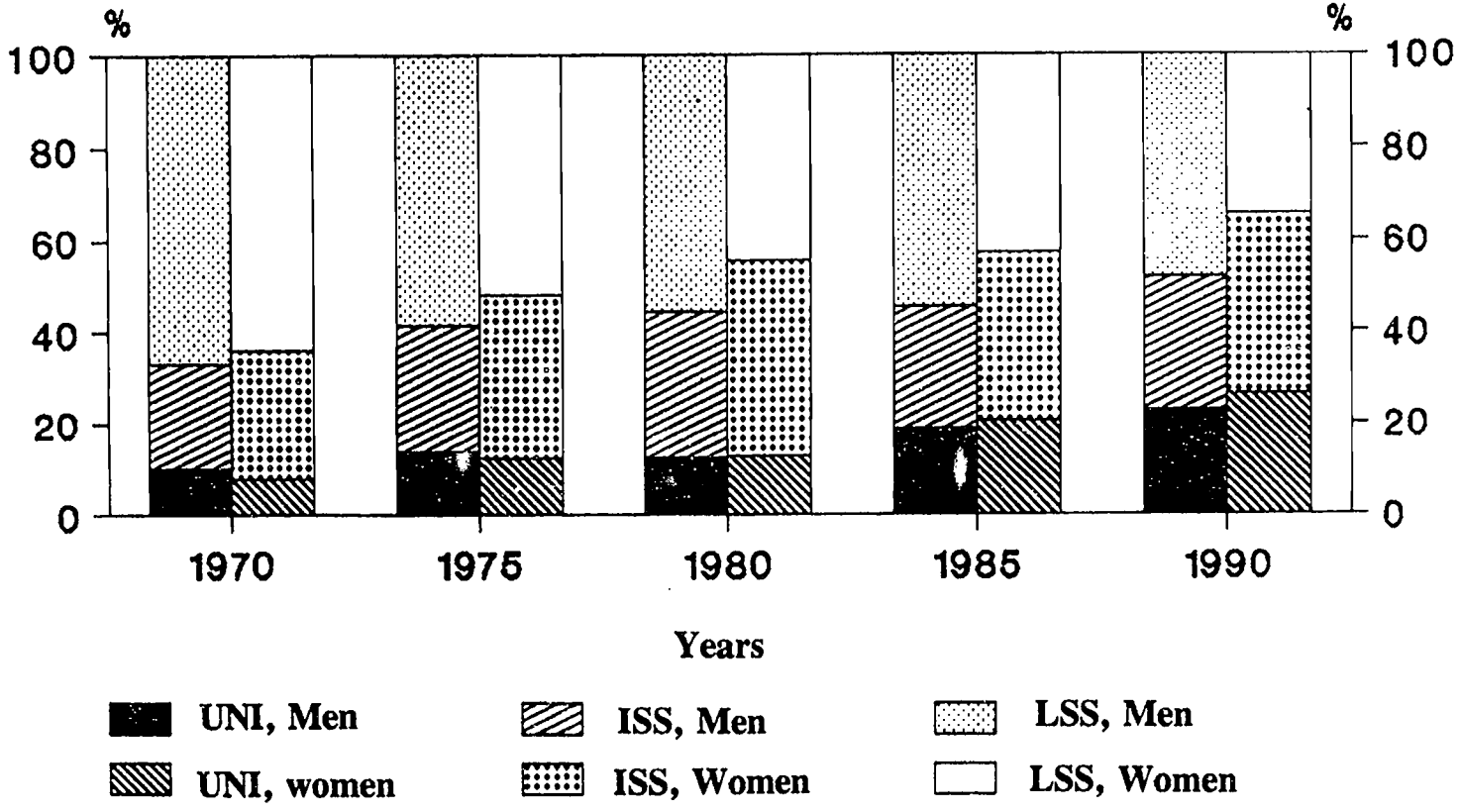
	Need for counselling		No need for counselling	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
Checking their choice of what to study	26%	22%	67%	72%
Checking their career target		0%	39%	43%
Personal aptitude	61%	51%	34%	44%
Potential occupational fields	75%	68%	22%	28%
Confirmation of the occupational profile	75%	70%	20%	23%
Clarification of employment prospects	61%	51%	32%	43%
Practice-related organization of study	69%	61%	24%	32%
Choice of major subjects	36%	39%	57%	55%
Change of subjects	13%	13%	81%	82%
Additional qualifications in line with the demands of the market	83%	79%	13%	18%
Organization of studies in line with the demands of the market	56%	51%	36%	42%
Alternatives to the desired occupation	83%	70%	14%	24%
Looking and applying for a job	72%	72%	21%	22%
Employment opportunities abroad	61%	61%	32%	31%

There is never a figure of 100% because of indecisiveness.

Source: Infas 1993

Diagram 1:

School qualifications of those seeking advice
(in selected years 1970-1990)



Source: Berufsberatungsstatistik (various years)
UNI: University entrance qualifications
ISS: Intermediate secondary school final certificate
LSS: Lower secondary school final certificate

Diagram 2.1: How women leaving school with university entrance qualifications in 1976 have used services provided by the labour office

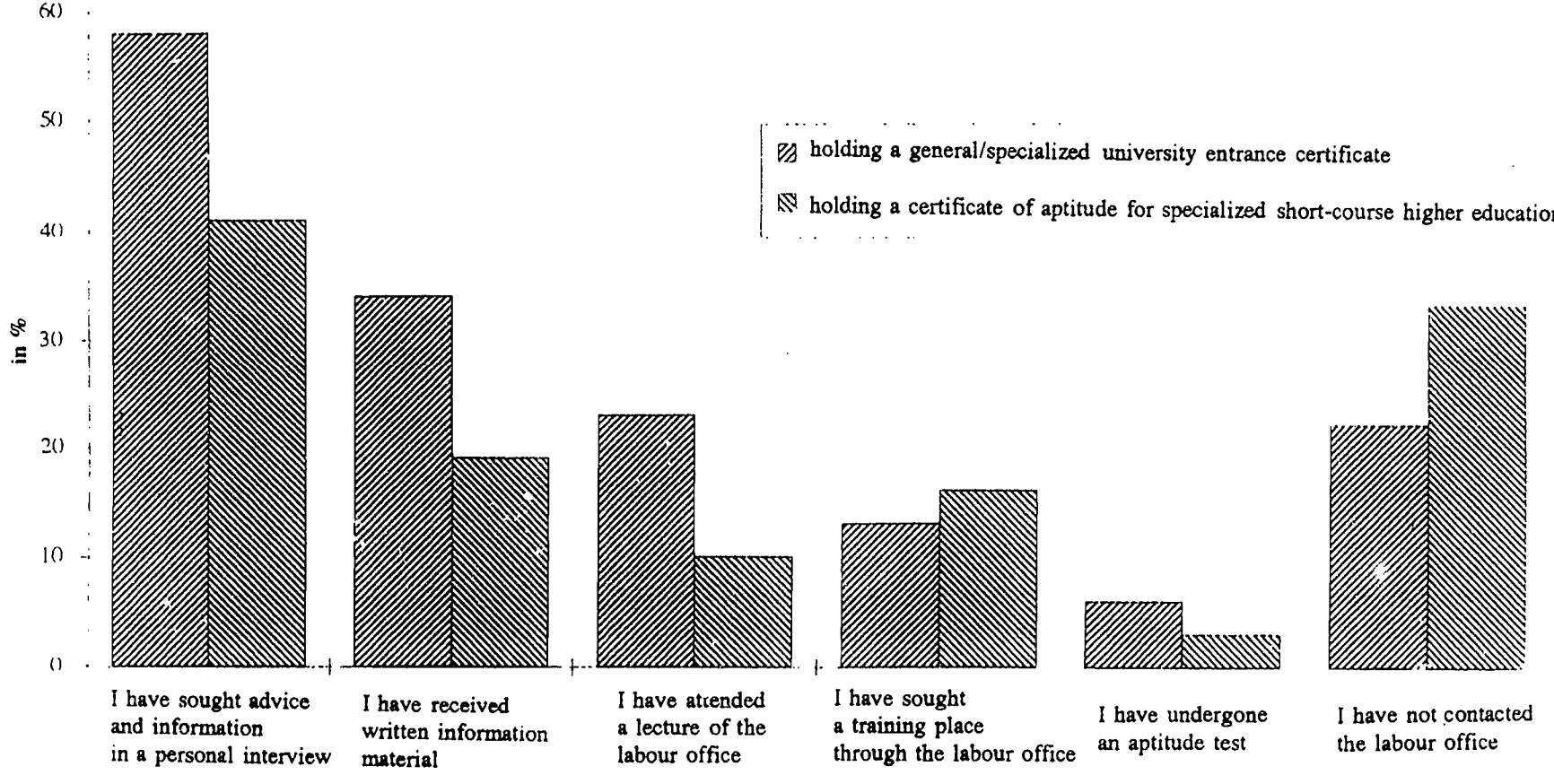


Diagram 2.2 How men leaving school with university entrance qualifications in 1976 have used services provided by the labour office

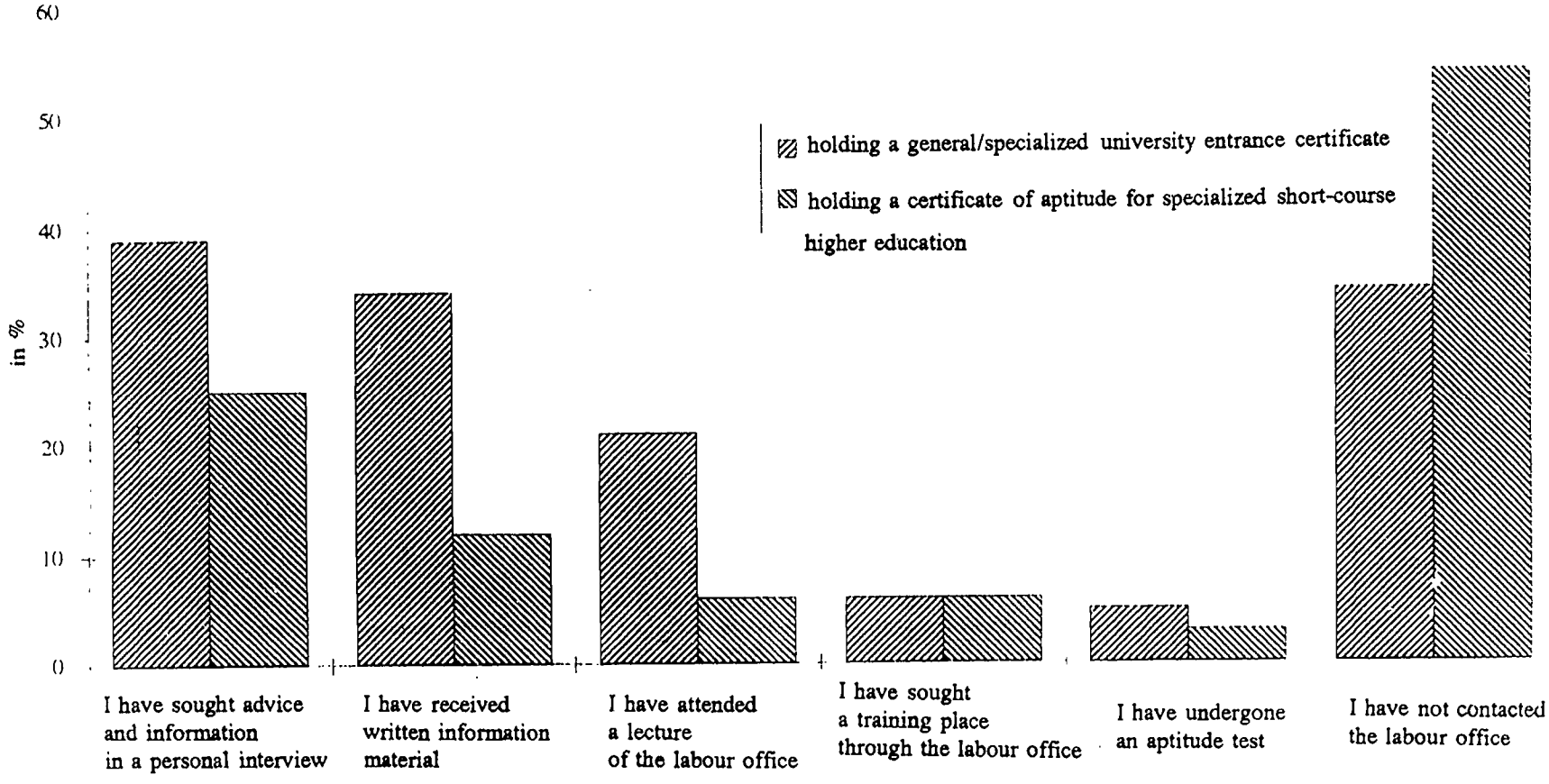
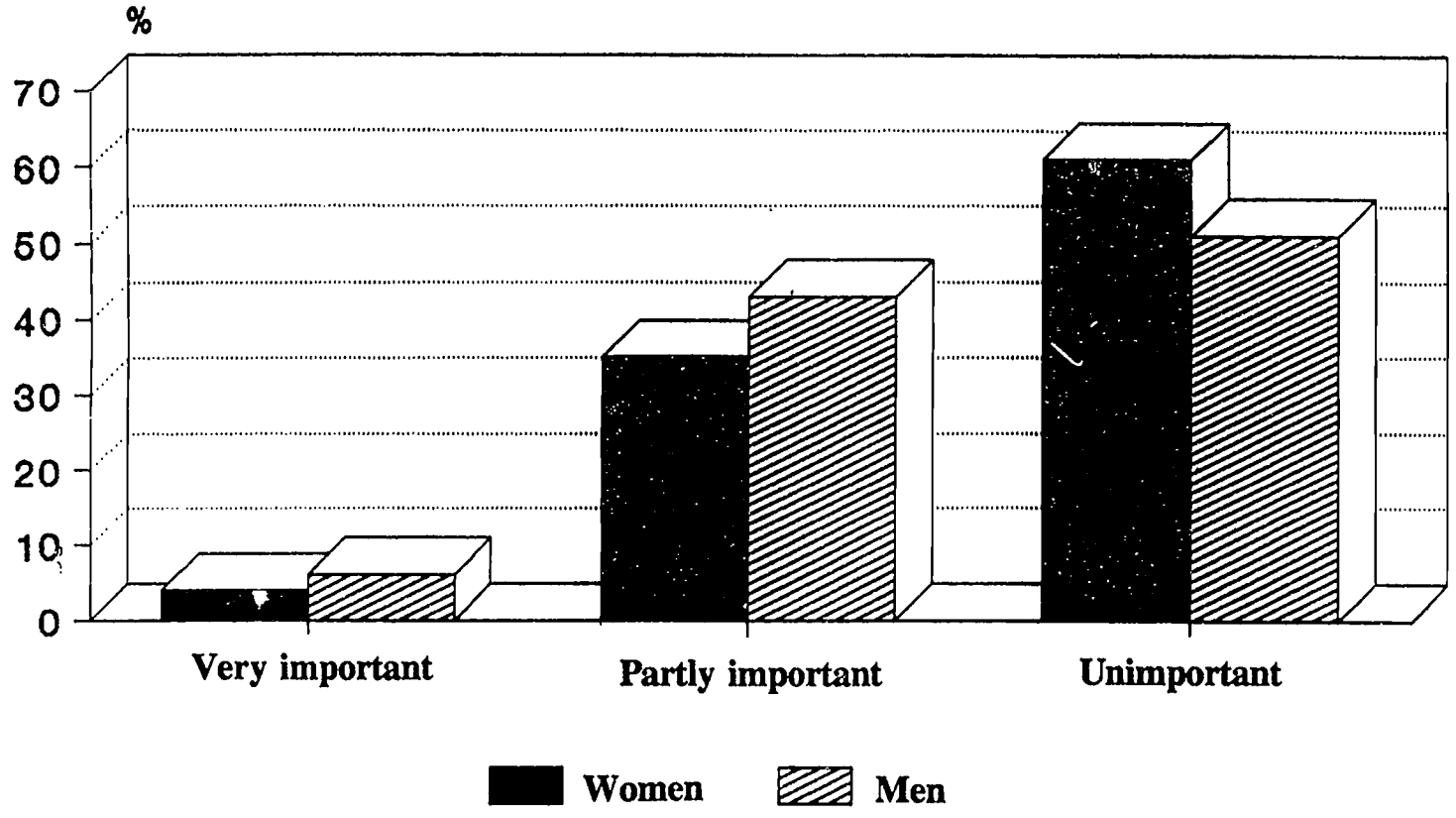


Diagram 3:

Importance of counselling
(for choice of occupation)

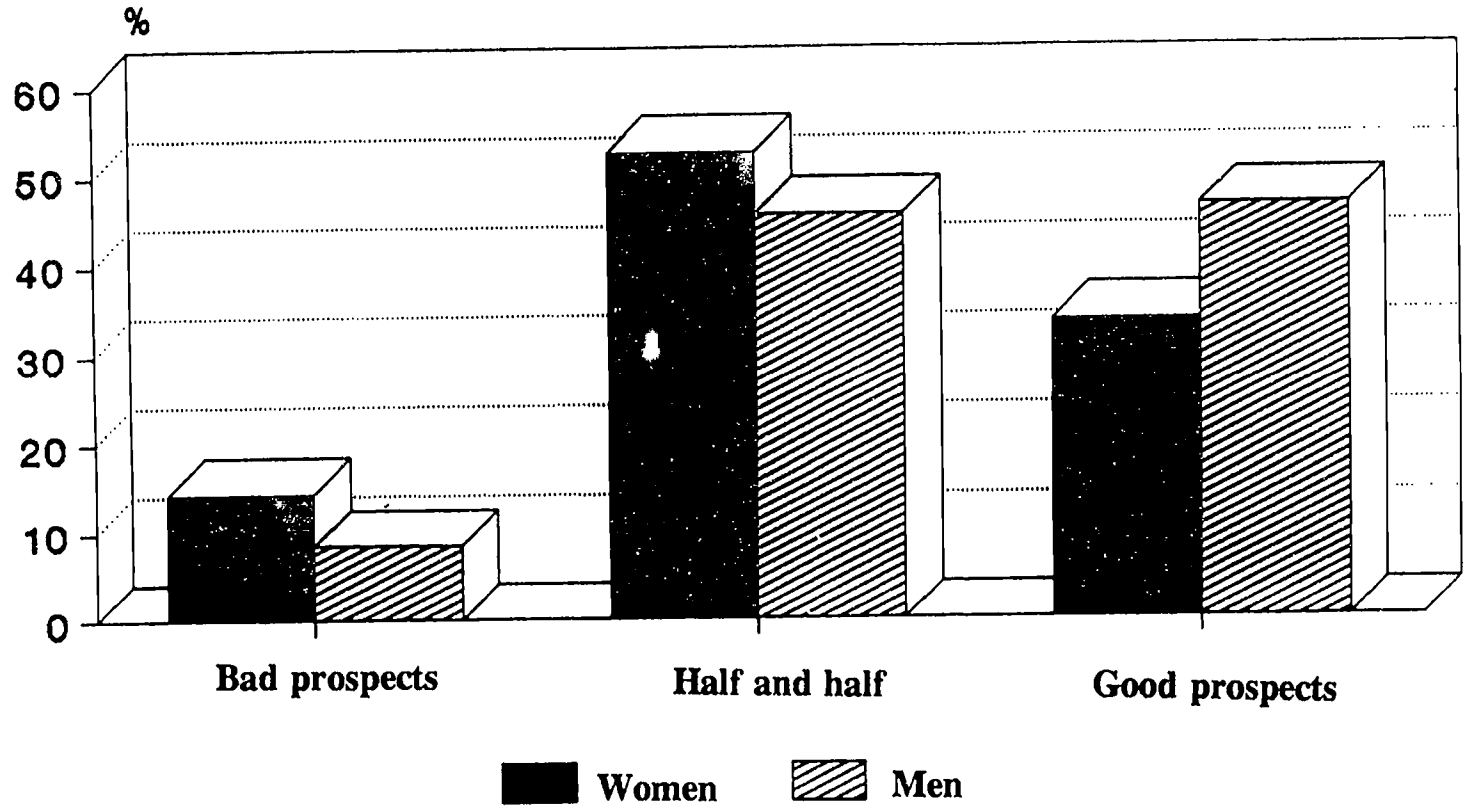


Source: Stegmann 1981, p. 8
Befragung von Hochschulberechtigten zur Bedeutung des Beratungsgesprächs

Diagram 4:

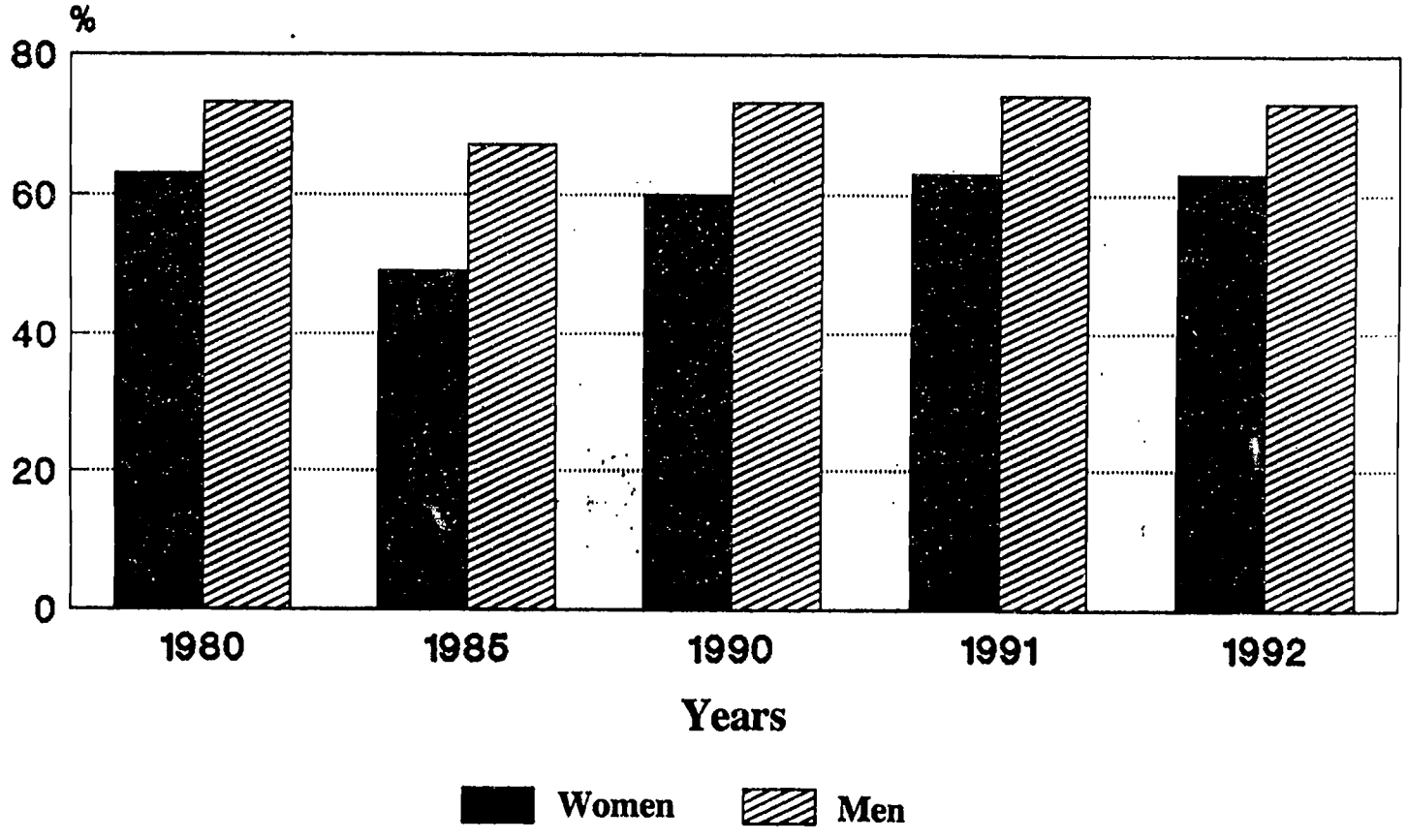
Chances of being able to work in the desired occupation

(according to the assessment of young women and men choosing an occupation)



Source: Beinke 1993, p. 200

Diagram 5: **Willingness of holders of university entrance qualifications to go to university (in selected years 1980-1992)**



Source: BMBW,
Grund- und Strukturdaten 1992/93

Glossary of selected institutions

Arbeitskreis der Berufsberatung	Vocational Counselling Working Group
Arbeitsstelle für betriebliche Berufsausbildung	Office for On-the-job Vocational Training
Ausschuß für Fragen Behinderter	Committee for Issues of the Handicapped
Berufsbildungsausschuß	Vocational training committee
Berufsfortbildungswerk	Further vocational training association
Bildungskommission des Deutschen Bildungsrates	Education Commission of the German Council for Education
Bildungswerk der Wirtschaft	Commerce and Industry Training Association
Bundesanstalt für Arbeit	Federal Labour Office
Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung (BIBB) - Der Hauptausschuß - Der Generalsekretär	Federal Institute for Vocational Training - The Board - The Secretary-General
Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildungsforschung (BBF)	Federal Institute for Vocational Training Research
Bundesministerium für Bildung und Wissenschaft (BMBW)	Federal Ministry of Education and Science
Bundesministerium für innerdeutsche Beziehungen	Federal Ministry for Intra-German Relations
Bundesrat	Federal Council
Bundestag	Federal Diet
Bund-Länder-Kommission für Bildungsplanung und Forschungsförderung	Education Planning and Research Promotion Commission of the Federal Government and the Länder

CEDEFOP	European Centre for the Developoment of Vocational Training
Deutscher Ausschuß für technisches Schulwesen (DATSCH)	German Committee for Technical Education
Deutscher Bildungsrat	German Council for Education
Deutscher Fernschulverband e.V.	German Association of Distance Learning Institutes
Deutscher Industrie- und Handelstag	Association of German Chambers of Industry and Commerce
Deutscher Volkshochschulverband	German Adult Education Association
Fachausschüsse	Specialized committees
Handwerkskammer	Chamber of Handicrafts
Industrie- und Handelskammer	Chamber of Industry and Commerce
Institut der Deutschen Wirtschaft (IW)	Institute of the German Economy
Institut für Arbeitsmarkt und Berufsforschung	Institute for Employment Research
Landtag	Land parliament
Landesausschüsse für Berufsbildung	Land committees for vocational training
Prüfungszentrale des Deutschen Fernschulverbandes e.V.	Education Headquarters of the German Association of Distance Learning Institutes
Reichsinstitut für Berufsbildung in Handel und Gewerbe	Reich Institute for Vocational Training in Commerce and Industry
Staatliche Zentralstelle für Fernunterricht	State Headquarters for Distance Learning
Ständige Konferenz der Kultusminister der Länder	Standing Conference of Land Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs

Glossary of selected legislation

Allgemeine Preußische Gewerbeordnung	Prussian Trade and Industry Code
Arbeitsförderungsgesetz	Labour Promotion Law
Ausbildereignungsverordnung	Trainer Aptitude Regulation
Berufsbildungsgesetz (BBiG)	Vocational Training Act
Betriebsverfassungsgesetz	Industrial Constitution Law
Bundesausbildungsförderungs-gesetz	Federal Law on Education and Training Promotion
Fernunterrichtsschutz-Gesetz	Distance Learning Protection Law
Gewerbeordnung des Norddeutschen Bundes	Trade and Industry Code of the North German Federation
Grundgesetz	Basic Law
Handwerksordnung (HWO)	Crafts Code
Hochschulrahmengesetz	Higher Education Framework Law
Jugendarbeitsschutzgesetz	Youth Employment Protection Law
Ordnung der Drechsler zu Köln	Ordinance of the Cologne Wood Turners
Personalvertretungsgesetze	Personnel Representation Laws
Regelung des Lehrlingswesens	Regulation on apprentice training
Reichsschulpflichtgesetz	Reich Compulsory Education Act

Selected terminology related to education and vocational training in the Federal Republic of Germany as used in this report

Allgemeine Fachhochschule	General higher education institution
Arbeitsstelle für betriebliche Berufsausbildung	Office for On-the-job Vocational Training
Berichtssystem Weiterbildung	Continuing training report system
Berufliches Gymnasium	Vocational grammar school
Berufsakademie	Vocational academy
Berufsaufbauschule	Vocational extension school
Berufsbildende Schule	Vocational training school
Berufsbildungsbericht	Report on Vocational Education
Berufsfachschule	Full-time specialized vocational school
Berufsgrundbildungsjahr-Anrechnungsverordnungen	Credit of pre-vocational year regulation
Berufsschule	Vocational school
Bezeichnungen zur Gliederung des beruflichen Schulwesens	Designations for Structuring Vocational Schools
Beschluß der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 8. Dezember 1975	Decision of the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs dated 8 December 1975
Fachhochschule	Specialized institution of higher education
Fachhochschulreife	Certificate of aptitude for specialized short-course higher education
Fachoberschule	Higher technical school
Fachschule	Specialized institute
Fernuniversität	Open university

Gesamthochschule	Comprehensive university
Gesamtschule	Comprehensive school
Grundschule	Primary school
Gymnasium	Grammar school
Gymnasium in Aufbauform	Upper level grammar school
Hauptschule	Lower secondary school
Hochschule	Institution of higher education
Hochschulreife	University entrance certificate
Höhere Fachschule	Higher technical school
Individuelle Förderung	Individual support
Institutionelle Förderung	Institutional support
Kammer	Chamber
Kollegschule	College school
Kollegstufe	College stage
Kunsthochschule	Art College
Lehre	Apprenticeship
Lehrling	Apprentice
Leistungsfächer	Major subjects
Mainzer Studienstufe	Mainz study level
Pädagogische Hochschule	Teacher training institution
Qualifizierungstarifverträge	Collective agreements on qualification
Realschule	Intermediate secondary school
Referendariat	Preparatory teaching period
Regelschule	"Regular" school

Reichserziehungsminister	Reich Minister for Education
Schulaufsichtsbehörde	School supervisory board
Statistisches Jahrbuch der BRD	Year-book of statistics on the FRG
Technikerschule	Technical college
Technische Akademie	Technical academy
Theologische Hochschule	Theological institution
Vereinbarung über den Abschluß der Berufsschule	Agreement on completion of vocational schooling
Verfahren für die Abstimmung von Ausbildungsordnungen und Rahmenlehrplänen nach dem Gemeinsamen Ergebnis-protokoll vom 30. Mai 1972	Procedure for the harmonization of training regulations and skeleton curricula in accordance with the joint report on findings of 30 May 1972
Verwaltungsfachhochschule	Institute of adminstrative studies
Volkshochschule	Adult education centre
Volksschule	Previously the name given to schools comprising primary and lower secondary classes
Vordiplomzeignis	Pre-diploma
Vorklasse	Preliminary school year prior to the 1st class
Zuständige Stellen	Competent bodies

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Annex

Target groups analysed in the twelve Member States

B	1)	Young people in Charleroi and Wallonian Brabant
	2)	Young people in Brussels
DK	1)	Locked-in, unemployed young people
	2)	Young people dropping out or changing course in the education system
D		Girls and young women when choosing an occupation
GR	1)	Young people who leave school without completing compulsory education
	2)	Young women with no skills training
E	1)	Young women in the autonomous community of Madrid whose chief activity is domestic work in their own homes
	2)	Young people of both sexes affected by industrial reconversion on the left bank of the Bilbao estuary
F	1)	Young people in initial training
	2)	Young job seekers
IRL		Rural disadvantaged youth Case study 1: North Mayo Case study 2: North-West Connemara
I		Low skilled young people
L	1)	Young people in the 9th class of upper secondary technical education
	2)	Young people with supplementary education in the last year of compulsory schooling
NL		Young drifters
P	1)	Young people in their 9th school year
	2)	Young people who have completed their 9th school year and are attending vocational training schools
	3)	Young people with or without school leaving certificate attending alternative training courses
UK	1)	Young people in full-time employment
	2)	Homeless young people

CEDEFOP - European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training

Determining the need for vocational counselling among different target groups of young people under 28 years of age in the Federal Republic of Germany
Counselling needs of girls and young women when choosing an occupation
Cordula Schweitzer, Claudia Wolfinger

CEDEFOP panorama

Berlin: CEDEFOP - European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, 1994

1st edition 1994 - 134 pp. - 21,0 x 29,7 cm

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panorama

CEDEFOP

European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training
Jean Monnet House, Bundesallee 22, **D-10717 Berlin**
Tel.: 49-30+88 41 20, Fax: 49-30+88 41 22 22,
Telex: 184 163 eucen d

Following a brief overview of the career guidance systems in their countries, the authors of the reports describe a number of target groups of young people under 28 years of age, their economic, social and cultural backgrounds and the problems posed by the transition from school to working life.

A total of 21 target groups from the whole spectrum are examined, ranging from young people with favourable conditions for transition to the most disadvantaged.

A comparison is made between the need for career guidance, the demand coming from these groups and the current offer. The conclusions drawn in the summary report (deficit analyses) provide indications for designing future action programmes at EU level.

Particular attention is paid to mobility and the readiness of young people in this age group (PETRA II) throughout the EU Member States.

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National report