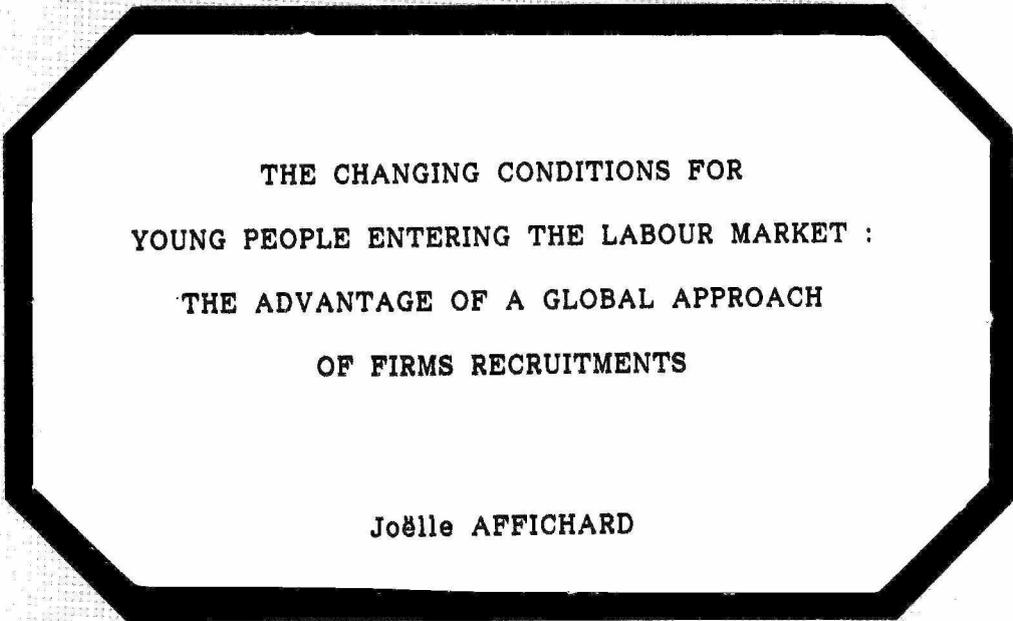


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**THE CHANGING CONDITIONS FOR  
YOUNG PEOPLE ENTERING THE LABOUR MARKET :  
THE ADVANTAGE OF A GLOBAL APPROACH  
OF FIRMS RECRUITMENTS**

**Joëlle AFFICHARD**

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**FORMATION - QUALIFICATION - EMPLOI  
DOCUMENTS DE TRAVAIL**

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OF FIRMS RECRUITMENTS**

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The first surveys on new entrants in the labour market appeared in France at the end of the 1960's. They were surveys which set out to provide simple indicators of the situation of a population of young people with occupational training, a short time after their entry in the labour market (unemployment rate, descriptions of jobs held, relation between the specialised nature of the job and the specialisation of the training). These indicators are used to assess the quality of training given, its «results», and to set up comparisons : the first surveys focused on young people who had just completed new occupational training courses (1), or on former training programmes which were to be replaced by the new ones (AFFICHARD and GENSBITTEL, 1984).

This type of surveys has been developed in several countries, but in France we have at our disposal two «tools» which permit us to analyse young people's entry in the labour market in both a regular and systematic way (that is by covering almost all school leavers). These are «Bilans formation-emploi» (Training-Job Assessments) and «l'Observatoire des entrées dans la vie active» (EVA) (the Observatory of new entrants in the labour market), which were first set up in 1976. In this paper we will try to make the advantage of this global approach clear, using empirical results taken from both sources. In particular, we will show how it helps us understand changes in young people's entry in the labour market, by taking into account the way in which companies manage their workforce.

Before presenting the two sources, it is worth giving some information about their origins ; this will explain their systematic character. The first works in France to link the training received by individuals and the jobs they hold were forecast studies carried out for planning purposes. These works developed independently from the «labour market entry surveys», with special sources and methods (2) : from the preparatory studies of the 5th Plan (1964 - 1965) up to those of the 7th Plan (1975 - 1976), macroeconomic predictions were completed by workforce structure forecasts, aimed at showing up «training needs» (AFFICHARD, 1976). The form of these works is explained by the global nature of macroeconomic models, and by the need to set the training policy large objectives. Very general associations had to be set up, with all training and jobs grouped together and classified. It was a normative comparison, since it said which training programmes were «normal» training for which jobs. This was justified during a stable period for these associations (and when it was believed that the only consequence of an excess of trained manpower would be to accelerate growth).

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(1) «Brevets d'études professionnelles» (BEP) correspond to the first level of formal qualifications. «Diplômes universitaires de technologies» are professional qualifications prepared in two-year post-Baccalauréat courses.

(2) Population census, large employment surveys or «Formation-Qualification Professionnelles» (Training-Professional Qualification) surveys.

From the beginning of the 1970's, the conditions for young people entering the labour market changed : even before unemployment developed dramatically along with the economic crisis, downgrading at the time of entry in the labour market (discrepancies between the level of training received and the job level) appeared in surveys and forecasts ; according to observations made in previous years, it was estimated that in 1976, 39% of young people with the first level of qualifications (3) taking on an industrial job, would be downgraded during the course of the 7th Plan period (THEVENOT, 1976).

The forecast studies seemed incapable at that time of going beyond an acknowledgement of these changes. Criticism was made both of their lack of precision, and of their inability to explain what happens when the relation between training and job norms is thrown into question. Nevertheless, it was considered necessary both to know more about what in the individual, social and scholastic characteristics of young people determines their working future, and also to understand how employers behave when they find a large, well-qualified workforce on the labour market during a crisis period. These two objectives are at the origin of the setting up of the «Observatoire EVA» and the «Bilans formation-emploi».

Between 1972 and 1975 the CEREQ (4) took over certain of the «labour market entry surveys» mentioned above. The «Observatoire EVA» was set up by the CEREQ in 1976, thus systematising these surveys for all training (to be covered in four years), and improving statistical methods ; in addition, from then on we planned to question the same individuals again four years later («development surveys»), in order to follow up their first working years.

This plan of action should allow us to find out about young people's entry in the labour market in a much more clearly defined way than before. Also, in covering all kinds of training in a homogeneous way, all sorts of comparisons are made possible ; in particular, we can thus know about all the jobs open to young people at the end of their training periods, and we will therefore be able to study the competition between different ways of qualifying for a job (apprenticeship, occupational training within the school system or general education, for example).

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(3) Young people with a «CAP» («Certificat d'aptitude professionnelle») (Certificate of professional aptitude) or a «BEP» («Brevet d'études professionnelles») (Certificate of professional studies).

(4) The CEREQ (Centre d'études et de recherches sur les qualifications) (Centre for research and studies in occupational qualifications) was created in 1970. Its sphere of activity is precisely that which is defined by the planning works mentioned above : qualifications and the relationships between training and jobs.

Example :

1 - Openings for those having undergone mechanical engineering training in the school system (line 2).

2 - Proportion of occupational training at school (level 5), other training and apprenticeship levels in the employment of mechanical engineering workers (column 3).

Survey date	Education/Training level	Total Number of trainees	Post-training situation				
			Employment		Unemployment	Military service	Other
				* including workers trained in mechanical engineering			
1976	Level 5 (first level of professional qualification) including mechanical engineering *	35 237	25 593	11 858 *(10 771)	3 338	5 811	495
1977	Level 6 Compulsory schooling without complete occupational training			2 568			
1978	Level 4 Baccalauréat			898			
1979	Apprenticeship including mechanical engineering apprenticeship *			5 886 *(5 471)			

But the «Observatory EVA» takes only school leavers into account, and does not, therefore allow us to study competition with other types of manpower. This is what the «Training-Job Assessments» set out to do.

The INSEE (5) was responsible for setting up the «Training-Job Assessments», in collaboration with other statistics-producing organisations : CEREQ, the Ministry of Education's statistics department (6), and the statistics departments of the Ministries of Health and Agriculture, which are also in charge of certain teaching establishments.

(5) Institut National de la statistique et des études économiques. (National institute of statistics and economic studies). The INSEE is the main statistics-producing organisation, but as well as carrying out studies, it also makes models and forecasts.

(6) The SEIS, Service des études informatiques et statistiques (Department of computer and statistics studies), became SIGES in 1981, and SPRESE in 1984.

An initial assessment was drawn up for 1973, as a way of perfecting the method, and in order to provide a point of reference dating from before the start of the crisis (CEREO, INSEE, SEIS, 1978). Afterwards a complete series was effected, from 1977 to 1980 (CEREO, INSEE, SEIS, 1981) (CEREO, INSEE, SIGES, 1983) (7).

They comprise two types of work. The first is an annual evaluation of school leavers : for institutional and technical reasons, no global statistics existed for these previously. The second part of these assessments is carried out thanks to a specific feature of the «annual employment survey» (8). This is a schematic representation of movement in the labour market, and allows us to see what situation people employed at a given date were in one year earlier. For those already employed, the «changes» are changes of firm (it is difficult to find out about job changes within the same firm).

For the basic points, each year the Assessments are composed of two tables :

Table 1 : Flux of school leavers and new entrants  
(area : school leavers between March n - 1 and March n)

School - Training leaving level	Situation of school leavers in March n					
	Occupation (1)	Apprenticeships (2)	Unemployment (3)	Military service (4)	Inactivity (5)	Total (6)
Compulsory schooling	a					
Higher Education						
Total no of leavers (except apprentices)	b					
Apprenticeship	c	o				
Total no of leavers (including apprentices)						

(7) A new series, starting from 1982, is in the process of finalization.

(8) In France this survey serves as an aid to the «Community survey on manpower». But it is much more detailed : for example, by comparing 2 successive surveys made within a year of each other on the same people, it is possible to see what changes have occurred in the individual's situation between March n - 1 and March n.

Table 2 : New entrants and other recruitments  
(see economically active persons employed in March n, who were not working or who were working in another company in March n - 1)

Situation in March n - 1	Principal professions in March n				
	Engineers	Technicians	Workers	etc.	Total employed (T)
Pupils or students (classified according to training level)					a
Total					b
Apprenticeship					c
Military service					
Unemployment					
Inactivity					
Already employed, but in another company - same profession - another profession					
Total recruitments					

N.B. the part  is the same in both tables.

These tables have been drawn up according to sex, and, in the second one, according to age (under 25, over 25). In addition, another table shows the «job leavers» (i.e. people employed in the principal professions in March n - 1, and their situation in March n, if they have moved to another company or are no longer employed).

The flux of young people leaving school and finding a job (column 1 table 2) appears as a sub-unit of recruitments made by companies in table 2.

The existence of a series of assessments, from 1973 to 1980, has enabled us to isolate some very important results, in order to understand changes in the entry of young people in the labour market since the start of the crisis (AFFICHARD, 1981) (AFFICHARD and AMAT, 1984).

First of all we notice that during that period the number of school leavers remained between 750 000 and 800 000. The effect of demographic movement on the volume of leavers can not be discerned. For the moment, demographic decline only affects primary education, from which few pupils leave directly. Changes in school leaving are above all changes in distribution according to level (column 6 table 1, and annexe 1 (9)) : because of a long-term tendency to prolong schooling, and owing to unemployment, which encourages young people to stay at school until they have obtained a complete education, we can see a reduction in the number of leavers without occupational training (34 % of all leavers in 1973, 26 % in 1980), and an increase in the number of leavers with first level of qualifications (33 % of leavers in 1973, 38 % in 1980, and as many as 50 % if we take apprentices into account). Higher Education leavers (universities, schools of engineering, higher technical schools) go from 17 % to 20 %. These changes have naturally caused the general education/training level of young people arriving in the labour market to rise.

(9) So as not to make the text too cumbersome, the main statistics results have been gathered together in the appended tables. The text may be read without referring to them.

At the same time, a large increase in unemployment among school leavers may be observed (column 3 table 1 and appendix 2). The unemployment rate among school leavers (10) went from 11 % in 1973 to 23 % in 1977, and 33 % in 1980. In 1973 there was not much difference in the unemployment rate for young people with different training levels : those most affected were already young people without any kind of basic occupational training. The general rise in unemployment has tended to widen the differences.

Girls with no basic training are in the most unfavourable situation (unemployment rate of over 60 % in 1980). The unemployment rate among girls decreases as the training level rises (it is lowest for short higher education courses, principally training courses for primary school teachers, nurses, and «instituts universitaires de technologie» (IUT) (University institutes of technology), entry for which is selective). For boys, the decrease in the unemployment rate corresponds less markedly to length of study : young men with occupational training are better protected at all levels than those with a general education.

The results obtained from the «Observatory EVA» surveys allow us to fine down these analyses considerably : it is possible to know precisely which class young people have just left, their previous schooling (did they have to repeat a year or did they have a normal schooling), their parents' occupations, the region they come from (AMAT and BIRET, 1981). In unemployment figures we can distinguish between those who are looking for their first job and those who have been unemployed before : it seems that the risk of unemployment is very unevenly distributed depending on the school-leaving year (CEREQ, INSEE, SEIS, 1981).

In the context of this paper, we shall now, with the aid of the «Training-Job Assessments», extend the analysis, in order to try and understand how the crisis has sharpened job qualification competition among the workforce : is the high rate of unemployment among school leavers a sign of deterioration in the relation between the school and economic systems ? In March 1980 the number of unemployed under 25 was not much lower (550 000) (INSEE, 1980) than the number of school leavers : what effect does this have on employment ?

According to the Assessments, the increase in unemployment among new entrants is caused not by the decrease in their relative proportion among all recruited people, but by a general reduction in recruitment by companies ; this dropped by 16 % between 1973 and 1980.

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$$(10) \text{ Unemployment rate} = \frac{\text{unemployed}}{\text{economically active} + \text{unemployed}} \\ \text{(except apprentices)}$$

$$\text{Unemployment rate for school leavers} = \frac{(3)}{(1) + (3)}$$

It may be observed that the proportion of recruits among school and university leavers seen against all recruits (table 2 : b column T, and appendix 3) has remained practically constant since 1973 : 12.2 % in 1973, 11.9 % in 1977, 11.5 % in 1978, 11.4 % in 1979, 11.0 % in 1980 (11). Girl recruits are in the order of 14-15 %, boys 10 %.

Extensive unemployment has, of course, brought about an increase, both absolute and relative, in the number of unemployed people being hired. But this has taken place at the expense of those economically active in the same profession (12). If employers can now choose between different types of workforce in fiercer competition with each other, in fact there has been no change in their choice between this or that category during recent times, at least not within the very global categories looked at here.

The Assessments permit us now to pursue this analysis for 9 groups of professions (13). It is only for qualified office personnel (i.e. secretaries, accountants, office workers, who are mostly all girls) that the proportion of school leavers hired decreased, whilst the hiring of people who had been unemployed the year before increased significantly. In all other professions new entrants have been hired in the same proportions since the start of the crisis.

However, beside this overall stability, the Assessments show up an important change in the relation between school leavers' formal qualifications and their first job ; we can speak about changes in the value of qualifications on the labour market (see footnote (14)) (BOURDIEU and BOLTANSKI, 1975).

For boys who gave up their studies before the Baccalauréat the relation between the formal qualification and the job seems weaker : slightly more of those without formal qualifications become skilled workers (10% in 1973, 18% in 1980), whilst those with qualifications are more often downgraded (30% of boys with a CAP or a BEP (15) became workers or unqualified white collar workers in 1973, 36 % in 1980).

(11) The confidence interval is equal to 0,5 % for 95 % of these rates.

(12) Given the method adopted here to determine the origin of recruits, it only requires an increase in the length of time an individual is unemployed between 2 jobs within the same profession, to bring about an increase in the number of unemployed people hired at the expense of economically active people in the profession.

(13) Farmers, engineers, technicians, skilled workers, unskilled workers, senior and middle administrative, financial and commercial management and executives (and all the other categories included in the French term «cadres», such as teachers and the medical and paramedical professions) qualified white collar workers unqualified white collar workers. This is a group taken from a more detailed categorisation. Statistical restraints make a more precise analysis impossible.

(14) In this text we speak about either «training level» or «formal qualifications» possessed by individuals, depending on the individual case. These are not quite the same thing : one may complete a training course without obtaining the final qualification. The number in possession of a qualification varies, according to the type of training. The different statistics sources used in the Assessments necessitate the use of «level» in some cases, and «formal qualifications» in others. But the notion of formal qualification is the one that must be applied when analysing the value of educational assets.

(15) «CAP» («Certificat d'aptitude professionnelle») (Certificate of professional aptitude) or a «BEP» («Brevet d'études professionnelles») (Certificate of professional studies).

For those who continued their studies beyond the Baccalauréat conditions for career insertion were, and still are, good ; at the end of two or three years training, about 90 % of boys get a job corresponding to their training, as do three quarters of those who followed longer courses (16).

The situation for girls is special because of the high number of tertiary jobs open to them : general education competes with professional training courses preparing people for office jobs directly. Girls with the Baccalauréat have the best chance of becoming qualified office personnel, while with a lower qualification they more often get unskilled jobs (or they become factory workers).

Between 1973 and 1980 there was no perceptible degradation in conditions for career insertion for higher education leavers. The vast majority of girls find a managerial executive job.

The decline in value of formal qualifications, up to Baccalauréat level, is partly explained by the increased competition between school leavers and young unemployed persons, who often possess qualifications too (17). But competition only partially accounts for these phenomena. Even during periods of full employment, downgrading cannot be avoided if the jobs qualification structure proposed to new entrants in the labour market does not correspond to an increase in the number of formally qualified persons.

We can compare the distribution according to formal qualifications level of young people who have found jobs with the distribution according to hierarchical level of these jobs (Appendix 4). We can see that in 1973 there were 20 000 more technicians, engineers and executives than there were graduates of higher education courses. The number of unskilled jobs was equal to the number of young people without qualifications who found jobs. In 1980, the reduction in the number of jobs offered to new entrants (392 000 as opposed to 495 000) was accompanied by a change in their distribution according to level. The majority of young people with a Baccalauréat should occupy qualified white collar worker posts (especially girls) or skilled worker jobs (especially boys with the second level of technical qualifications). But there is no longer a surplus of offers for these jobs, as there was in 1973 still. Young people with the first level of qualifications (CAP or BEP) are thus increasingly obliged to do unskilled jobs ; the interplay of successive downgradings explains the very high unemployment rate among those without qualifications (out of 180 000 school leavers, only 100 000 found a job).

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(16) As we have already indicated, most short non-university higher education training courses are selective, whilst longer training courses (university in general) are not.

(17) This point is analysed in greater depth in (AFFICHARD, 1981).

Thus, with the help of the Assessments, we have been able to make a general survey, albeit too rapid, of the global analyses in terms of competition and the value of formal qualifications. We would now like to complete this presentation with an example of a much more detailed study ; a study made on secretarial jobs. We have observed that the Assessments showed up a reduction in the proportion of new entrants recruited as qualified white collar workers, as well as a predominance of openings for these jobs at Baccalauréat level. A special work was therefore undertaken on the subject of secretarial jobs, for which there is a particularly large number of openings for women, in order to understand how young people accede to these jobs (Françoise BRUAND 1985).

The study permits us first of all to «define» ways of qualifying for secretarial jobs, following the same schema as that of the Assessments, and using the employment survey (cf. table 2 above). It thus appears that in the case of secretaries (contrary to what happens for white collar workers as a whole) the number of school leavers hired remained constant (about 23 % of those employed) during the period 1976 - 1981. In addition, at first sight the situation appears even more favourable, given that the number of people recruited did not decrease, in absolute figures, either for recruitments taken over all or for new entrants (about 130 - 140 000 recruitments a year, approximately 30 000 of whom were girl school leavers).

However, this stability hides important changes. The first is a change in training level of girls being employed for the first time ; this development is brought to the fore by the Observatory EVA, with its sensitive linking of jobs and training. At the beginning of the period (1976 to 1978), about 63 % of young people who found employment had just finished level 5 training (first level of occupational training), 25 % had followed level 4 training (Baccalauréat level, or technical training courses lasting the same length of time), 11 % had followed longer training courses. In 1980 - 1981, only 48 % had done level 5 (that is a drop of 24 % in 4 years), 32 % level 4 (+ 28 %), and 18 % higher levels (+ 64 %). But during the same period, secretarial training courses evolved differently : 56 % of girls trained for this occupation had done level 5 training (as compared to 59 % in 1976, only 5 % less) (18), 27 % level 4 (compared to 25 %, plus 8 %) and 13 % higher levels (compared to 12 %, plus 8 %). This conveys the effort, previously indicated above, to reduce the number of untrained school leavers (level 6). However it is not possible to completely restructure rapidly the course leaving levels towards the highest group of training levels.

This drop in the number of level 5 recruitments (21 000 in 1976, 10 000 in 1981) (19), is thus explained by a change in employers' recruiting practices ; they prefer to employ girls with a level 4 professional qualification or even those with a general education level (Baccalauréat and one or two years of higher education studies). In this way, the improvement in the workforce's training level, achieved thanks to a great effort

(18) In total, 33 000 girls were trained as secretaries in 1976, 28 000 in 1980.

(19) Girls trained (level 5) in secretarial-linked specializations (administrative officer, for example) are also employed as secretaries.

on the part of the school system, may be destroyed if employers, now that they can choose between competing categories of workforce, adopt new recruiting policies.

The second change brought to light by this study may help us to interpret this evolution. It concerns the rapid and regular ageing of the secretarial population ; the number of women aged 25 and over went from 71% in 1976 to 78% in 1981. This is due to the inadequate renewal of the population ; the stability rate of the workforce in companies is high (about 80%, and there is no obvious great threat to these jobs) and the under 25 newcomers - leavers balance is equal to about 4% of the entire workforce, which is not enough to ensure the stability of the population structure in respect to age. This ageing of the population as a whole partly explains, perhaps, changes in the recruitment of new entrants : of those who join the labour market, girls with a level 4 qualification, or higher, are older, and therefore less different insofar as age is concerned from those secretaries who are already working, than level 5 girls, who are only 17 - 18, and who may be more difficult to integrate professionally. Remember that integration of young inexperienced workers, e.g. apprentices, does not work well in France, except for a few occupations in some sectors, notably craft industries.

The reader will probably have been disturbed by the very summary nature of this exposé. This brevity is, it seems to us, necessitated by the aim of this text, which is not to present an empirical assessment of the integration of new entrants into working life in France, but to illustrate, with examples, the tools for analysis and modes of reasoning which are currently required.

This does not prevent the occasional detailed labour market entry survey being carried out at the same time for «local» training system management. A school head and a careers advisor are interested in indicators of success in different training areas : the aim is simply for everyone to obtain the best possible result in a competitive world, and not to ensure the global organisation of the training system.

But the Training - Job Assessments and the Observatory EVA, and the studies resulting from them, are carried out with the support of state training and employment policies. Without developing it, we would like to refer here to the argument according to which the concepts, categories, and in a general way, the models, implemented by state statistics are closely related to the necessities of state management (THEVENOT, 1983 ; AFFICHARD, 1983 ; AFFICHARD, 1985 ; THEVENOT, 1986 ; EYMARD-DUVERNAY et THEVENOT, 1986).

This last observation helps us to understand the new directions these works have taken over the last few years, and which we would like to mention to end with. Up until now, in traditional training-job analyses like the ones we have just given an account of, professional classifications have always been used to describe jobs : this is the way teachers see things, their aim being to prepare students for a particular «occupation». But this type of categorisation, especially when used at a fairly aggregated level, is probably not the most relevant one when it comes to reaching the decision-making bodies for employment policy, that is to say companies and the different levels at which

they are organised. Employment policy is negotiated with companies, or their representatives, and the categories used to define this policy should be linked to practical categories for the functioning of the economic system. Recent works have shown, for example, that industrial firms had very different policies concerning the management of their workforce, depending on the nature of their business, their size, their market situation (EYMARD-DUVERNAY, 1981). As a first approximation, we can consider that the division into economic sectors enables us to group companies with roughly homogeneous policies together (BLOSSEVILLE, CLEMENCEAU, GRANDO, 1982). In addition, this system of classification takes the structure of trades unions fairly well into account.

Thus, the same type of studies as the Training-Job Assessments were undertaken, this time adopting economic sectors as a way of categorising jobs (CLEMENCEAU, GEHIN, 1983). According to these works, new entrants are only recruited in large numbers in certain sectors : boys go into the farming and food industries, foundries and metal works, the wood industry, building and public works, the retail trade, car repairs, the hotel and restaurant trades, and other trades ; for girls, it is the textile and clothing industries, the retail trade, and other trades. But these sectors are also characterised by the below-average stability of their workforce.

With this schema we begin to understand the «reception» and «redistribution» roles played by certain companies with regard to new entrants. It will be noted that these are often companies with a tradition of apprenticeship, who are therefore used to incorporating inexperienced young people into the workforce.

This type of explanation also avoids certain traps. Thus the Observatory EVA shows that training for the building industry obtains very good results on the labour market : in 1976 the unemployment rate among school leavers was, and still is in 1980, one of the lowest (6.7 % in 1976, 15.3% in 1980) (AMAT and VINEY, 1984). There is always a large number of job offers for new entrants. We could conclude from this that training capacities in this sector should be developed. But a study of manpower management in companies in the building sector shows that there exists, along with a number of highly skilled jobs offering career prospects for a highly specialised workforce, a large number of unskilled jobs also, which are insecure and done by an extremely mobile workforce, not all of whose members have received training for this occupation. The working conditions and the pay encourage people to leave (CAMPINOS-DUBERNET and GRANDO, 1984). Thus 19 % of boys having completed level 5 training in 1975 got their first job in the building industry ; while only 15 % were occupied in this sector in 1980 (20).

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(20) Source : the Observatory EVA «development surveys» ; the young people interrogated for the first time in 1976 were questioned again in 1980.

We shall end on this paradox, as it is a good demonstration of why we should not be satisfied with indicators of the «results» of training courses, but should also take the way companies use their workforce into account, in order to understand what happens to new entrants in the labour market.

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APPENDED TABLES

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## Annexe 1 : Sorties du système éducatif par niveau de formation

Niveau de formation	Structures des sorties par niveau de formation (%)				Effectifs	
	Apprentissage exclu du système éducatif		Apprentissage inclus dans le système éducatif (2)		1972-73	1979-80
	1972-73	1979-80	1972-73	1979-80		
VI (Scolarité obligatoire)	16	14	8	5	119 500	109 900
Vbis (Formation professionnelle de "Niveau V" interrompue)	18	12	18	8	138 900	92 500
V (Formation professionnelle en 2 ou 3 ans)	33	38	41	50	258 200	302 600
VI (Baccalauréat ou formation technique de même durée)	16	16	16	16	126 900	123 400
III (Formation d'enseignement supérieur en 2 ans)	8	10	8	10	59 800	81 000
II-I (Diplôme obtenu après au moins 3 ans d'études en université, grande école ou école d'ingénieur)	9	10	9	10	72 900	79 700
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>776 200</b>	<b>789 000</b>

(1) On considère ici que l'apprentissage ne fait pas partie de la formation initiale : les jeunes qui quittent l'école pour entrer en apprentissage sont comptés dans les sorties du système éducatif.

(2) On considère ici l'apprentissage comme une formation initiale : les entrées en apprentissage (qui s'effectuent principalement à partir des niveaux VI et V bis) ne sont pas comptées dans les sorties, alors qu'on y inclut les sorties d'apprentissage (au niveau Vbis en cas d'interruption d'apprentissage, au niveau Vbis en cas d'apprentissage complet).

Annexe 2 : Taux de chômage des jeunes sortant du système éducatif au niveau de formation (1) ; en pourcentage.

Niveau de formation (2)	Garçons			Filles			Ensemble		
	1973	1977	1980	1973	1977	1980	1973	1977	1980
VI	12	31	42	18	46	63	15	38	52
Vbis	5	22	29	16	20	43	11	21	37
V	6	17	21	10	26	42	8	21	32
IV	9	15	19	10	21	28	10	20	25
III	3	7	12	4	9	13	4	8	13
II-I	10	14	11	12	14	21	11	14	16
Total	9	20	26	13	26	39	11	23	33

(1) Champ : élèves ou étudiants pendant l'arrêt scolaire (n-2, n-1) qui se déclarent sortis du système éducatif en mars n.

$$\text{Taux de chômage évalué en mars } n = \frac{\text{Chômeurs}}{\text{Actifs occupés (sauf apprentis) + chômeurs}}$$

(2) Voir annexe 1.

Annexe 3 : Origine de la main d'oeuvre recrutée par les entreprises en 1973 et en 1980 (1)

Origines (= situation en mars n - 1)	%						Effectifs (milliers)					
	Hommes		Femmes		Ensemble		Hommes		Femmes		Ensemble	
	1973	1980	1973	1980	1973	1980	1973	1980	1973	1980	1973	1980
Élèves, étudiants.....	10	9	14	13	12	11	256	181	271	193	527	374
Service militaire.....	9	8	-	-	5	5	218	162	-	-	218	162
Entrées de l'étranger.....	4	2	1	1	3	2	93	39	26	18	119	57
<u>Jeunes (moins de 25 ans)</u>												
Apprentissage.....	2	2	1	1	1	1	50	39	14	8	64	47
Chômage.....	1	5	2	0	1	6	27	87	35	113	62	200
Inactivité.....	-	1	3	2	2	1	13	13	57	31	70	44
Employé dans une autre entreprise :												
- même profession.....	10	7	11	7	10	7	240	141	207	101	447	242
- autre profession.....	5	4	5	4	5	4	114	74	91	54	205	128
<u>Adultes (25 ans et plus)</u>												
Chômage.....	2	0	2	0	2	0	60	159	45	111	105	270
Inactivité.....	2	2	22	22	11	11	42	43	413	327	455	370
Employé dans une autre entreprise :												
- même profession.....	41	37	31	25	37	32	1009	718	577	367	1586	1085
- autre profession.....	14	15	8	9	11	12	334	278	139	129	473	407
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>2456</b>	<b>1934</b>	<b>1875</b>	<b>1452</b>	<b>4431</b>	<b>3386</b>

(1) Champ : actifs occupés en mars n, qui en mars n-1 n'étaient pas occupés ou étaient employés dans une autre entreprise.

Annexe 4 : Comparaison des niveaux de formation des jeunes débutants et des niveaux de qualification des emplois qu'ils occupent (1).

Niveau de formation des jeunes (2)	Jeunes débutants qui occupent un emploi (1)		Emplois occupés par les jeunes débutants		Niveau de qualification des emplois
	1973				
VI-Vals	190 500	(23)	199 000	(28)	Ouvriers et employés non qualifiés
V	143 500	(23)	127 500	(26)	Ouvriers et employés qualifiés
IV	66 500	(13)	-	-	(3)
III-III-1	94 400	(19)	115 900	(24)	Techniciens inférieurs et autres
Ensemble			484 800	(100)	Ensemble
	1980				
VI-Vals	78 900	(23)	114 300	(22)	Ouvriers et employés non qualifiés
V	121 500	(24)	126 200	(26)	Ouvriers et employés qualifiés
IV	60 900	(17)	-	-	(3)
III-III-1	91 400	(27)	114 000	(23)	Techniciens inférieurs et autres
Ensemble			334 500	(100)	Ensemble

(1) Champ : actifs occupés en mars n (sauf agriculteurs), qui étaient élèves ou étudiants en mars n-1.

(2) Voir annexe 1.

(3) Aucun niveau d'emploi n'a été placé en face du niveau IV de formation (baccalauréat ou formation technique de même durée) : en effet, les débutants qui occupent un emploi de technicien sont plus souvent issus d'une formation plus longue (niveau III).

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