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A COMPARISON OF THE VOCATIONAL TRAINING SYSTEM OF BRITAIN AND WEST
GERMANY AS EXPERIENCED BY MINIMUM-AGE SCHOOL LEAVERS

A Case Study in Retailing

VOL II

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Doctor of Philosophy

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CHAPTER SIX

Comparative Case Studies in Retailing

This research has so far drawn principally on books, articles, surveys, government publications, legislation and training material as well as on interviews with training experts. In this chapter the reasons for undertaking case studies as the primary source of data will be explained in more detail: both the problems and advantages inherent in this method of research. Furthermore, several hypotheses will be tested via the case studies: training will be perceived as more important in the German than in the British companies; the difference between the two German companies will be small due to the legally controlled training system, whereas significant differences can be expected between the British companies. Background training information about the companies who participated will be used to test these hypotheses in the first instance. The third hypothesis concerns the training material available to the companies. It is expected that the German training material is more developed and plentiful, uniform and closely linked to the off-the-job training at the BS. The British material is likely to vary between the companies in both quality and quantity. The data obtained from interviewing the trainees, ex-trainees and training/personnel managers (Chapter 7) will thus be put into context.

6.1. Case Study Methodology

The value of different approaches and research methods in Human Resource Development have been described extensively (Bennett 1979). Practical "research" ¹ in the training field is often carried out almost subconsciously by trainers and managers through the monitoring of training programmes and the implementation of subsequent improvements. External research has, however:

"helped develop methods for evaluating training; it has produced new ideas for the process of training;...it aids identifying attitude changes as a result of training; it helps in simply getting information on which to make decisions." (Bennett 1979,3)

It is with these aims in view that this study was conducted. Bennett concludes later that:

"research is an inevitable element of the total training process - its absence leading to obsolescence, reduced effectiveness and dissatisfaction." (1979,5)

The lack of research in British retail training since the demise of the DITB in 1982 aptly illustrates this point and this study hopes to go some way to filling that gap. Having established the importance of research in the training field, choosing a suitable research method is the next problem.

The different research methods (survey, observation, experiment and case study) have been discussed elsewhere (Bailey 1982). Given the nature of this study the case study approach was the only viable one. It allows the researcher to show the link between concept and practice, but the results cannot be generalised in contrast with the experiment. The experiment is used to test the effect of a variable using control groups. Establishing the parameters, i.e. matched groups of companies with roughly the same turnover, employee numbers, location and product range is almost impossible when undertaking cross-national research on ones own, let alone finding identical groups of trainees in four stores with the same likes and dislikes.

The second most widely-adopted method in the social sciences is the survey. Typically surveys rely on techniques of sampling, interviewing and/or the administration of a questionnaire. It is a useful method to employ where it is planned to collect a large amount of information, but it was not the purpose of this study to collect a large amount of primary data, as statistical information was available separately for the two countries and could be brought together in a comparative sense without gathering new data (cf Chapter 1). Moreover, a survey would also not give the researcher an insight into how the training system is actually operating on the ground - and that was the aim of this research.

The third and most difficult ² method is observation, including participant observation, where the researcher takes part in the activities and group life of his/her subjects. It is a method which, however, does not allow much scope for probing unless it is used in conjunction with other techniques. It also requires the researcher to be well trained in what to look for and how to record it. Sometimes participant observation is impossible to "pull off":

"I did not use true participant observation, since I could not have worked alongside young women on typewriters, data processors or sewing machines in the more skilled jobs." (Griffin 1985,102)

Although not limited by the ability to undertake the work as Griffin above, it was felt that this would not be a fruitful technique in four busy stores, where in the limited time available one might well have spent a week watching and helping young people fill shelves. However, non-participant observation was used: observing and noting down how the stores operated, which tasks the trainees were expected to perform as well as gaining an impression of the general atmosphere in each branch and department.

6.2. Case Study Approach

Not all research subjects are equally suitable for each of the methods discussed above. Constraints of time, finance and willingness on the part of the participants often further limit the use of certain research methods. The case study approach is the exact opposite of the sampling or survey method, because instead of wide representability an in-depth view of a situation is gained:

"Das Fallstudienkonzept hat ohne Zweifel bedeutsame Vorzüge: Es ist eher in der Lage, nationale Unterschiede zu erhellen, und liefert eine detailliertere Analyse der institutionellen und kulturellen Zusammenhänge." (Dierkes 1984,25)

Dierkes, when discussing cross-national comparative research states that the case study approach has the advantages of highlighting national differences and it also provides a detailed analysis of the institutional and cultural context. This is one of the main reasons for choosing this approach. In the context of vocational training the use of case studies seem to suggest themselves because they bring more

insights than other research methods given the diversity of British training provision (cf Chapter 3).

The case study approach probably falls between the experiment and the survey in terms of scientific acceptability and usefulness to the practitioner, and in terms of capacity to produce theoretical advances (Bennett 1979,11). As this is the method which has been adopted the positive and negative aspects will be explored in more detail below.

The main criticisms of the case study approach are that it has not been employed in a sufficiently scientific way to advance theory and that it does not lend itself to generalisations, however, carefully used:

"It must be recognised, though, that single cases may have little value in explaining events outside the confines of the case itself - it thus lacks 'generalisability'." (Bennett 1979,12)

Hall et al argue that case studies can, therefore, never form the basis of theory, because questions of interdependence, overlap, weighting or relevance are not taken into account systematically. They continue, nevertheless, to state quite rightly that some hypotheses would be very difficult to confirm or refute by any method because of their imprecision and high level of generality (1975,15).

These criticisms, coupled with the fact that the small number of companies studied in an industry where diversity rules, thus limiting the testing of hypotheses, have to be taken on board. As far as the design of this research is concerned no other method was able to provide an insight into the way training is conducted or to gauge the views of trainees. As Watts states about his case study in three schools:

"Such condensed fieldwork inevitably carries dangers of superficiality and omission If however there is a reasonably specific theme for the enquiry, it can provide a snapshot . . ." (1983,37)

My study, although providing "a snapshot" is firmly grounded in the detailed information presented in the previous chapters. The case studies are thus not isolated or removed from their wider context, but provide details of what is happening at the grass-roots level. Moreover, as Bennett has written:

"The field study (of which the case study is a particular example) has considerable use in training research. ... the study involves measuring, looking at -studying!- what is there, how it got there, and what's now going on, ... with breadth of coverage being sacrificed for depth of probing and understanding." (1979,11)

This is very much what my case studies are intended to do - measure, look at and study what is going on in four retail outlets in two countries.

One of the major problems with the case study method is the researcher's lack of control, which is, however, a two-edged sword:

"...they do not attempt rigorous control - both a strength and a weakness. The strength is that we obtain greater realism in the research; the weakness is that things may get out of hand (sudden incidents erupting) destroying the validity of the research. Field studies are often costly and time consuming, and may, of course, not produce much in the way of earth-shattering conclusions. ... In a more specific sense, studies can be confined to particular persons or units or organisations, and such case studies can produce illuminating information." (Bennett 1979,12)

The point of the case studies was to illustrate by a comparison of two stores in Britain and two stores in West Germany the training methods, attitudes of trainees, trainers and managers towards training in the retail sector. Unexpected events both in the stores and in the life of the researcher affected the case studies. The fact that the Personnel Manager at the German supermarket had to unexpectedly run a course in another town during my week in the company is an indication of realism but also of "sudden incidents erupting". The research conducted in this study is, therefore, governed by similar reservations to those quoted above and others:

"The availability of different groups imposes constraints upon data collection, and can again introduce systematic distortion." (Ball 1983,83)

Undertaking the case studies concurrently in the two countries was obviously not possible by a sole researcher and great reliance had to be placed on the availability of the relevant staff and trainees in uncontrollable circumstances. If it had been possible to conduct team research some of the distortion might have been avoided (though other distortions may have arisen). It was impossible, due to financial constraints to go back to the German companies to gather any missing

information, which for whatever reason was not available during the week of my visit. Filling in these gaps by letter and telephone did not always prove fruitful. Even in Birmingham some of the store managers were not available on the days I was allocated to go to a specific supermarket branch and I had to obtain as much information as possible from either the local training manager or the regional office.

The interview has a fundamental role in social and behavioural research. There is the shorter, structured fact-finding orientated interview and the more lengthy unstructured in-depth interview. Both types of interview allow exploration and probing in depth to varying degrees. It is a technique which suffers from difficulty of recording the information as tape recorders are not always practical or their use is not permitted by the person controlling the interview process. It can be used, as can the other methods to conduct longitudinal research, where the original subjects are studied again after a certain time lapse. Although this would have been desirable in this study, it was an approach, which was unfeasible due to time and financial constraints.

However, having grown up bi-lingually and bi-culturally some of the problems of cross-national research could be avoided, especially as far as conducting the interviews was concerned:

"The social production of an interview involves the establishment of an asymmetrical relationship between interviewer and interviewee through the use of language as a form of meta-communication." (Ball 1983,93)

In all studies where people are the 'subjects' their views of the researcher and of the research itself will affect their behaviour and responses. Just as the views of the researcher will affect the interpretation of their responses. Griffin found:

"Young women often turned my questions around, asking how I had felt on leaving school, how I had found my first job and so on." (1985,101)

This was also very much the case in my research and I agree with Griffin's response:

"... I saw them as part of the reciprocal nature of the research process. Research is not (or at least it should not be) a one-way process by which social scientists coax information out of 'subjects' only to disappear and analyze the 'data'." (1985,102)

As in all field research, including case studies, the criteria of the scientific experiment were used insofar as was possible. To this end the researcher tried to make environmental factors as similar as possible, so as to reduce the number of variables which could influence the results. In comparative case studies this means choosing subjects which are as similar as possible - (broadly) matched samples. This is perhaps possible when the case studies are carried out in the same country or when researchers from different countries operate in their own countries (cf Prais and Wagner; Sorge and Warner), but when research is carried out by a single person in two countries these strict scientific criteria have to be adapted to local circumstances.

It is extremely difficult to find a perfectly matched pair of companies regarding size (selling surface area), geographical location, number of employees, turnover, management structure, number of trainees and technology used to name just some of the criteria one could use to decide upon two comparable establishments. These factors are further complicated when dealing with two countries with a different administrative apparatus in place. Although the above named factors have been taken into consideration when it was possible to obtain precise information, they do not seem determining criteria as far as practices and attitudes to training are concerned.

The case study method was, therefore, the only realistic research method to use to obtain an insight into the operation of the training system in both countries.

6.3. Retail Training Case Studies: Some Hypotheses

In British retailing no uniform system of training a shop assistant exists, with companies, FE colleges, examination boards and managing agents all devising different training course contents which may or may not be approved by the MSC. There is a move towards devising a uniform

retail qualification which will potentially enable young salespeople to demonstrate their skills and knowledge not just in one shop but across the industry and possibly transfer those skills to a related industry. In West Germany a new training regulation for retail trainees has finally been agreed after more than ten years of intense discussions between the social partners. Both countries are insisting on a first year of broad-based training with subsequent years being more occupationally specific. In Britain doubts among some retailers and training agencies arose as to what could be covered in a two year training scheme for a shop assistant (YTN April 1986,2-3). In West Germany the argument centred on abolishing two year training and replacing it by a three-year training programme which was more sales and product related than previously. Why such disparate views should exist can really only be explored via case studies: questioning individuals in a particular setting to understand their attitude to training.

Based on the above, certain broad hypotheses can be put forward: some simple and relatively easy to demonstrate, others of a more complicated nature. Firstly, it is expected that proportionally more young people will be found to be receiving training in the German companies than in the British ones and this will be reflected in the value and importance placed on training in each of the companies. It is expected that British retailers compared to German ones will be less committed to training. As a result training will be less structured in Britain and less well-organised. It will be less developed and there will be less off-the-job training than in West Germany. Training will be more company-specific than in Germany and the general educational content will not be so obvious.

Secondly, as the West German training system is tightly structured both legally and through tradition and examinations to test the knowledge of the trainees, it is expected that the differences between the two German stores will not be great, both in terms of training philosophy and in terms of trainees' attitudes to training. The difference between the two British stores will be greater and will depend on the individual views of the training managers and their interpretation of the MSC guidelines. One would, therefore, expect training to play a

central role in the West German companies both in terms of finance and personnel. In Britain, it would still very much be a side issue, but gaining in importance, with more staff having been employed since the start of YTS and more attention paid to training.

The third hypothesis states that the training material available to German companies will be more developed, with a variety of sources available. The integration between on- and off-the-job training will be obvious, even if there is still mistrust between the two training providers - the Berufsschule and the company. Both providers would be following the recognised training guidelines and training towards a nationally recognised qualification. In the British companies the training will be of a more experimental and tentative nature and the training material used in the two companies will vary quite considerably.

The fourth hypothesis concerns the attitudes of the trainees and the ex-trainees. Only a brief indication of the broad hypotheses will be given here and the more detailed expectations will be discussed at the beginning of Chapter 7. In general, it is expected that the German trainees will have more positive attitudes towards training, to be clear about why they are doing an apprenticeship, but perhaps not to have chosen retailing as a first choice. The British trainees, it is hypothesized, will have chosen YTS as a second choice option, having looked for a job first and been unsuccessful. Their attitude to shop work may be more positive than that of the German trainees. The image of retailing might be more strongly influenced by the type of store the trainees are training in than in which country they are training.

Fifthly, it is expected that the ex-trainees will have reached higher positions in the company structure in West Germany than in Britain, to understand the promotion structure and to have found their training useful. The British sales assistants who have had formal YTS training will on the whole still be working as shop assistants and not have seen their training as of great importance. The number of British sales assistants who had completed any training will also be much smaller than in West Germany.

These five broad hypotheses have been formulated in order to focus the discussion in the case studies. The aim of this section, therefore, is to compare the concept of training, philosophy of training and attitude to training plus the actual content of the training programme of two supermarkets and two department stores. As regards the latter it is intended to establish how important each component is seen by the trainees, ex-trainees and the management, and more specifically how selling skills are taught and how training prepares for eventual changes in technology. This information can then be used within the established system of vocational training in each country to determine whether there are aspects which can usefully be used by the other country.

6.4. Background to the Case Studies

"Case study research must inevitably involve making compromises, at all stages from the initiation of the fieldwork to the completion of the final draft report." (Ball 1983,83)

In my case it was going to be impossible to interview all young people in a specific town who were undertaking a retailing apprenticeship or YTS and the only feasible way of obtaining the detailed information required was to undertake case studies. The survey method had already been rejected as a suitable methodology for this type of comparative research (6.1.) which meant that, although case studies can only be used to test very broad and general hypotheses, looking in greater detail at a certain number of retail outlets and their trainees would enable me to see whether training on the ground was actually so very different in the two countries. Both the quantitative data analysed in Chapter 1 and the developments of the training system in broad terms (Chapters 2 and 3) and finally the changes specifically in retail training (Chapters 4 and 5) would lead one to expect considerable differences (6.3.).

To obtain a representative sample of retail outlets it was originally intended to compare a department store, a supermarket and a small corner shop in each country to assess the views of trainees, ex-trainees and training managers. However, access to a corner shop

proved impossible in Frankfurt. ³ In Britain a small shop had in principle agreed to participate via a private managing agent. Although the operation of private managing agents was one of the major criticisms of YTS and would have been an interesting topic, the set-up compared to the specialist retailer in West Germany would not have been comparable. Due to further time constraints it was decided to concentrate on the department store and supermarket. This has advantages in that training in a small shop is likely to vary greatly from shop to shop, depending largely on the attitude and willingness of the owner, whereas training in large chains, be they department stores or supermarkets is likely to be more similar from outlet to outlet. Although case studies cannot be used to generalise phenomena, as explained above, this gave the case studies wider applicability. In addition economic constraints and new technological developments are likely to have a similar impact in larger stores.

The criteria adopted for choosing the participating companies has been their recognised good record and reputation of training with the Industrie- und Handelskammer (IHK) in Frankfurt and the Careers Service in Birmingham. All companies agreed to participate and have shown a continued interest in the outcome of the research. It could be argued that the use of companies with a good training record is not going to throw up any "exciting" results, but it is not the aim of this research project to unearth malpractices in one or the other country. The aim is to compare the similarities and differences in the two countries as far as retail training is concerned. In any case, access to companies who do not have a good reputation would have been equally difficult on both sides of the Channel and probably produced a most unfair analysis.

After a short company profile including statistical material and the development of training sales assistants in each company as well as an initial summary of the similarities and differences between the companies as far as retail training is concerned, the selection procedures in the companies will be discussed to see whether the stated training philosophy of the companies are applied at this early stage. The training material and syllabuses will be compared between companies, both in quantitative and qualitative terms with the

conclusions reached at this stage expanded upon by the answers of the trainees themselves. In Chapter 7 the main characteristics of the trainees will be compared, followed by a comparison of their answers to the questions relating to attitude towards training and retailing. These answers will then be put into perspective by the answers of the ex-trainees to see whether in hindsight the training has lived up to their expectations. Finally the attitudes and views of the trainers or managers will be considered to obtain a global picture of each company's position as regards training young people in retailing and to see how this relates to the development of retail training e.g. YTS-2 in Britain and the new training regulations for the Kaufmann/Kauffrau im Einzelhandel in West Germany.

The case studies in Frankfurt and Birmingham were carried out in the Spring and Summer of 1986 when these developments were very much at the forefront of retail managers' minds. The outcomes of these discussions cannot, however, be analysed in this study as this would require follow-up visits to the case study companies to compare the situation now. Unfortunately there was no time to do this. Furthermore:

"Qualitative research always raises problems when it comes to presenting the data; the bulk and verisimilitude of case study data makes it impossible to incorporate it, in its entirety into the case study report." (Ball 1983,88)

Some of the problems inherent in case study research have been discussed above and this study will not give a day-to-day account of activity in the various stores. Instead in the second part of this chapter the relevant background material about the companies and their training philosophy, this being the criteria for having chosen them, the selection procedures adopted to recruit trainees and the training material used will be presented and compared.

6.5. Company Profiles

In order to situate the views of the trainees and ex-trainees the training atmosphere of the four companies will be studied. This will include a description of the company, concerning history, size, training policy, selection procedures and the use of training material.

Ideally the companies should have been situated in their regional context and compared to the typical provision of the locality. ⁴ Only very scant data could be obtained on the British side and it was, therefore, decided to study the companies in isolation, as the case studies are not intended to be bases for generalisation. They are intended as an illustration of good practice and an attempt to look at the detailed view of those receiving training in a positive training environment. ⁵

6.5.1. Department Store, Birmingham (DS/GB) ⁶

The DS/GB is part of a provincial chain of six department stores, four of which are located in the West Midlands including its Head Office founded by the great-grandfather of the present owner/chairman in 1877. All stores have slightly different departments with the store under investigation being more of a fashion house than the others. This results in a larger than normal proportion of female applicants for vacancies i.e. 90%.

On 11.6.1986 the employees were divided as follows:

	Male	Female	Total
Full-time	19	68	87
Part-time	1	116	117
	--	---	---
Total	20	184	204

Full-time = 30 hours per week and numbers are excluding agency members but including catering, office and stockroom staff.

Altogether there are 275 staff on the premises. The DS/GB Group employed a total of 921 full-timers and 721 part-timers in 1984 in all six stores, this being 1,227 full-time equivalents. ⁷ The case study store (SC) is the second largest with 3,675 square meters selling surface for both employee numbers and turnover. The store is situated in the main shopping precinct of the town, enjoying a good location, with easy access by public transport and a car park attached to the building. The group expanded rapidly during the 1960s from its one store, opening three stores between 1963 and 1969 and a further two in the mid-1970s. It is planning to expand further still if good sites are found. ⁸

The stores are run along traditional lines with two joint Managing Directors, one responsible for Sales and Merchandising and the other for Finance, Administration, Personnel and Security. However, the influence of the owner is extremely strong and decisions are not taken hastily, especially as far as innovation is concerned. ⁹ Six-day opening was not introduced until September 1984 and only four computerised cash registers exist in the SC store, installed in 1985. This traditional outlook in no way hampers business, even if the image is a little old-fashioned. Emphasis is placed on serving the customers, conversing with them, and attending to their needs. Surveys are conducted among customers at regular intervals and the main reason given for shopping at this DS/GB is always "personal service". This is not surprising as the store serves a middle class clientele, who are unlikely to portray themselves as bargain hunters or as oblivious to the quality of goods and services. There, therefore, seems to be no reason to change the store philosophy, only to improve it if possible. One way to ascertain whether this general store philosophy is accurate is to look at the attitude to training and the type and quantity of training.

6.5.1.1. Training at the DS/GB

Both the present and the previous Personnel Manager stated that the company was very committed to training. It had run a Junior Training Programme for 16 year-olds for over thirty years. It had been given the DITB award for training and all staff, whether Saturday only, part-time or new management staff undergo induction training. Every Monday morning the store has a half-hour training session in each department and all staff attend "Selling is Our Business", a two day course, run in the firm's time. There are no reasons why the DS/GB would stop training. It would, however, probably train fewer young people if government funding stopped (cf 6.5.1.3.).

6.5.1.2. Junior Training Programme (JTP)

The JTP is run over 36 weeks of the year with no training taking place at Christmas due to needing extra staff on the sales floor and because

it is the best opportunity for trainees to learn what it is like to serve six customers at once. After the course the young people at 17 - 17 1/2 would be classified as Improvers and during the coming year training concentrates on management and social skills in view of promoting suitable candidates to the Management Scheme. Internal promotion is looked upon favourably and encouraged.

There are two intakes per year for the JTP. The minimum entry requirements are two to three good grade O-levels and a couple of CSEs. Normally six young people per year are recruited onto the course at SC. The stated company training policy is that customer satisfaction and service come first with apparently great emphasis on product knowledge, acquired through outside courses, manufacturers' leaflets and brochures in addition to internal training. The validity of this claim will be tested by studying the replies of the trainees.

The seven months Management Training Scheme has an intake of about forty per year with normally five participating from SC. Candidates must have two A-levels and five O-levels. Failure is rare and then due to attitude and behaviour rather than ability to master the course. The success is really determined through strict selection at the interview stage, with management potential having to be visible. Vacancies for assistant managers normally arise within twelve months of completing the course and there is generally a good retention rate of staff, which is relatively unusual in retailing. As many females are attracted to the SC branch these are again lost at the age of 25-30 due to child bearing/family reasons, so the large number of management trainees is justified. A large number of the departmental managers are female in marked contrast with the DS/WG, where the majority are male.

6.5.1.3. Government Schemes

From the above it would seem that this DS/GB has its training worked out, recruits adequate numbers and covers its own needs. However, since 1982-83 the DS/GB has become involved with government-funded training schemes, initially on a very cautious basis. Under YOP, the DS/GB offered WEEP places to three groups of trainees for six months each. These were not employed in the sales area, were all male and did

painting, decorating, maintenance and delivery. The following table shows how numbers have developed since then.

<u>Year of Intake</u>	<u>No. of trainees</u>			<u>No. of trainees kept on after training</u>			<u>No. of trainees receiving further training (Total)</u>
	<u>Total</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>	
1983/84	10	2	8	9	-	-	4
1984/85	24	4	20	14	4	10	2 Probably
1985/86	18	2	16	2	-	2	-
1986/87	18 (vacancies for 1st year)			2			
1987/88	10						

In 1983/84 the DS/GB only offered work placements for a private managing agent under YTS. True to this DS/GB's philosophy it thought it would see how events progressed before running its own scheme. YTS did, however, replace the JTP. There were fifteen places on offer and the Personnel Manager interviewed all of the candidates before agreeing to take them on. Normally this is the job of the Careers Office or Managing Agent, but by doing it themselves the company guaranteed the right calibre trainees were chosen. It is thus not surprising that nine trainees were kept on, although this did mean extra job opportunities were created, as the normal intake on the JTP would only have been six.

In 1984/85 a large number of the 24 trainees taken on left the course before the end, but as normally only six would have been kept on, keeping fourteen, again meant that extra jobs were created. As six-day opening was introduced in 1984 there was obviously a greater need for staff, but the DS/GB also felt that it did not want to lose good trainees. Of the 18 trainees on YTS during the period of the case study (1985/86) two had already been offered employment and several were very hopeful of being kept on after the completion of the scheme. For 1986/87 there would again be 18 vacancies.

6.5.2. Department Store, Frankfurt (DS/WG) ¹⁰

The DS/WG, founded in 1879, had 85 branches throughout West Germany in 1984 and is now part of the DS/WG Konzern, which includes various other retail outlets including fashion, food and general merchandise. The Group employed 43,744 full-time equivalents in 1984, with the DS/WG employing 31,783 of these (DS/WG Geschäftsbericht 1984,16). 25% of employees are part-timers. ¹¹ The gender split for 1984 was 72.4% females and 27.6% males. For 1985 it shifted more towards 80/20. Foreign workers represented 5% of the workforce. For the Frankfurt branch the figures were as follows:

	<u>July 1984</u>	<u>July 1985</u>
No. of employees sales	768	798
No. of employees non-sales	316	303
	=====	=====
Total	1,084	1,101

Out of the sales assistants, not including senior sales assistants, trainees, temporary helpers and departmental managers and their assistants, the full-time and part-time division was as follows:

	<u>July 1984</u>	<u>July 1985</u>
Full-time sales assistants	282	285
Part-time assistants (not full-time equivalents)	207	225
	===	===
Total	489	510

In 1985 the 225 part-time sales assistants represented 28.5% of the sales force. It was indicated that this would increase, and in fact by February 1986 the number of part-time employees including the non-sales staff had increased by twelve.

The Frankfurt branch has a selling surface of 19,025 square meters which is double the average 8,613 square meters, the DS/WG having 732,112 square meters selling surface in 1984. It is situated in the pedestrian zone of the city centre, easily accessible by public transport, the underground stop being directly below it.

Main stores in a geographical area are grouped together and administered from a regional warehouse. Each store is a profit centre with a minimum price policy in existence. Both central and store buying operates, with the departmental manager thus having a certain amount of control over product range. Branches in town centres are to be made more up-market targeting the top 10,000 of the local population. This policy as yet is more evident in Head Office with gourmet corners in the Food Hall and an expansion of the computer and office equipment as well as the sports and leisure sections.

Although six day opening has existed in this DS/WG longer than in the DS/GB, the DS/WG is against Sunday opening and longer opening in the evenings. All day Saturday opening only occurs on the first Saturday of every month and the four Saturdays before Christmas, as laid down by the German law on opening hours. The DS/WG is open 57 hours a week with each full-time employee working a 38 1/2 hour week. It is up to the departmental manager to ensure that there are enough staff to cover the section at all times.

Company loyalty as in the DS/GB is not a great problem in the DS/WG, thus not representative of the retail trade in general (Jarvis and Prais 1989, 58-74). 74.5% of employees in 1984 had been employed for more than five years by the DS/GB and 45.5% more than ten years (DS/WG Geschäftsbericht 1984, 16).¹²

6.5.2.1. Training at the DS/WG

The training policy is a reflection of the above with most of the following statements made in the 1984 Annual Report referring to the DS/WG group and the information referring to the Frankfurt branch obtained through interviews.

As the development of the company greatly depends on the qualification of its employees special emphasis has for a long time been accorded to training and continuing education. Training has been carried out in the DS/WG since the company was founded in 1879 or in any case since the war according to the Training Manager in the Frankfurt branch. A large number of employees at all levels participated in internal and

external training events to become more qualified. 3,540 employees took part in internal seminars.

At the end of 1984 3,709 trainees were employed in the DS/WG Konzern (3,242 of those in the DS/WG), with 1,375 of them having started that year (1,267 of the total in the DS/WG) and being trained in nine recognised training occupations. Out of the total number of trainees in the nine recognised occupations approximately 80% are trained in sales jobs i.e. as Verkäufer/in (VK) or Einzelhandelskaufmann/frau (EHK) in the DS/WG rising to almost 90% for the Frankfurt branch in 1984.

Trainees in sales occupations

Frankfurt branch

Out of	49 1st year trainees	44 were VK	= 90%
Out of	49 2nd year trainees	44 were VK	= 90%
Out of	37 3rd year trainees	31 were EHK	= 84%
	===	===	
	135	119	

88% of all Frankfurt trainees were training in sales occupations compared to the DS/WG as a whole, where 82% of all trainees were training in sales occupations.

DS/WG

Out of	1,217 1st year trainees	993 were VK	= 82%
Out of	1,218 2nd year trainees	1,013 were VK	= 83%
Out of	785 3rd year trainees	633 were EHK	= 81%
	=====	=====	
	3,220(excludes repeaters)	2,639	

Although the number of trainees undertaking their training in the DS/WG is high, there has been a steady decline since 1979 with an all time peak of 4,239 reached that year.

Number of trainees in the DS/WG in December of each year

1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984
3,455	3,675	4,000	4,101	4,239	4,056	3,790	3,122	3,040	3,242

However, the numbers fluctuate depending on how many trainees complete their training in any one year and since 1982 the number of training places has been tied to the number of regular jobs. Thus, although a minimum intake of trainees was determined every year anyway, this has since 1982 been directly proportional to the number of employees. However, each year more trainees than the minimum agreed were taken on and even with this extra commitment not until 1984 could the declining trend be reversed, this being due to the decline in the number of employees in the DS/WG Konzern as a whole.

The high number of trainees emphasises the effort being made to train the necessary management from its own ranks. The training is carried out by 71 full-time and a large number of part-time trainers with great success, proven by the fact that 96% of DS/WG trainees pass the examinations, with 47% of them obtaining a Grade 1 (excellent) or 2 (very good). This is above average for the retail trades. There are no reasons for the DS/WG to stop training except if there were not enough trainers in the Frankfurt branch to ensure adequate supervision of the training, or if no further staff were needed (highly improbable), or if the store were to close!

The success rate at the examination taking stage can be analysed in more detail for both the DS/WG and for the Frankfurt branch more specifically (Table 6.1). The average pass rate for EHK in the DS/WG is 97% and 97.6% for the VK, the percentage being slightly lower for the Frankfurt branch with 96% and 94% respectively.

A further indication of success is the number of trainees, who having completed the second year VK exam successfully continue into the third year to take the EHK exam the next year (Table 6.2). The average proportion of trainees continuing into the third year over an eight year period (1976-83) for the DS/WG as a whole was 52% and 41% for a four year period (1976-79) for the Frankfurt branch. This compares favourably with the national average of 25% for the mid-1970s and 40% for the early 1980s (cf Table 4.4). Since the beginning of the 1980s there has been a distinct increase in the proportion of trainees continuing into the third year (almost 70% in 1981). The increase in the Frankfurt branch can be explained by the Manteltarifvertrag, which

came into force on 1 January 1985 in Hessen. This states that although at first a two-year contract is signed with the trainee this must be extended to the third year if the trainee passes the VK exam.¹⁴ The majority of trainees now want to continue into the third year, because the EHK training is not seen as narrow (Schmalspur) training, but as qualified training, in contrast with the VK training.¹⁵

With an increase in the level of school qualifications obtained by school leavers (6.6. below) away from candidates with a Hauptschulabschluß (HSA) and towards those with the Mittlere Reife (MR) the above trend is destined to continue.¹⁶ However, one would also expect the proportion of trainees passing both the VK and EHK exams with higher grades to increase. Over a ten year period for both the DS/WG and the Frankfurt branch it can be shown that between 1975 and 1984 the number of trainees achieving a Grade 1 or 2 in the VK exam increased steadily from 34% to 61% for the DS/WG as a whole (Table 6.3) and from 40% to 60% for the Frankfurt branch (Table 6.4). One would expect the proportions for the EHK exam to be slightly lower with a large proportion of trainees still passing the exams but with lower grades. This is in fact the case, with the DS/WG registering an increase of trainees gaining a Grade 1 or 2 in the EHK exam from 27% to 34% and the Frankfurt branch an increase from 24% to 48% between 1975 and 1984.¹⁷ The results for the new training regulation may not be so good, as they are less academically orientated and more emphasis put on selling skills. However, the mathematical elements have been retained and the higher entrance requirements may still be needed to achieve comparable results.

Even with these good results, if the numbers being trained is to be increased in line with the government's request, the company can unfortunately not offer all the trainees permanent employment. However, the figures for the Frankfurt branch for 1984 and 1985 are relatively positive.

Of the 43 trainees who passed the VK exam in 1984 33 continued into the third year, four were taken on as sales assistants and six left the DS/WG, four of their own accord. Of the nineteen trainees who passed

the EHK exam that year sixteen were kept on and five left, three of their own accord.

In 1985 of the 45 trainees who passed the VK exam 35 continued into the third year, two were taken on as sales assistants and eight left the DS/WG, three of their own accord. Of the 24 trainees passing the EHK exam that year fifteen were kept on in their own department, two were taken on by other departments and eleven left the company, two of their own accord. This is a better retention rate than that of the DS/GB.

6.5.3. Schade & Füllgrabe, Frankfurt

Schade & Füllgrabe, based in Frankfurt is a subsidiary company of the Werhahn-Gruppe in Neuss. It operates around 160 branches in Hessen, Rheinland Pfalz and Bavaria with an estimated turnover of approximately DM 700 million. The company has been trading for over a hundred years and now employs about 3,000 people. Until recently its image was one of quality but at a price, which it is now trying to convert to one of well-run stores providing good value products. Its philosophy is to meet the needs of its customers, because being a regionalised company it can be close to its market. This means not treating the customer as a nuisance whose incalculable behaviour destroys well thought-out strategic plans and confuses the computer. Instead, the customer's needs are met through the provision of fresh products, scanning, service and good logistics. However, this is not enough because all supermarkets will soon have these attributes. The difference, according to Schade's new philosophy lies in the quality of its employees. It costs money to train employees, but Schade is prepared to do this, seeing it as a long term investment. Qualities sought among employees are friendliness, an aptitude to deal direct with customers, motivation, an eagerness to learn and contentment within oneself. All levels of staff are to be imbued with these qualities, with store managers being schooled in psychology in two week courses.

6.5.3.1. Training at Schade

Schade has been training its own sales assistants since this was first possible i.e. since the 1930s. It trains for four recognised training

occupations: VK, EHK, Fleischverkäufer/in (sales assistant specialised in selling meat products) and Fleischkaufmann (sales orientated butcher), the latter having been started about twelve years ago, involving 35 young people in the three years with a yearly intake of approximately fourteen. This is quite a feat, because "butcher" does not count as one of the most attractive occupations. With its emphasis on selling and training in Schade's own workshop the fourteen places are normally all filled every year.

Food retailers have traditionally neglected training and thus gained a bad reputation among young people and their parents, who thought that stocking shelves and sitting at the till was all that was involved. Through aggressive advertising aimed at young people and their parents - brochures, an interview by the regional training manager on local radio, interspersed with popular music (available on cassette) and Information Open Days at Careers Offices Schade tried to dispel this image. There is no reason which would make Schade stop training, in fact the opposite is true. In 1983 Schade took on a total of 120 new trainees, in 1984 180 and this was due to rise to 200 in 1985, which would increase the number of trainee places to 420 over the three years, representing a training quota of 14% i.e. 420 for 3,000 employees. A few years ago there was still the risk that other supermarket chains would poach Schade's trained staff by offering higher wages, but with the promotion and further training programme now in place the competition for good candidates has moved back a stage to the selection test (cf 6.6.3.).

In February 1986 Schade employed 344 trainees in the Rhein-Main area divided as follows:

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Total</u>
1st Year	55	98	163
2nd Year	46	82	129
3rd Year	33	20	53
	===	===	===
Total	134	200	344

As with the DS/WG the success of Schade's training can be measured in terms of the examination success of its trainees. Out of 119 VK taking

the examination (including those specialising in meat products) in 1984 50 were taken on as sales assistants and 48 continued into the third year of training. Eight failed the examination (two of these leaving the company) and fifteen either left of their own accord (seven) or were dismissed (eight). Out of 44 EHK in 1984 38 were taken on as EHK, one failed the examination and five left the company, three of their own accord and two were dismissed.

In 1985 out of 106 VK (including those specialising in meat products) 48 were taken on as sales assistants, 49 continued to the third year, three failed the examination and six were dismissed. Out of 57 EHK 46 were taken on as EHK, six failed the examination and five left the company, three were dismissed and two went of their own accord. It can be shown that more males than females carry on with their training into the third year, although the starting numbers for the VK are almost the same:

Schade trainees taking the examinations

(not including sales assistants for meat products)

<u>Year</u>	<u>Type</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
1984	VK	90	48	42
	EHK	44	27	17
1985	VK	90	44	46
	EHK	57	35	22

In 1984 only 31% of female trainees (excluding those specialising in meat products) continued into the third year (35% in 1985) compared to 67% of male trainees (68% in 1985). All those with the Abitur, whether male or female, continued into the third year. The transparency quota for Schade has, therefore, been raised from 40% in 1984 to 46% in 1985 and thus lies above the national average of an estimated 40%. ¹⁸ This can partly be explained by the increased number of trainees who have the Abitur: fourteen in 1985 compared to three in 1984 (cf 6.6.3. below).

The division of female and male trainees continuing into the third year or being taken on as EHK is explained to a certain extent by the average marks achieved in the examinations. In 1984 the average

examination marks for the written and oral VK examination were lower for the female trainees (in each case by 0.4 of a mark) than the male trainees (in 1985 the discrepancy was 0.55 of mark for the written and 0.11 for the oral examination). For the EHK examination in 1984 the female trainees achieved a better average by 0.1 of a mark and the mark for the oral examination was the same for male and female trainees. In 1985 there was, however, a discrepancy of 0.2 and 0.3 respectively in favour of the male trainees, although the overall marks were lower.

In all cases, except for the oral VK examinations in 1984 the trainees who had the Abitur achieved better examination results than those without it. This is to be expected, however, taking into consideration that these trainees have completed the training in one or two years instead of two or three.

Finally, for the three branches where the case studies were carried out the following information is relevant.

Branch 12

Sales surface	2,400 m ²
Location	centre of affluent suburb
Employees	72 of which 23 are male of which 42 are full-time sales staff
Trainees	10 of which 6 are male
Opening hours	Monday to Friday 8.00 - 18.30 Saturday 8.00 - 14.00 Long Saturday 8.00 - 16.00
Cash Registers	IBM scanner tills -First branch to have them, introduced four years ago.
Specialisms	Flagship Schade Centre Markt, therefore, special product range e.g. fresh milk obtainable on tap. Increase in number of male trainees/employees two years ago.

Branch 133

Sales surface 580 m2
Location centre of less affluent suburb
Employees 32 of which 12 work full-time
of which 8 are cashiers
Trainees 3 of which 2 are male
Opening hours Monday to Friday 8.30 - 18.30
Saturday 8.00 - 13.00
(no long Saturday)
Cash Registers Electronic with separate buttons to register dry goods, produce and meat.
Specialisms Only first year trainees because there were no suitable candidates last year.
Regular customers.

Branch 1

Sales surface 870 m2
Location centre of suburb, but only 10 minutes from city centre
Employees 53 of which 31 work full-time
Trainees 6 of which 4 are male
Opening hours Monday to Friday 8.00 - 18.30
Saturday 8.00 - 14.00
Long Saturday 8.00 - 16.00
Cash Registers Scanners - 6 scanner tills were introduced over a year ago
Specialisms Due to location more casual customers, not so many regular customers.

6.5.4. Safeway, Birmingham

Safeway opened its first store at American Falls, Idaho, USA in 1915 and since then has expanded to become the world's largest food retailing group with over 2,300 supermarkets in the USA, Canada, Mexico, Australia, the Middle East, West Germany ¹⁹ and the United Kingdom (since bought by the Argyll Group for £681 million on 24 January 1987 ²⁰ but continuing trading as Safeway).

The first British Safeway store was opened in Bedford in 1963 and since then Safeway have expanded to 132 stores in the United Kingdom in 1986. Safeway employed 19,101 in 1986, an increase of 14.6% over 1985 and remarkable when compared to the 8,892 employed in 1980. With its expansion programme representing an increase of gross selling area from 154,957 square meters in 1980 to 294,837 square meters in 1986 this increase in employees is not too surprising. Safeway's stated policy is to provide customers with better service and value combined with a

standard of quality they can trust. A philosophy, no doubt inspired from the USA and identical to that of Schade. Again the type of staff Safeway are looking for have very similar profiles to those of Schade: ambition, determination, the capacity for hard work, enthusiasm and the genuine desire to succeed.

Technology was implemented early on with all stores having micro-computers which are linked directly to a central computer at Head Office, providing a fast and highly effective communication link, reducing day-to-day paper work and supporting the computerised stock ordering system.

6.5.4.1. Training at Safeway

The general retail philosophy of the store, as with Schade, is reflected in the training policy, which is publicly stated and displayed in the store canteens:

TRAINING POLICY

The need for planned and effective training systems to ensure the initial training and continuous progress of all members of staff, is initially important for the continued profitability of our company.

In order to achieve this systematic development, we undertake to carry out the following four major objectives:

1. To ensure all new employees undertake a trial period of eight weeks. During this period they will undergo a full off-the-job Induction and Basic Training Programme covering all aspects of their job under the control of qualified instructors. On completion of the trial period, the employee's suitability will be finally assessed against a pre-determined standard. The Induction will be carried out during the first week of employment.
2. We are firmly committed to the principle of internal promotion. The company recognises the need for training, wherever possible, prior to promotion/transfer or immediately following promotion/transfer.
3. To ensure a regular appraisal of all members of staff and the opportunities for employees to discuss their individual performance.
4. Encouragement and entitlement to time off to be given to all employees under 18 years of age to attend Further Education courses relevant to the development of their careers.

Chairman & Managing Director Personnel Director

The Regional Personnel Manager for the Birmingham area confirmed this stating that training was an essential function of management. Formal programmes for management trainees were started fourteen or fifteen years ago and for sales staff 40-week traineeships existed. They were traineeships rather than apprenticeships as the young people were not indentured and apprenticeships applied to the specialist areas in the store i.e. produce, bakery and meat. The Safeway brochure advertising job opportunities actually describes these as apprenticeship schemes, under the heading of "Training Programme", whereas for general assistant or a specialist in variety goods or grocery the heading is "Assistants" and there is no mention of training. This seems to indicate that the training of sales assistants is not valued very highly, but the Regional Training Manger at Safeway said that there was no reason for Safeway to stop training. In fact they were looking at how YTS trainees could become apprentices, as the meat and produce ones have in the past. How the YTS trainees view themselves in contrast with the stated policy will be explored in the next chapter.

Training for butchers or bakers for example was carried out predominantly in the store with no day-release, because few FE courses related to what Safeway was training for. The Personnel Manager felt that much research into the operation of retail organisations had to be undertaken before a uniform course for this "very broken up industry" could be devised (cf Chapter 5).

6.5.4.2. Government Schemes

Safeway, in Birmingham at least, was not involved in government-sponsored schemes until the start of YTS in 1983. Until then recruitment took place as and when vacancies arose and was limited to 18 year olds or older, because of local bye laws which state that under 18 year olds may not operate cash registers in a store selling alcohol nor be allowed to clean down dangerous machinery in the butchery and delicatessen sections.

Thus the creation of government schemes has made it possible for Safeway to train under 18 year olds. This has advantages for the young

people, as it gives them the chance of a career in a people orientated environment with good prospects. From the company's viewpoint, there is the possibility of "brainwashing" young people earlier on, getting more loyalty and reducing the staff turnover rate. It leads to a more professional image of retailing from a career and a customer viewpoint. This is important at a time when, as in German food retailing it is hard to recruit enough high calibre staff and the need to train ones own is ever pressing.

Safeway in the Birmingham area acts as its own Managing Agent, but this is not the case nationwide; in Leeds and Manchester for example a private Managing Agent - Link is used, as not enough trainees could be recruited by the Safeway branches there.

The following table shows the difficulty of recruiting onto government sponsored schemes, even in the Birmingham area.

<u>Year</u>	<u>Places Offered</u>	<u>Applicants</u>	<u>Trainees</u>	<u>Number kept on</u>
1983/84	18	10	4	4
1984/85	18	18	12	11
1985/86	18	30	?	?

? = Unknown at the point of undertaking the case studies.

According to the Personnel Manager the low take-up is due, on the one hand to the image of retailing and, on the other to the image of YTS. If the places were offered as jobs recruitment would be easier, but the company would then have to pay the going rate which it could not afford as the trainees are extra to requirements. For YTS-2 extra finance seems to have been found as this is seen as a permanent recruitment tool. ²¹

The YTS course was designed by the Personnel Manager using the MSC guidelines for the Selling and Personal Service OTF.

Detailed information on the branches where the case studies were carried out is only available for the one branch. ²²

KH Branch

Sales surface	976 m ² ²³
Location	centre of affluent suburb
Employees	56 of which 22 are male of which 22 are full-time
Trainees	2 of which 1 is male
Opening hours	Monday to Thursday 8 am to 8 pm Friday 8 am to 9 pm Saturday 8 am to 8 pm
Cash Registers	Electronic with separate buttons to register dry goods, produce and meat
Specialisms	none of note.

6.5.5. Summary

Although the same information is not available for each company a summary of the main features can be made (Table 6.5).

The DS/WG and the DS/GB were founded at approximately the same time, with the British supermarket being thirty years younger than the German one. Taking into consideration the fact that the DS/WG is a national chain and the British DS a regional one, employee numbers are obviously lower for the British one and vice versa for the supermarkets.

All four companies are publicly committed to training both at local and national level. None of them would stop training sales assistants as their future depends on their staff, both in terms of recruiting their own future managers and in the case of the German DS for social reasons as well. The DS/GB would probably train less young people if there was no government support and the DS/WG would only stop training if training supervision in a branch was inadequate to meet the national guidelines. However, the two German companies train more sales assistants in proportion to the number of employees than do the two British companies, as has already been concluded is the case for the two countries as a whole (Chapter 5).

Taking the figures for 1984 for the DS/WG, 135 trainees are trained for 1,084 employees, giving a ratio of 125 trainees for every 1,000 employees in the Frankfurt branch. ²⁴ Another interesting comparison is the number of employees per square meter of selling surface. It appears that there is one employee for every 18 square meters. ²⁵ The

figures for the DS/GB are for 1986, where there were eighteen trainees for 204 employees, this being 88 trainees for every 1,000 employees and one employee for every 18 square meters.

In 1986 the branch of the German supermarket most comparable to the Safeway branch for which there are full details had six trainees for 53 employees, this being a ratio of 113 trainees for every 1,000 employees (115:1,000 for Schade as a whole) ²⁶ and one employee for every 16 square meters. The British supermarket had only two trainees for 56 employees in one of its branches the same year, this being a ratio of 36 trainees for every 1,000 employees and one employee for 17 square meters of selling surface.

In all cases the figures apply to all staff, both full- and part-time and not to full-time equivalents. As the German companies would have trainees over three years it is to be expected that their ratios are better than those of the British companies whose ratios are also likely to improve with the advent of YTS-2. When compared to the national picture both the German and British stores are training above or around the average for the distributive trades, with the DS/GB training almost three times more than the national estimated average. The ratio for West Germany being 126:1,000 in 1987 and an estimated ratio of 30:1,000 in 1984 in Britain. ²⁷ The enormous difference in the training ratio between Britain and Germany is more marked than the ratio between the companies. It is interesting to note that the area expected to be covered by employees is almost identical in all the stores, not varying between department stores and supermarkets, which could have been expected due to the different selling methods employed.

The DS/WG employed two full-time trainers for its 135 trainees and all the departmental managers and/or their assistants are expected to carry out training especially in product knowledge. This was rarely the case in the DS/GB with departmental managers not necessarily being specialists in the products of their departments. The Personnel Manager at the DS/GB doubled up as the Training Manager, supported by an administrative assistant. At Schade each branch manager also had to be a qualified trainer and there was a Regional Trainer and an administrative assistant as well as the Personnel Manager who was

heavily involved in training. At Safeway there was one Regional Training/Personnel Manager and each store had its own in-store trainer, responsible for YTS. Although staffing levels in the training departments were, therefore, approximately the same, German stores, training a larger number of trainees relied to a large extent on other members of staff to teach specific subject areas. In the DS/GB supplementary training sessions on more general aspects e.g. energy conservation would be given by one of the store managers and outside speakers would be called in to cover wider topics e.g. fire prevention would be covered by someone from the fire service. There is, therefore, more in-house expertise available in German stores than in British ones.

The DS in both countries have good employee retention rates, so one would expect a certain contentment among sales assistants working for these two companies. Internal promotion is encouraged in all four companies and based on performance in the job as an individual and not only on success in examinations. The German companies do, however, rarely keep on trainees if they have failed the VK or EHK examination. The German DS offers the largest number of trainees permanent employment and the British supermarket the lowest out of the four companies. However, in both countries the trainees are not guaranteed a permanent job at the end of their training and are thus encouraged to prove their worth to the companies. In the British companies YTS has led to more jobs being created for young people under 18, but there is no way of proving whether these jobs would not have been available anyway.

In all four companies it is recognised that the image of a career in retailing needs to be uplifted, especially as far as food retailing is concerned. In the following section this feeling is demonstrated by the very strict selection criteria now being applied to potential trainees for entry onto a training scheme in any of the four companies.

6.6. Selection Procedures

The image of the job of sales assistant is not one of an intellectually or academically inclined occupation:

"... produced an image of the salesperson as an unthinking, uncreative cog in the wheel of retailing, and the skilled productive worker capable of making an important contribution to the organisational effort has been consigned to the dustbin of retail history." (Clark 1983,35)

It can, however, be shown that in West Germany the qualification level required to enter even this occupation is rising; where previously the HSA was the norm an increasing number of young people now have the MR and some companies are actively recruiting Abitur candidates, worried about the lack of management staff potential in an industry where working your way up from the shop floor is still very much encouraged. ²⁸

As discussed each company had an image of the type of young person it would like to recruit with academic qualifications only being one criteria. However, in the two German companies the tests which the young people have to take had been designed by the Head Office training staff and were rigorously applied. Although there was no shortage of applicants for the German companies, obtaining the right type of candidate proved difficult.

6.6.1. Selection Procedure at the DS/WG

Out of the four stores only the DS/WG branch kept detailed statistics on recruitment, including the number of applicants each year, their qualifications and their test results. These have to be supplied to Head Office. For the other three stores the information is more varied.

The development towards recruiting higher academically qualified candidates and less trainees with low or no school qualifications is best demonstrated by the following two tables showing figures for the DS/WG as a whole (Table 6.6) and for the Frankfurt branch (Table 6.7). Over a period of ten years the proportion of trainees entering the

DS/WG with the HSA has decreased from 71% in 1975 to 37% in 1984, whereas those with the MR have increased from 25% in 1975 to 54% in 1984. In the Frankfurt branch the proportions have in fact consistently been better than those of the DS/WG as a whole, with the proportion of those trainees with a HSA dropping from 41.7% (52.3% in the DS/WG) in 1982 to 20% (37% in the DS/WG) in 1984, and the candidates with MR rising from 57% (42% in the DS/WG) in 1982 to 73% (54% in the DS/WG) in 1984. A summary of the proportion of trainees with the HSA over the last ten years is given in the table below:

Proportion of DS/WG trainees with the HSA (including those with the HSA & BGJ) in percentages

Year	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
DS/WG	71	59	56	56	-	56	55	52	43	37	-
Ffurt	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	42	33	20	24

This trend very much mirrors the trend for all occupations (cf Table 1.13) and for retailing specifically (cf Table 4.5).

All applicants have to take a test, composed of a dictation, mathematical problems, filling in the gaps in a text, memory recall and a comparison of two lists of numbers to determine accuracy (Appendix 14). The test lasts one hour and is only intended as one of several selection criteria, the application form, school results and the interview being the others. Over three-quarters of the applicants are female as demonstrated below:

Application Statistics for the DS/WG

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total number of applicants</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Suitable after test</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
1984	427	96	331(78%)	95	31	64(67%)
1985	376	89	289(77%)	107	39	68(64%)

At this stage there is still a stronger chance for a female than a male candidate to be offered a place. However, 48% in 1985 and 35% in 1984 of the male candidates who took the test were deemed suitable, whereas the proportions for female candidates were 30% and 25% respectively:

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total Number offered</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Total uptake</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
1984	64	25	39	47	19	28(60%)
1985	69	23	46	47	12	35(74%)

After the interview, which not all those successful in the test attend, the odds for the female candidates are again evened out with 82% in 1985 and 89% in 1984 of male candidates being offered a place compared to 79% in 1985 and 91% in 1984 of female candidates. Finally, proportionally more male than female candidates have recently rejected a training place at the DS/WG: 48% in 1985 and 24% in 1984 compared to 26% in 1985 and 28% in 1984 of female candidates. Indirectly this demonstrates that among young people the occupation of shop assistant is very much seen as a female occupation and even with positive discrimination for males, a larger proportion of these reject a training place, probably in favour of a "more masculine" one.

Approximately thirty candidates turned up to take the test on one afternoon during my week in the company, which was probably going to be the last test for 1986. At this late stage in the year (March) very few candidates obtain enough points to satisfy the DS/WG criteria. Out of the last two sessions of forty candidates only four were invited for an interview. A brief look at some of the returned copies confirmed this: the dictation contained several errors and even in the filling the gap exercise, which seemed one of the easiest, gaps had been left.

6.6.2. Selection Procedure at the DS/GB

Compared to the DS/WG the DS/GB had a less rigorous selection procedure. The minimum academic criteria to enter the training scheme at the DS/GB were four CSEs Grade 3 or above. The DS/GB does not get involved with low achievers or those with bad academic records because written and spoken English are important due to the high degree of administrative work at the point of sale. As the training is in-house the trainees need to have a similar academic level to prevent some pulling ahead and others falling behind. Low achievers, it was felt, would jeopardise the reputation of the DS/GB when trainees went on the shop floor, which they do very early on. There is no top level, but six O-levels have been known. The company feels that anything lower

than four CSEs would mean that the trainee could not cope with the off-the-job part of the training. However, the company was prepared to be flexible if there were special circumstances e.g. illness.

Trainees for YTS were selected on the basis of a half hour interview, but for YTS-2 a written test, devised by Head Office would have to be taken, lasting about one hour (Appendix 15). This is intended to test the level of numeracy and literacy of the candidates, because the company feels that if a trainee cannot add up they are not going to benefit greatly from the scheme. For the sixteen places for 1985/86 75 candidates had been interviewed for half an hour each.

6.6.3. Selection Procedure at Schade

The statistics for Schade are unfortunately not as complete as for the DS/WG, but the following figures demonstrate the same rising qualification trend:

Qualifications of Trainees in the Second Year of their VK training (not including EHK)

in percentages

<u>Year</u>	<u>HSA</u>	<u>MR</u>	<u>Abitur</u>
1984	na	na	3
1985	na	na	13
1986	17	70	13

There are a maximum of two to three trainees per year who have completed the BGJ. The company is not very enthusiastic about taking them on, because they would have to recognise six months of their previous training.²⁹ The trend away from school leavers with minimum school qualifications towards those with university entry qualifications is again demonstrated. Although in 1986 the number of applicants for retail training (both VK and EHK) had dropped by at least 20% in Hessen, more and more Abitur candidates, mainly females were looking for training places,³⁰ but with the view in mind that EHK was not the end of the line. Schade has reacted to this trend by offering rapid promotion to these well-qualified candidates ("Positionsköder"). Whereas the DS/WG was not too keen on having too large a number of Abitur candidates, Schade were keen to increase the

number of applicants with this qualification. However, during the two days I participated in the selection tests at Schade, the applicants had qualifications at the other end of the scale with the majority having, or about to take, the HSA. Educational qualifications are very much the preselection criteria:

"Bereits der Besuch eines bestimmten Schultyps und das Schulzeugnis werden als Handhaben benutzt, einen unerbittlichen Verdrängungswettbewerb von oben nach unten zu legitimieren."
(Adam et al 1981,25)

Although higher educational qualifications may not actually be needed initially, companies are adapting their recruitment patterns to the changes in the supply side of the market. Even in a time of a shortage of candidates in 1986 for retail positions lengthy test and selection interviews were rigorously undertaken in the German companies. The Training Manager at Schade indicated that whereas in the past poaching had taken place by companies with a lower training profile now the competition was taking place at the entrance stage to ensure that the best candidates were recruited and kept to provide management material.

This trend does seem more obvious in West Germany than in Britain, but can be explained by the more radical trend in increasing qualification levels in West Germany through the increased time spent in secondary schooling and higher qualifications obtained (Table 1.33). The deliberate policy of the German stores to recruit a certain number of Abitur candidates as future management trainees and the effect of the Manteltarifvertrag in Hessen also contribute to the higher qualification profile of retail trainees in Germany.

At Schade potential trainees first had to take a test (Appendix 16) which was mainly mathematical, including the calculation of percentages and problem-solving, as these will be taught at the Berufsschule. The fact that numeracy is a basic skill in retailing seemed to be less important. The test was devised by the training manager at Schade together with a local Berufsschule teacher. An applicant who has got the HSA should be able to complete pages 1 and 2; pupils at a Realschule or in the tenth class should be able to do page 3; Abitur

candidates are given a different test. Only nine out of the twelve candidates came to take the test but all except for one turned up for the interview three days later. As a result of the interview and test results only two were given definite offers of a place; a further four were given conditional offers and three were rejected. Those who were rejected were offered the opportunity of retaking the test four months later. Criteria such as the distance from the branch to the trainee's home and also whether the manager of a particular branch had asked for a male or female candidate were taken into consideration. ³¹ Two of the candidates were taken on on the condition that they attend Mathematics and/or German classes at night school before starting their apprenticeship, as they had not scored very well in the test. As Schade wishes them to obtain their qualification and do well at the Berufsschule this is quite a normal request. It is something which would never happen in Britain and again explains why the standard of mathematics among German young people is higher than among their British compatriots.

6.6.4. Selection Procedure at Safeway

At Safeway the academic entrance requirements are similar to those of the DS/GB: an average of three or four CSEs or one or two O-levels or a combination of these. Generally CSE type qualifications are acceptable and it is not important if the candidate has failed them, as enthusiasm and interest in retailing shown at the interview would be more important. Safeway were not looking to recruit the seven or eight O-level type. For YTS the only mechanism of selection was an interview with the Regional Training Manager, but for YTS-2 the recruitment stage is going to be the toughest hurdle. Head Office have asked for a minimum of four O-levels, but there can be some flexibility at the local level. The recruitment test (Appendix 17), testing mathematics - mental money calculations, memory and mental dexterity - recognition of fast selling lines will be compulsory. The Regional Training Manager was not surprised or disappointed that only eight trainees had joined the scheme for 1986/87 for the eighteen places available, because the trainees are intended to be potential employees and even managerial material. Trainees failing part of the scheme would not be able to continue.

The DS/GB was more selective in its recruitment than Safeway, whereas the difference between the two German stores was not as great, with in fact Schade attempting to attract a certain proportion of more highly qualified candidates than the DS/WG. This would be to counteract the low image of supermarket retailing, a problem the DS/WG would not experience.

It can be seen that the advent of YTS-2 has made British companies take their selection procedures more seriously. Whereas the German supermarket had been employing selection tests for apprenticeship places for several years Safeway had introduced its test for cashiers only in 1984. The DS/GB had also relied on the interview as a selection mechanism until the advent of YTS-2, whereas the German DS/WG had felt it necessary to devise a uniform test across branches after the increased number of applicants in the mid-1970s, at which point in time branches were using locally devised tests. The guidelines and marking scheme for the DS/WG test are the most comprehensive (Appendix 14).

The new DS/GB test is the most general, testing spelling, basic mathematics: addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, but not related to retailing, problem-solving of a very general nature not related to retailing and writing skills in the form of an application letter and morality or attitude to crime in the form of obtaining the views of the candidate on a given situation (see Appendix 15). Both Safeway and the DS/WG test for accuracy by asking candidates to compare lists of numbers to see if they are the same, but whereas the German test puts the numbers into a retailing context i.e. liabilities and accounts receivable expressed in Deutschmarks the British test is just a string of numbers. Furthermore all the Safeway tests are multiple choice tests. The Schade mathematical test is almost exclusively retail related, testing not only basic pure mathematical skills, but also contextual analysis.³² In contrast with the two British tests both German tests included the calculation of percentages. The Schade written test left the candidate a choice of essay titles, with only the first option: "What do I expect from my occupation" related to retailing. This is used as a subtle mechanism to see how interested a

candidate is in retailing, as well as testing spelling, grammar and hand-writing.

The German selection procedures are more rigorous than the British ones, with school qualifications per se not being important, but being verified through the tests. The result is that more highly qualified young people are becoming sales assistants in the German stores compared to the British ones. Generally speaking the German trainees, especially those in the department store have the equivalent of several O-levels, whereas the majority of British trainees have a few CSEs. Chapter 7 will show whether the qualification structure of the interviewed trainees confirms this.

Before analysing the attitude of the trainees I will look in more detail at what is expected of them and what sort of training material is available to the companies and the trainees.

6.7. Training Material

In West Germany training is controlled by legislation and one would expect trainees to have a contract, log book and detailed training material. Product knowledge material would be available and used regularly, both at the Berufsschule and in the off-the-job internal company training sessions. The difference between the two stores would be limited to product knowledge and company specific information. There may possibly be a difference in the emphasis put on selling skills due to the predominance of self-service in the supermarket. One would expect trainees to have a training plan as this has to be registered at the IHK and for this to be followed. The content of the Berufsschulesyllabus would be identical for the two stores, even if the trainees were attending different schools.

In Britain one would expect the MSC guidelines for YTS to be available and to be followed, as obtaining the government subsidy is dependent on this. However, the approach in the two stores could be very different, depending on the interpretation of the MSC guidelines. One would expect the training material to be less developed and the off-the-job

material to vary depending on whether the trainees were studying towards an externally validated qualification. As both companies have been training young people for several years prior to YTS one would expect some product knowledge material, especially in the DS/GB which prides itself on customer service.

To illustrate this section I have had to rely on the material supplied to me by the individual companies and I will comment on the difference in quantity, detail, design and to what extent the syllabus is applied in practice. ³³ The latter point will also be verified to a certain extent by eliciting the views of the trainees in the next chapter.

6.7.1. Quantity

The German companies were able to supply me with copies of the most recent examination papers, the general content to be learned for the examinations (Stoffkatalog), the training contract, the Berufsschulesyllabus and the training plan with the content to be covered in the company (Appendix 18A). The British companies had very little MSC material available, providing me only with employer and trainee guidelines for the log book and YTS certificate. Other information did not seem freely available in the companies. Documentation on core skill areas and the specific details for the OTF Selling and Personal Service as well as safety leaflets have, therefore, been added from other sources (Appendix 18B). The lack of MSC guideline documentation in the British stores demonstrates the newness of YTS, with the companies frequently stating that they had not been supplied with more information, or a lack of importance attached to these documents in running the schemes. The German companies, although not referring to their guideline documents daily had obviously used them to devise their individual company training plan and material.

The individual company training material, including the documentation supplied to the trainees is very much more comprehensive for the German than British companies. DS/WG trainees are supplied with company regulations, fire precaution regulations, an introductory list for new employees, the vocational training contract, the product knowledge

framework plan, sales related product knowledge plans, a set of cards to act as reminders of how to sell successfully and copies of the main legal texts e.g. the Jugendarbeitsschutzgesetz, Youth at Work Protection Act and a lengthy guide on till procedures (Appendix 18C).

Schade trainees are supplied with a very similar set of documents from the company. In addition they are required to buy a folder at the beginning of their training costing DM 43 and DM 26,50 p.a. thereafter which provides them with up-to-date product information on goods sold in a supermarket. Some of the material is covered in in-company seminars but some of it is left to the trainees to learn on their own as the information is sent to their home address (Appendix 18D).

The DS/GB, although not having nearly as much information available for its trainees as the DS/WG, had produced an outline scheme plan covering the learning aims of YTS but not relating these to the core skills. This was more evident in the 1985/86 proposal (Appendix 18E) which is the one the trainees who were interviewed were following. Neither outline was as detailed as the two German ones. "Selling is Our Business", a course run for two days for trainees and staff is very similar in concept to the audio-visual (AV) programme used by the DS/WG but not as detailed (6.7.3.). All trainees were supplied with a member's guide including employment conditions, the company's philosophy and safety regulations as well as a till drill card.

Safeway, although providing copious literature on nutrition for its customers, was sorely lacking in this area for trainees. It could not be established whether this literature doubles up as internal company training material. Trainees are supplied with a staff handbook, which covers safety procedures, working hours and other company-specific rules and regulations. A condensed version of the YTS-2 "Ambition" programme is the content of the training programme followed by the trainees who were interviewed in 1986 (Appendix 18F). They, however, do not seem to have received such a detailed plan. Product knowledge material was not evident in either of the British stores, although product folders are referred to in Safeway material for use in certain departments for consultation by the trainee and the training manager at the DS/GB said manufacturers' leaflets were used.

In summary it is clear that the training material, both of an official nature and company-adapted available to German trainees is more extensive than that provided to British trainees. The German companies were proud of the material they had developed and keen to give me copies. The British companies, maybe because they were not proud of it, were reluctant or unable to give me copies of anything.

6.7.2. Detail

In neither of the British companies was there any evidence of product information being freely available to trainees, or for provisions for them to obtain this. In the Safeway training plan trainees are encouraged to look at the product knowledge folder lodged with the relevant department. At the DS/GB product knowledge is sometimes covered in the Monday morning half-hour training session. This is not geared specifically to trainees but to the staff of that department. In the DS/WG trainees had product knowledge training in the company through a systematic video self-instruction package (see Appendix 18C8 for an example of glassware product knowledge) and through instruction by junior department managers. During my visit the trainees in the sports department were given a one and a half hour session in the canteen on the different structure of bonding material. This had been covered in the Berufsschule, but not in so much detail. At Schade specific product knowledge is obtained through the subscription taken out at the beginning of the training mentioned above, but documentation is also given out in off-the-job product knowledge classes and both class and home work is demanded. The content is similar to O-level Domestic Science and provides very broad nutritional background information (see Unsere Ernährung - Appendix 18D4).³⁴ Detailed government produced information on buying food is used in the classes as an information resource (see Kennwort Lebensmittel - Appendix 18D3).

Material on the prevention of accidents and safety at work in German retailing has been published by the retail trade association and this is used in addition to specific safety material designed by the Schade training department. The documentation relating to the safe use and

storage of knives in Appendix 18D2 is an excellent example of how the trainees's knowledge can be extended beyond their immediate requirements. Not only is the correct way of using knives explained, but also the different types of knives and their purposes. All companies covered health and safety regulations in their literature and trainees were either given individual company guidelines (DS/WG), or these were incorporated into the company handbook (DS/GB and Safeway), or they were covered using independent and company training material as described above.

Selling skills were covered more extensively in the two department stores than in the two supermarkets, but whereas the DS/WG trainees went through an eighteen-stage cycle including videos and reminder cards, the course is concentrated into two days in the DS/GB, using the same method of videos and reminder cards, but covering just eight topic areas. The topics for both stores are listed under Appendix 18C5 and 18E4 respectively and examples of two cards: "approaching the customer" and "making a related sale" and the trainer's material which is provided with them are lodged in the same appendices.

In the supermarkets more emphasis was placed on presenting the products to their best advantage as the majority of the products sold themselves. Both training plans covered selling skills and the training managers assured me of the importance of customer contact skills in their company's philosophy, but there was not much evidence of it in the training literature. This is perhaps not that surprising, considering that in the grocery sections trainees are rarely called upon to do any direct selling, but both supermarkets have extensive non-self-service sections e.g. delicatessen, bakery, cheese. Trainees in these departments may need more sales training than seemed to take place according to the literature. It could be that the trainees felt they were sufficiently knowledgeable to be able to sell their products and this will be verified in the next chapter.

German training material is, therefore, more detailed than comparable British training material. Not only is it adapted to the trainees, but especially product information is freely made available to them.

6.7.3. Design

As I do not have any product knowledge training material for the two British stores it is impossible to compare the design of these. The difference between the two German stores is mainly linked to the different product ranges sold there. The DS/WG uses a self-learning approach and at regular intervals in the training plan provision is made for the trainee to view relevant product videos. Other product information is covered in the individual department or in the weekly two-hour Berufsschule class. The training plan ensures that the training manager at the DS/WG checks what has been learned at the Berufsschule and makes a record of any gaps which need filling.

A trainee at a DS in Germany remains in one main section throughout the two-year training period e.g. ladies outerwear and, on passing the examinations, becomes a specialised sales assistant for that product range (Fachverkäufer/in). Trainees are not permitted to work on the cash registers until their second year to avoid entry errors and legal complications in case of theft, although training is conducted three months earlier during the summer. The order in which the training is carried out has been chronologically designed on the basis of modular building blocks and learning aims linked to the compulsory training plan. The order does not generally vary except for inventory control which is carried out according to a company timeframe, which may not coincide with the training plan or the Berufsschulesyllabus.

A trainee on the new YTS-2 at the DS/GB will spend six months in each of four different departments (two departments for one-year YTS) to learn basic transferable skills, the stock and specific knowledge relevant to that department. Till training occurs during the first few weeks in the store and trainees are then allowed to use the till in their department. Product knowledge is conveyed in an off-the-job session covering fabric care, origin markings, international symbols and the Trade Descriptions Act. No other examples are given in the training plan, indicating that perfumery, handbags, toys, china and glass etc. are not covered systematically except by observation in the department. Product knowledge checklists (Appendix 18E6) are part of "Selling is Our Business", but can be used by the departmental managers

in Monday morning training sessions to test employee awareness, but these cover comparative selling points rather than in-depth background knowledge. No other product knowledge testing takes place systematically or in a final examination, whereas German trainees have to demonstrate detailed product knowledge in their oral examination.

At Schade trainees have regular product knowledge seminars lasting all day. Classes for approximately 24 trainees are held at Head Office in a special training room. On my initial visit in December 1985 first year trainees were just finishing their second seminar on carbohydrates, egg whites, fats and vitamins. At Safeway "Product Knowledge" is listed as an additional specialism in the first year training programme and only in the new YTS-2 does product knowledge become a basic competence objective in the second year. In the produce department the trainee is expected to study the Produce Manual detailing different produce types, be able to identify different fruit and vegetables, have knowledge of preparation and cooking methods of the produce on display to ultimately be able to advise the customer.

As trainees spend a limited time in each section (three to eight weeks) their product knowledge cannot be of great depth with no further off-the-job training. Only for Produce is a Produce Manual mentioned in the training plan. For delicatessen the trainees are expected to be able to prepare platters for parties and would, therefore, need background knowledge and perhaps some artistic inclination. German trainees have to spend three months in each of the specialist departments e.g. produce, delicatessen, bakery and nine months in grocery (six months of which is the basic training applying to all departments) in three different sections lasting at least three months each. As the training is for two years, the knowledge obtained in each department will be deeper than that of British trainees.

Checkout training is carried out at Safeway according to the in-store training manual over a ten day period (three days off-the-job and two days under direct supervision). Trainees under eighteen are not allowed to operate the till in stores selling alcohol. All the stores I visited sold alcohol and no trainees were observed on the tills. In Schade first year trainees are also generally not put on the checkout

because if there is a case of theft minors cannot be held liable to the same degree as adults.

At Safeway the course was designed by the training manager (as at the DS/GB) following MSC guidelines and obtaining their agreement before putting it into operation. Safeway trainees follow BTEC General (Distribution), with some studying for a BTEC qualification at a local college where a special course for Safeway trainees is run. Schade trainees attend 25 different Berufsschulen in the Rhein-Main area and the order in which the departments are covered in a branch, where there is more than one trainee varies, with each trainee attending the Berufsschule on a different day. Safeway trainees all go to college on block-release for three weeks at a time. DS/GB trainees have two in-house trainers to cover the 65 days off-the-job element under YTS. The training material has been designed by the trainers and covers topics such as advertising, visits to competitors, basic mathematics, store layout, CV writing and interview skills (see Appendix 18E9 for examples of the material given to trainees). Computer literacy is covered in a two-week course run by Key Training. An Outward Bound course lasting a week, where trainees from all the DS/GB stores meet to go mountaineering, rock climbing etc is organised to improve the trainees' personal development. Visits to local companies e.g. Royal Doulton, to West End stores and to the local magistrates court are planned to widen the trainee's view outside work. Similar activities are not listed in the Safeway training plan, but could take place as part of BTEC General. These sort of activities were not usual in West Germany. The DS/WG stated that personal development was covered at the BS, but some trainees at the DS/WG had been sent on special product seminars, involving staying overnight in a training centre with trainees from other stores specialising in the same product range e.g. photographic equipment. In that sense the German syllabus is much more specific than the British one and I will return to this point after analysing the trainees' views.

The design of the selling skills programmes in the two department stores is different. The DS/GB bought "Selling is Our Business" for £5,000 from another department store, whereas the DS/WG commissioned a research institute in Munich to devise their programme. Although not

able to observe the training for selling skills at the DS/WG the literature is very comprehensive. The training plan clearly indicates when which aspect of selling will be covered and each of the fourteen main sessions has additional video material to accompany the off-the-job instruction. For both department stores the video material was dated and the trainees might well feel that, as it appeared old-fashioned to them, it was not relevant to them. Having participated in the DS/GB course for two days the only discernible difference in approach which could be detected was that DS/GB staff are encouraged to give their own opinion on an individual product by asking leading questions ending in "... don't you?". DS/WG trainees were told never to enforce their views on a customer. DS/GB trainees were also encouraged to ask questions to determine the size of a customer, whereas DS/WG trainees, so I was informed, should know this by looking at a customer. Otherwise the general content and approach to selling in the two department stores is very similar.

In summary, the German companies have designed very detailed training plans for their trainees, following the IHK framework plan, this having been in existence for many years. The training is divided into three months blocks and a record kept for the IHK of what has been covered when. At regular intervals off-the-job product knowledge seminars take place and in addition departmental managers teach trainees about products on the shop floor or in short sessions away from the selling area. This latter training is very much dependant on the attitude and commitment of the departmental managers or their assistants. In the British companies product information is sparse in a written form but there are short sessions linked to individual product ranges mainly on the shop floor. It is not undertaken systematically, but the trainee is, nevertheless, expected to have acquired a certain level of product knowledge. The structure of the selling skills programmes in the department stores in essence is very similar and both suffer from having out-dated videos.

6.7.4. Application

With the limited time spent in each of the companies it was not possible to test in how far the training plans were being put into

effect. Although in the case of the German companies I was given access to the log books, I had been warned by researchers at the BIBB that these would not necessarily be a true record. However, at Schade one trainee wrote repeatedly how he had had to clear the trolleys in the car park. He did, however, try to explain this activity, saying that it was important for the customers to have trolleys available to them at the store entrance and that they were otherwise a potential accident hazard. The German weekly logs also provide information about the basic content of the BS lessons, and whether schooling has taken place (see Appendix 18C10 for an example). British trainees are asked to list the main activities of the week, which were most worthwhile and what new things they learned (Appendix 18B8). The trainees kept these log books at home and so I unfortunately did not see a completed one.

At the DS/GB I participated in the selling skills course, but the YTS trainees had taken part in this previously. The Monday morning session involved repeating parts of the modules in the handbag department, but half the session was used to give out the previous week's sales figures over the tannoy and reporting any other company information. However, this seemed to be appreciated by the staff. At the DS/WG I watched some of the videos myself and took part in one off-the-job class for trainees who had just entered their third year. They were instructed in how to do a competition analysis (Appendix 18C9) and the class as a whole seemed generally motivated. In addition I listened to a one and half hour off-the-job product background session on the different ways fabrics are bonded. This was very detailed and far exceeded direct product knowledge. Should a trainee wish to enter another occupation involving textiles this knowledge would be extremely useful and directly transferable. There was no evidence of this type of training occurring in the DS/GB.

In the BS two of the members of staff were ill and substitute lessons for product knowledge had to be given. This is generally the lesson trainees most look forward to and, therefore, practising commercial knowledge questions which were likely to come up in the examination was not a popular substitute. All classes started late, there were several latecomers and quite a number of absentees. The double entry book-keeping class proved difficult for many trainees, especially as they

felt that they did not need to be able to do accounting to be a good sales assistant. The teacher was of the same opinion, but felt a grounding in the basic techniques was useful for those who were continuing to the third year and beyond. In the German class the subject of racism was discussed with very lively contributions from all the trainees. Those who had not seen the film "Ganz Unten" were encouraged to go that afternoon with the teacher. This seemed to be the limit of non-formal teaching. The politics class was the most disruptive. The subject was youth criminality and the execution of punishment, which the trainees were supposed to be working on in groups. However the classes are conducted, it does demonstrate the wide range of subjects covered in German off-the-job training. A list of subjects and their weekly length is given in Appendix 18A5. Although the BTEC General course had finished when I conducted the case study in Safeway and the course tutor was on holiday, having looked at the syllabus, it is not nearly as broad as the content of the German off-the-job programme.

To actually find out how much of the above training material was being used and how much training was taking place was going to mean relying greatly on the views of the trainees and the ex-trainees. Participant observation would only have been useful if it had been possible to spend much longer periods in each store and to follow the trainees in their daily activities.

6.8. Conclusion

It can be concluded that all four companies are committed to training their workforces, they have been training for many years and have training managers to carry out these tasks. The training philosophies are similar in all companies, but training is more professionally organised in German companies, due no doubt to the stricter guidelines, the control mechanisms, external examinations and the longer tradition of training. Details on training expenditure as such were not available in any of the companies, but the DS/GB admitted that it was costing £11,000 to train eighteen YTS trainees in 1985/86. It was not costing the company more to train the greater number of young people as

a result of the MSC subsidy, but an additional administrative assistant had had to be employed in the Personnel Department. Departmental Managers were also having to devote more time to trainees. Both British companies were very suspicious of private managing agents, believing them to be interested only in making a profit.

All companies were aware that the image of retailing needed to be raised and that it was important to recruit the right calibre of young people, with a proportion interested in promotion. The selection procedure in the German companies was stricter, with the tests being more demanding than the British ones. British companies were still very much relying on the personal interview and less on academic qualifications and formal tests, indicating a difference in priorities and the rating of skills. Formal tests began to play an increasing role with the move to YTS-2 and formal externally examined qualifications. The German companies had higher entry standards for their training programmes and even in a market of declining applicants were not prepared to drop their standards. The formalised German system did not allow young people with an interest in retailing but no qualifications to enter a training programme, as they would not have been able to pass the IHK examinations. The pass rate for the examination was important to the German companies with both keeping detailed statistics. It was unlikely that a German trainee who had failed the examination would be offered employment. Success in the BTEC General was not a requirement of being kept on at Safeway and trainees at the DS/GB were offered employment as vacancies arose rather than at the end of the course. This was seen as success.

German trainees receive more off-the-job training in a wider range of subjects of a more educational nature. The off-the-job training in British companies was very much more retail related. German trainees spend one and a half to two days at the Berufsschule and in addition receive in-company off-the-job training whereas British trainees only receive 65 days in their first year and 35 days in their second year. Integration between on- and off-the-job training was evident in the DS/GB where training was taking place in-house. Both German companies were surprisingly negative about the supposed integration between Berufsschule and company. There seemed to be no obvious integration

between training at Safeway and the BTEC General. This issue will be taken up again after obtaining the trainees's views.

The training material available to and in German companies is both more extensive and more detailed. One would, therefore, expect German trainees to be more aware of what their training entailed. The newness of YTS (or more correctly the recent adoption of YTS by the case study companies) was reflected in the lack of official MSC material in the companies. One would have expected more company-specific training material and product information than was in evidence. Without training material trainees cannot be expected to be knowledgeable about individual product ranges. In how far any of these points are important to the trainees will be discussed in the following chapter.

- ¹ Whether this is research or experience, i.e. know-how is difficult to determine.
- ² Non-objectivity is a major problem with this research method.
- ³ The shop recommended by the IHK in Frankfurt did not reply to my initial letter. When explored further it turned out to be a specialist retailer (Fachgeschäft) rather than a corner shop in the British sense of the word. Comparing training provision in this store with a corner shop in Birmingham would have been inappropriate.
- ⁴ Information about the number of trainees in retailing in Frankfurt compared to Hessen and the Federal Republic of Germany in general was sent to me on request from the IHK very promptly. The response from the Careers Service in Birmingham was that the information was not readily available, but I was welcome to come into the offices and try to extract it from the computer myself. At the point in time when this became known to me I did not have sufficient time to invest to compile statistics on what was essentially background information. It does, however, indicate the very different attitude to training of two services heavily involved in the day-to-day administration of the training of two cities.
- ⁵ In an ideal situation the organisational structure of the companies should also have been studied, but as the focus of the research is training it in no way inhibits the findings. It would be interesting in future research to use the organisational structure as a variable for identifying good training companies.
- ⁶ After consultation with the company the term DS/GB, standing for Department Store, Great Britain will be used to identify the store.
- ⁷ DS/GB Annual Report 1984,17.
- ⁸ Also see The Observer 3.5.1987,33
- ⁹ The owner died in the autumn of 1988, making generous provision in his will for long-serving employees. There may now be changes at this department store.
- ¹⁰ After consultation with the company the term DS/WG, standing for Department Store, West Germany will be used to identify the store.
- ¹¹ Talk from Mr Schiffel, Dr Roevenich and Mr Baker in Cologne, during CBI visit 26.11.85.
- ¹² Having used the Annual Report to obtain published facts for both department stores, it is interesting to note the greater detail available on employment and training policies in the German company report. A fact echoed by Roger Crowe in "Why it is vital to keep workers in the picture", The Guardian, 16.7.87,20, where he laments the lack of hard figures in the "Human Resources" section of British company reports, which is the emphasis in the rest of the report and accounts.
- ¹³ Figures for 1980 and 1983 are not available and as these were good years for the DS/WG as a whole, the figures for the Frankfurt branch could, therefore, be negatively influenced.
- ¹⁴ Manteltarifvertrag für den hessischen Einzelhandel: Tarifvertrag über Sonderzahlung und vermögenswirksame Leistungen 17.5.1985, Frankfurt,10.
- ¹⁵ The failure rate for the EHK is greater and someone passing the VK exam with a 4.0 is advised against continuing. Someone with a good 3 at the VK level should pass the EHK exam.
- ¹⁶ As the number of 16-18 year-olds in the population declines this

trend could reverse and candidates with the HSA could see their chances improved.

17 34% in 1984 was a relatively disappointing proportion for the DS/WG, with proportions between 42% and 46% having been registered between 1980 and 1983.

18 If only the figures for the sales assistants, excluding those specialising in meat products, are taken into account the transparency quotas are even higher: 50% and 51% respectively, but the increase is not so marked.

19 Since bought by the Werhahn group of which Schade & Füllgrabe are a subsidiary.

20 Milner, Mark: "Argyll Snaps up Safeway UK for £681 m", The Guardian 24.1.1987, 1 and 20.

21 In the "Ambition" YTS-2 programme trainees receive £27.30 for the first twelve week probationary period. This rises thereafter at twelve weekly intervals to £39.98, £47.97, £59.96 and finally for the last six months to £71.96 gross. The increases are automatic but do depend on the performance of the trainee.

22 Safeway have not replied to my letter requesting further information.

23 The figure given by the Manager of this branch was 10,500 square feet, which he converted to 2,900 square meters.

24 The ratio drops to 45 to 1,000 when only first year trainees are taken into account. This, however, is not a fair comparison with the British figures, although there are only one year trainees in the British companies. It cannot be compared to the national ratio.

25 This increases to 25 square meters if only sales staff are used in the calculation, but this would not be comparable with the other ratios.

26 54:1,000 if only first year trainees are taken into account.

27 The British ratio is based on the figures in Table 5.3 and the number of YTS trainees reportedly training in distribution in 1983/84 (NEDO 1984, 51).

28 Scarlet Epstein et al (1986) did demonstrate that this applied more to male than female candidates. As the number of 16-18 year olds in the population declines lower educational entry qualifications may be accepted again to fill training places.

29 i.e. they enter into the second year and have less in-company training. The company did not explain their procedures in more detail on this point.

30 This is due to the 55% female, 45% male division in the pool of those looking for a job in the Rhein-Main area and those not wanting to go to university.

31 The reason given for requesting a male trainee was that all branches tried to have a certain proportion of males among the staff, including trainees, to do the heavier work.

32 This is a reason why one of the Turkish candidates had difficulty doing well in the test, although she had a good mark for mathematics at school.

33 A selection of training material has been catalogued as Appendix 18 and a list submitted with the thesis. A copy of the actual training material is available from the author.

34 Trainees with the Abitur would cover three chapters in the time other trainees covered one, shortening their training to eighteen months.

TABLE 6.1

Examination Results of the DS/WG Trainees

<u>Year</u>	<u>Type</u>	<u>No. taking exam</u>	<u>No. passing exam</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No. taking exam</u>	<u>No. passing exam</u>	<u>%</u>
		Frankfurt branch			DS/WG		
1975	EHK	17	17	100	468	451	96
	VK	41	41	100	1234	1173	95
1976	EHK	10	9	90	429	420	98
	VK	30	30	100	822	798	97
1977	EHK	16	16	100	372	365	98
	VK	29	24	83	819	795	97
1978	EHK	9	9	100	371	356	96
	VK	17	16	94	969	955	99
1979	EHK	8	8	100	429	418	97
	VK	24	23	96	1076	1057	98
1980	EHK	na	na	na	540	528	98
	VK	na	na	na	1074	1051	98
1981	EHK	24	23	96	715	710	98
	VK	41	39	95	1391	1373	99
1982	EHK	22	19	87	765	744	97
	VK	45	42	93	1177	1147	98
1983	EHK	na	na	na	728	698	96
	VK	na	na	na	910	892	98
1984	EHK	21	20	95	608	582	96
	VK	47	43	91	821	794	97

EHK = Einzelhandelskaufmann/frau

VK = Verkäufer/in

na = not available

TABLE 6.2

Proportion of Trainees Continuing into the Third Year of Training and Taking the EHK Examination the Following Year (in Percentages)

<u>Year</u>	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	Average
<u>DS/WG</u>	37	47	47	45	51	68	56	63	68	51.75
<u>Fkfurt</u>	24	53	36	50	na	na	56	na	na	46.75

TABLE 6.3

Examination Results of the DS/WG Trainees by Grades

Grades obtained and Percentages

<u>Year</u>	<u>Type</u>	1		2		3		4		Nos. Pass		Nos. Fail		Nos. Total
		%		%		%		%		%		%		
1975	EHK	17	4	110	23	324	69	-	-	451	96	17	4	468
	VK	66	5	357	29	750	61	-	-	1173	95	61	5	1234
1976	EHK	8	2	132	31	194	45	86	20	420	98	9	2	429
	VK	82	10	305	37	307	37	104	13	798	97	24	3	822
1977	EHK	22	6	129	35	158	42	56	15	365	98	7	2	372
	VK	81	10	318	39	285	35	111	13	795	97	24	3	819
1978	EHK	23	6	91	25	181	49	61	16	356	96	15	4	371
	VK	108	11	409	42	336	35	102	11	955	99	14	1	969
1979	EHK	25	6	144	33	171	40	78	18	418	97	11	3	429
	VK	109	10	410	38	420	39	118	11	1057	98	19	2	1076
1980	EHK	41	8	206	38	215	40	66	12	528	98	12	2	540
	VK	172	16	439	41	339	32	101	9	1051	98	23	2	1074
1981	EHK	53	8	266	37	289	40	93	13	701	98	14	2	717
	VK	241	17	606	44	420	30	106	8	1373	99	18	1	1391
1982	EHK	57	7	268	35	315	41	104	14	744	97	21	3	767
	VK	162	14	468	40	398	34	119	10	1147	98	30	2	1177
1983	EHK	24	3	212	29	318	44	144	20	698	96	30	4	728
	VK	140	15	393	43	269	30	90	10	892	98	18	2	910
1984	EHK	33	6	167	28	252	41	130	21	582	96	26	4	608
	VK	131	16	369	45	236	29	58	7	794	97	27	3	821

EHK = Einzelhandelskaufmann/frau examination

VK = Verkäufer/in examination

- = no candidates in these categories

TABLE 6.4

Examination Results of the Frankfurt Branch Trainees by GradesGrades obtained and Percentages

<u>Year</u>	<u>Type</u>	1		2		3		4		Nos. Pass		Nos. Fail		Nos. Total
			%		%		%		%		%		%	
1975	EHK	1	6	3	18	10	58	3	18	17	100	-	-	17
	VK	1	2	15	38	16	39	9	21	41	100	-	-	41
1976	EHK	1	10	2	20	5	50	1	10	9	90	1	10	10
	VK	4	13	15	50	9	39	2	7	30	100	-	-	30
1977	EHK	-	-	10	63	6	37	-	-	16	100	-	-	16
	VK	3	10	12	43	7	24	2	6	24	83	5	17	29
1978	EHK	-	-	1	11	8	89	-	-	9	100	-	-	9
	VK	1	6	8	47	6	35	1	6	16	94	1	6	17
1979	EHK	-	-	3	37	4	50	1	13	8	100	-	-	8
	VK	1	4	6	25	8	34	8	33	23	96	1	4	24
1981	EHK	-	-	12	50	6	25	5	21	23	96	1	4	24
	VK	1	3	20	49	14	34	4	9	39	95	2	5	41
1982	EHK	1	5	5	23	10	46	3	13	19	87	3	13	22
	VK	2	5	18	40	19	42	3	7	42	94	3	6	45
1984	EHK	-	-	10	48	7	33	3	14	20	95	1	5	21
	VK	6	13	22	47	10	21	5	10	43	91	4	9	47

EHK = Einzelhandelskaufmann/frau examination

VK = Verkäufer/in examination

- = no candidates in these categories

TABLE 6.5

Main Characteristics of the Case Study Companies

<u>Characteristic</u>	<u>DS/GB</u>	<u>DS/WG</u>	<u>Schade</u>	<u>Safeway</u>
Date of data	1985/86	1984	1986	1984/85
Selling Surface m ²	3,675	19,025	2,400* 870 580	976* - -
Employee Nos.	204	1,084	3,000	19,101
Trainee Nos. (1st years) only	18	135 49	344 163	18
M/F Division of Trainees (%)	11/89	34/66	40/60	33/67
Trainees: 1,000 Employees	88	125	113*	36*
Square meters per employee	18	18	16*	17*

* Figures for individual branches only

TABLE 6.6

Entry Qualifications of Trainees at the DS/WG

Year	Without HSA	% HSA	HSA	% HSA & BGJ	% HSA	MR	% HSA	A	% HSA	Others	% HSA	Total
1975	na	1	na	71.0	nr	nr	na	25.0	nr	nr	na	3.0 100%
1976	na	1	na	59.0	nr	nr	na	35.0	na	1.0	na	4.0 100%
1977	na	1	na	56 *	nr	nr	na	38.0	na	1.0	na	4.0 100%
1978	-	-	na	56 *	nr	nr	na	38.0	na	2.0	na	3.0 100%
1980	na	na	na	56.3	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
1981	na	na	na	55.1	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
1982	22	0.7	1587	50.8	45	1.5	1317	42.2	72	2.3	79	2.5 3122
1983	11	0.4	1273	41.9	30	1.0	1503	49.4	120	3.9	103	3.4 3040
1984	-	-	1153	35.6	31	1.0	1760	54.3	163	5.0	134	4.1 3242

TABLE 6.7

Entry Qualifications of Trainees at the Frankfurt DS/WG Branch

Year	Without HSA	% HSA	% HSA & BGJ	%	MR	%	A	%	Others	%	Total
1982	-	- 50	39.3	3	2.4	73	57.4	1	0.8	-	- 141
1983	-	- 43*	33.0*	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na 131
1984	-	- 25	19.0	2	1.0	98	73.0	6	4.0	4.0	3.0 135
1985	-	- 33	23.4	1	0.7	93	66.0	13	9.2	1.0	0.7 141

HSA = Hauptschulabschluß

HSA & BGJ = Hauptschulabschluß & Berufsgrundbildungsjahr

MR = Mittlere Reife

A = Abitur

na = not available

nr = not recorded

* this figure represents the proportion of trainees with either the HSA or the HSA & BGJ.

CHAPTER SEVEN

A Comparison of Views: Trainees, Ex-Trainees and Managers

This chapter will concentrate on the views of the young people being trained in the four retail outlets, followed by the views of the ex-trainees, to put the former's views of training into context. Having studied the training philosophies of the four retail companies, their selection procedures and training material in the light of certain hypotheses these will be expanded upon by using the views of the training managers. In an industry which is as diverse as the distributive industry perceptions of training and the individual perspective can only be presented via case studies. Other research methods cannot provide the level of detail needed to test attitudes in individual companies. The views of individuals, although not representative of all retail trainees, sales assistants or training managers, give a realistic insight into the actual training process. To a certain extent it also contrasts the theory with the practice and brings the quantitative analysis of the previous chapters to life.

37 trainees were interviewed in the four companies using a loosely structured set of questions (Appendix 19 and 20). The discussions are not recorded on tape but extensive notes were taken on the interview forms. The decision not to tape the interviews was taken so as not to intimidate the young people, and to prevent objections from the companies. In fact, in several cases there was no quiet room available in which to conduct the interviews, so the tape recorder would have been unusable in the more public milieu of the canteen or rest room. The interviews varied in length from fifteen minutes to almost one hour, with half an hour being the norm. This was in fact longer than expected - or notified to the companies - but this only once caused a problem, when one of the trainees was called away to his department where he was urgently required.

The trainees were chosen according to their availability and presence in the stores during my visit. In the DS/WG some were at the BS on the days I was interviewing. In the German companies I asked to interview

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Thirdly, by eliciting the views of the trainees regarding their career in retailing it is possible to "test" the image of retailing as a career among young people: do they see it as low-level work not requiring training and how do they view the occupation of shop assistant? Due to it being a recognised apprenticeship the German trainees would have a more positive image of themselves as shop assistants, possibly thinking of their advancement along a set career path. For the British trainees it may just be a job, but they may also have ambitions to progress to managerial positions.

However, previous studies in Germany have found that school leavers view shop work very negatively:

"Ich meine, Verkäufer oder Verkäuferin kann jeder werden, und man braucht dazu keine besonderen Anstrengungen, auch wenn man ihn erlernen muß wie jeden anderen Beruf." ²

stating that anyone can be a shop assistant and that no special effort is needed. And once in training the image had not improved:

"Wenn man sich genau betrachtet, schämt man sich sogar, ehemaligen Klassenkameraden zu sagen: Ich bin Stift im Einzelhandel!" ³

with trainees being embarrassed to state that they were training in retailing. The occupation of sales assistant is, therefore, seen as having low social prestige and not being very fulfilling from a personal viewpoint:

"Der Verkäuferberuf wird als sozial niedrigstehend und persönlich wenig befriedigend eingestuft." (Ehrke 1981,17)

Fourthly, due to the longer training received by German trainees, they are likely to be more knowledgeable on the products sold in their department or section and be eager to increase their knowledge in this area. One would also expect them to have received more instruction in selling techniques and to be content with the amount of training in this area. Although the British trainees may know a great deal about their individual company and the rules pertaining in that store, their general knowledge of the retail industry would be far less developed, unless their off-the-job training was undertaken at a college or off-the-job in the company by trained instructors. However:

"Attitudes, commitments, adaptations, strategies, lines of action may all change according to the point of the cycle reached by the pupils being studied." (Ball 1983,82)

As Ball discovered in his case studies in schools, the nature of the pupils' responses depended on where they found themselves in the cycle of events when being interviewed. In West Germany a difference in attitude depending on whether the trainees are in their first or second year and also on their educational level is likely. Educational qualification levels would also influence the replies of the British trainees, but as YTS was only one year long when this case study was undertaken the timing would not have such a great role to play.

Furthermore:

"People will say things, tell things, hold things back according to how they perceive 'the other'. This is most obviously important in work with pupils." (Ball 1983,87)

The fact that I was conducting cross-national research rather than research into just one country meant that I posed no threat to the German trainees and in fact they were very keen to find out about their British counterparts. Although perhaps posing more of a threat to the British companies, the British trainees were also keen to know what their equivalents were doing in Germany. ⁴

Fifthly, German trainees would be enthusiastic and keen to obtain the qualification of VK and to continue to the third year of training. British trainees would have taken up YTS as a second choice, originally looking for a job. If they had wanted to work in a shop on leaving school they would view their training positively, but would be inclined to feel that they did not really need training to do their job. Finally, verifying their knowledge and proving that they are good sales assistants is expected to be important to trainees in both countries, but the recognition of skills is expected to be more formal in the German companies.

Comparing attitudes is not a very straightforward exercise and the views expressed by the trainees are not intended to be generalised to all trainees in retailing. Ashton and Field (1976) said that when studying the adjustment to work with reference to human behaviour we are looking at the way in which people tend to change or modify their

ideas, attitudes and behaviour in accordance with the demands or constraints of the situations they enter. (p. 10) The quest begins to

"Also, the images we hold of ourselves - which in turn are created, maintained and transformed in the process of everyday interaction - play an important part in establishing the nature and extent of the adjustments we can and do make in our behaviour." (1976,14)

This is borne out by the study undertaken by Goldmann and Müller (1986), where the range of answers given by trainee sales assistants could, nevertheless, be grouped together to provide a detailed picture of the actual practice of training in individual retail outlets. As indicated (Part II) their research in West German retail outlets was very similar in design to my own and their results will be compared with mine.

Ashton and Field identified three different groups of young people linked to their social background: those who enter unskilled or semi-skilled work (careerless jobs); those who take up skilled manual or lower grade technical and clerical work (short-term careers) and those looking for a progressive career with security and salary to match (extended careers). Retailing does not fit easily into any of these categories. Within retailing all of these groups can be identified, with many young people seeing the job of sales assistant as a low grade semi-skilled job but others viewing retailing as a progressive career, with sales assistant representing just the first step on the ladder. It has, therefore, not been attempted in this study to classify the young people in the above manner or to explain their views in terms of their social backgrounds.

It can, however, be seen that the different attitudes to the same job varies depending on the selling form, product range and country. What may be considered by some as a dead-end job, for others presents a challenge. How these views are determined depends largely on the quality of the training received but also on the acceptance of trainees by their colleagues and superiors in the work situation.

Bearing this previous research in mind, I will first look at the characteristics of the trainees in the four stores and compare their

number, their ages and their qualifications on starting their apprenticeship. Next I will analyse the replies to the questions to see in how far the propositions put forward above proved to be true.

7.1. Characteristics of Trainees

7.1.1. DS/WG

Number of trainees questioned:	Male	4
	Female	10
		--
	Total	14
Age Distribution:	17 years old	3
	18 years old	6
	19 years old	4
	20 years old	1
Training Year:	1st	5
	2nd	7
	3rd	2
Qualifications on leaving school:	Hauptschulabschluß	4
	Mittlere Reife	9
	Abitur	1

7.1.2. DS/GB

Number of trainees questioned:	Male	1
	Female	8
		--
	Total	9
Age Distribution:	16 years old	2
	17 years old	5
	18 years old	2
Qualifications on leaving school:	Predominantly CSE	4
	Mixture of CSE & O-levels	3
	Others e.g. Sixteen plus	1
	Predominantly O-levels	1

7.1.3. Schade

Number of trainees questioned:	Male	7
	Female	5
		--
	Total	12

Age Distribution:	16 years old	1
	17 years old	4
	18 years old	3
	19 years old	2
	20 years old	1
	22 years old	1

Training Year:	1st	6
	2nd	4
	3rd	2

Qualifications on leaving school:	Hauptschulabschluß	4
	Mittlere Reife	7
	Abitur	1

7.1.4. Safeway

Number of trainees questioned:	Male	4
	Female	1
	Total	5

Age Distribution:	17 years old	5
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Qualification on leaving school:	Predominantly CSE	3
	Mixture of CSE, O-level & 16+	1
	Sixteen plus	1

The first significant fact to be observed from the above information is that the German trainees outnumber the British trainees by almost two to one. Looking at the proportion of trainees interviewed in relation to the total number training in each store reinforces this point. Whereas in Safeway 71%, in the DS/GB 50% and in Schade 63% of all trainees in the stores were interviewed this reduces to 8% for the DS/WG. ⁵ Nevertheless, although interviewing the largest number in the DS/WG this was the lowest proportion, and in Safeway, where the smallest number of trainees were interviewed it was the largest proportion. In the British companies the low number of trainees can be explained by the stigma attached to YTS, resulting in a low number of trainees, even when more places were on offer.

The second point to note is the age distribution. On the whole the German trainees tended to be older than the British trainees. This again is not surprising because there is no age limit to starting an

apprenticeship in West Germany whereas YTS is normally limited to 16 and 17 year old school leavers. Furthermore, German trainees had spent longer in general education.

Thirdly, the ratio of males and females is interesting. In department stores in both countries the number of female trainees outnumber the male trainees whereas in the two supermarkets males outnumber females. This distribution is not representative of the two supermarkets as a whole, where Schade with a male/female division of 40/60 represents the most equal distribution followed by Safeway with 33/67 (cf Table 6.5). A possible explanation is the amount of heavy lifting involved in supermarket work and the fact that one of the Schade branches was the flagship. The career opportunities offered here are more likely to be taken up by male trainees than female ones (Goldmann and Müller 1986,131-142). One of the other branches was small with only three trainees; in such cases male trainees are frequently the only male on the premises besides the branch manager and butcher and are often called upon to do the heavier work. One of the trainees interviewed was training to be a butcher specialising in selling, again a male dominated area. As far as the distribution in the department stores is concerned the male/female ratios are representative of the branch as a whole 34/66 for the DS/WG and 11/89 for the DS/GB. ⁶

Finally, when looking at the school qualifications which the trainees possessed on starting training it can be seen that the German trainees had reached a higher level of school education than their British counterparts. This statement must be made with the proviso that the Mittlere Reife is deemed to be equivalent to O-levels.

The qualification structure matches that of the DS/WG as a whole with the MR dominating, equally so for Schade (cf 6.6.1. and 6.6.3.), and is reflected in the national trend in retailing specifically (cf 4.1.) and also for all occupations (cf Table 1.14). In Goldmann and Müller's study two-thirds of the female apprentices questioned had left school with the HSA. The trainees in my sample were, therefore, better qualified educationally but not unrepresentative of the national situation. For the British trainees the qualification structure for

the DS/GB and Safeway was as expected according to the stated entry requirements (cf 6.6.3 and 6.6.4.).

Therefore, in summing up the characteristics of the trainees it can be said that the German trainees were more numerous, older and better educated than their British counterparts. The first hypothesis is, therefore, supported.

7.2. Choice of Occupation

To test the second hypothesis the reasons why the trainees chose to train in retailing are compared, which other careers they had considered, why they had chosen their particular company to train in and finally why in fact they were doing an apprenticeship.

7.2.1. Why Retailing?

Although VK is often cited as the most popular female occupation in the German press, it is more through a lack of other opportunities that young women choose this occupation (cf 2.4.1.1.). This is echoed by other studies:

"Ein enorm hoher Prozentsatz der weiblichen Verkäuferlehrlinge kommt aus schierer Ratlosigkeit, ohne tiefere Motivation und Begeisterung in diese Lehre. 'Verkäufer' ist für viele nur ein Verlegenheitsberuf, weil keine anderen Lehrstellen frei waren." (Ehrke 1981,19) ⁷

Goldmann and Müller (1986,6-7) in their study of female apprentices found that the majority of their sample had not chosen retailing because of a love for the occupation but as a reaction to the limited opportunities on the training market for young women. Only a quarter of their sample were actually looking for a traineeship in retailing. The young men in the sample had similar views, having tried to enter more masculine professions without success. Many saw the sales job as a female domain which had to be passed through on the way to higher positions. The most commonly cited reasons for choosing to train in retailing among the DS/WG trainees was that they could not find anything else and because it was fun and they liked the customer contact.

In Britain it was shown (5.6.) that a large number of young people are employed in retailing and increasingly in OTF 9 Personal Services and Sales, but also that retailers had problems recruiting young people onto YTS (cf 6.5.4.2.), which is confirmed by other studies:

"They (employers) felt that young people drift into retailing which is not as attractive an option to them as it is in France and Germany. It is a job of last resort." (Trinder 1986,29)

The DS/GB trainees cited mainly the fact that they liked meeting people and had chosen retailing as the result of work experience from school or a Saturday job.

At Schade again the main reason for choosing retailing was that the trainees could not find anything else. Some did mention the opportunities of promotion and the recommendations of family and friends. The Safeway trainees were again more similar in their views to the DS/GB ones citing work experience, careers advice and newspaper advertisements as the reasons for choosing retailing.

This indicates that for the majority of German trainees retailing had not been their first choice, whereas the British trainees had made a more positive choice in deciding on retailing. However, when the British trainees were asked why they had chosen a retailing YTS the answers given were more along the lines of their German counterparts with the Safeway trainees mainly saying that there was nothing else on offer and the DS/GB trainees stating that there were no jobs and that YTS was "the only way". This implies that the attitudes of the trainees in the two countries towards retailing were not all that dissimilar.

7.2.2. Other Careers?

When asked which other careers they had considered the DS/WG trainees named eighteen other careers between them with Bürokaufmann/frau (clerical assistant) being the most popular, followed by bank or insurance clerk and hairdresser. All the DS/GB trainees had also considered other careers, naming catering, being a nanny, working in insurance or clerical work among others. They had either tried these

careers and not liked them or had not wanted to obtain the extra qualifications necessary or were going into that career in the near future e.g. nursing.

The Schade trainees named clerical assistant, bank or insurance assistant and cook the most frequently. An office job was preferable to retailing, and retailing was seen as a way of aspiring to these occupations later on, as according to the training plan the third year's training offers extensive office practice and commercial training. Similar views were expressed by a large proportion of the Goldmann and Müller sample (1986,25).

Out of the five Safeway trainees, two had never considered any other careers and the other three cited train driver, hairdressing and P.E. instructress in the army as their other choices.

Goldmann and Müller's study found that the most frequently named other occupations were helping/caring ones e.g. nursing or veterinary assistant and that these were not followed up because young people would have had to spend another one to two years at school to obtain the required entry qualifications. The trainees also believed that their chances of practising their occupation in some of these areas e.g. veterinary, even if they found a training place were not very good. Thus the investment in staying on at school was not worth it, and they came to terms with being a sales assistant as an occupation.

German trainees thus see office work as more prestigious than shop work and many of them see retailing as a means of entry to commercial jobs. The British trainees did not seem to have such a desire to do office work and on the whole seemed happy on the sales floor. This impression can be verified by looking at the replies to the question: "Do you see retailing as a permanent career for yourself?". Out of the fourteen DS/WG trainees six said yes, six said no and two did not know. Out of the nine DS/GB trainees two said definitely no, one was undecided and the other six said yes. The twelve Schade trainees were again split evenly with four saying yes, four no and four wavering. The Safeway trainees, although expressing some doubts as to whether they would stay with Safeway, all wanted to stay in retailing. These replies are

similar to those of the Goldmann and Müller study (1986,19) where 27% stated that sales assistant was their desired occupation, 45% were considering it and 28% categorically rejected it. British trainees are, therefore, more disposed towards a career in retailing than their German counterparts. It tended to be those with a higher level of education or those German trainees who were in their third training year who were the most negative about retailing as a permanent career for themselves. Similar views are found in the Goldmann and Müller study:

"Nur Verkäufer werden mit Realschulabschluß, das bringt es nicht."
(1986,21)

These young people see the training as VK as a transitory stage to something better, be it office work or a higher position in retailing. This is perhaps not surprising when the day-to-day activities of the trainees are looked at more closely. Although log books (Appendix 18C10) only give a glimpse of the daily activities, the lack of variety and content of the tasks - stocking up, pricing, taking deliveries, tidying trolleys and occasionally serving - as mentioned by some trainees does call the quality of the training as well as the content of the training regulations into question. This point will be taken up again after considering the ex-trainees' views.

7.2.3. Choice of Company

As I had chosen the four companies because of their good training record it is important to see why the trainees had chosen to train in their particular firm.

The DS/WG trainees had either accepted the DS/WG because the offer of a place came through first, or they had only applied to the DS/WG or they could not get on another department store training course as they had failed the entrance examination. A few did state the reputation of the company, the good pay or the greater job opportunities. For the DS/GB the answers were similar with the trainees citing that they had only applied to the DS/GB, that they wanted to work in a department store and more mentioning the DS/GB's good reputation than their German counterparts.

...and that he seen in conjunction with

The Schade trainees were by far the most definite about their store's reputation with over half stating that they had applied because of Schade's good training reputation, whether this information had been gained at school, from friends or family, personally or from the Careers Service. They gave the impression of feeling privileged to have obtained a training place with Schade rather than with another supermarket chain:

"Angesichts des Negativ-Images, das der Lebensmittelbereich vielfach hat, ist das betriebliche Bemühen um Qualifizierung - für viele Auszubildende symbolisiert in der Existenz einer Ausbildungsabteilung, die Schulungen durchführt - und das Vorhandensein von Aufstiegsversprechen..." (Goldmann and Müller 1986,13)

The fact that Schade had actively recruited trainees, emphasising the fact that it had a training department and that there were excellent career prospects no doubt contributed to this positive image among the trainees.

Out of the five Safeway trainees three had applied because they saw the advertisement in the newspaper; two mentioned the fact that Safeway was a good company and one had applied because the store was close to home.

These replies do seem in part to support the views of the IHK and the Careers Service. The German trainees were able to make more valid comparisons relating to the quality of the training their company offered because they would discuss details of training with trainees from other stores at the BS. The British trainees could only compare themselves to friends training in other stores, due to the fact that the DS/GB runs its own off-the-job training in-house and Safeway have a special course at college just for Safeway trainees.

7.2.4. Why an Apprenticeship/YTS?

Finally, to test the second hypothesis that young Germans view their apprenticeship more positively than British young people view YTS the young people were asked why they had embarked on an apprenticeship/YTS.

The answers to this question should then be seen in conjunction with their views on the training actually received.

Goldmann and Müller found that the low qualification standard of the sales assistant occupation and its image i.e. anyone can do it, did not make it easy for young women to chose to train as VK. Their greater interest in training as such, however, finally outweighed such drawbacks:

"Der 'Verkäuferbrief' als Berufsbezeichnung bedeutet den Ausweis bestimmter Qualifikationen, die bessere Chancen auf dem Arbeitsmarkt eröffnen als dies ohne Zertifikat der Fall ist."
(1986,31)

The DS/WG trainees expressed their feelings on this in similar fashion:

"Without an apprenticeship I haven't got a qualification. I need this otherwise I'd be on the street."
"You can also build on an apprenticeship."
"I want to be something. I want to be a specialist in one area."
"It's better to be fully trained than just semi-skilled."
"You need to be trained. I want to work later."

The answers were all in this vein, indicating the absolute necessity of a completed apprenticeship in order to be anyone of any consequence in West German society and the value of the Beruf (cf 2.2.1.).

The DS/GB trainees were not quite so convinced about the need for YTS with five out of nine stating that they were doing YTS because there were no jobs or that it was the only way (meaning the only way of getting a job). A third said that training was important nowadays and one said YTS was ideal because it was a job with training.

The Schade trainees replied in a similar fashion to the DS/WG ones:

"You can do more with an apprenticeship behind you than a semi-skilled person."
"You have to live from something. You're more likely to get work if you're trained. As an unskilled person you haven't got a hope."
"Without an apprenticeship you get to do all the bad jobs; temporary, unskilled and semi-skilled workers are always the first to be made redundant when the company is not doing well."
"It's necessary - it shows that I've done something and without an apprenticeship you have no basis for a career. The most important thing is that you've learned a trade."

These answers again illustrate the deep-set belief among young Germans that the learning of a trade is essential to economic survival and status in German society.

The Safeway trainees did not convey this feeling with their answers:

"It was the only thing going. There were no jobs."

"I didn't want to go on the dole."

"I've got no qualifications, therefore, I had no other option."

There were, however, some positive comments:

"It gives you training."

"I did it to get experience and a reference."

"I wanted to try it out for myself having heard so many bad reports."

These four sets of answers clearly demonstrate that although the characteristics of the trainees are not that dissimilar, taking into account the general background environment of their own country and the fact that the British trainees were more positive about retailing, the attitudes to training of the German and British trainees are diametrically opposed. There may be a different cultural tradition of how to refer to work and how to regard it, with British respondents likely to "play down" the importance of work, the work ethic not being as strong as in West Germany. In light of the lack of a training culture in Britain in 1986 and still in 1990 the views expressed are, however, not surprising. The second hypothesis is, therefore, supported.

7.3. Attitude to Training

In order to pursue this further and to test the third hypothesis the trainees were asked whether they could do their job without any training; whether they were enjoying their training; whether they needed the lessons at the BS or the off-the-job training, and what they thought of these lessons and whether they needed in-company training.

7.3.1. Competence Without Training?

"Die Tatsache, daß einem großen Teil der Befragten die Notwendigkeit einer Berufsausbildung für ihre Tätigkeit nicht

einsichtig ist - übrigens auch häufig denjenigen nicht, die ihre Ausbildung positiv beurteilen und die ihren Beruf gerne ausüben - muß als Zeichen für ein niedriges Qualifikationsniveau des Verkaufsberuf angesehen werden." (Goldmann and Müller 1986,165)

The fact that for trainees in sales occupations the need for training is not obvious must be seen as a sign of the low qualification standard of the selling vocation. The trainees in this study expressed very similar views. When asked whether they could do their work without having received the training the DS/WG trainees were split in opinion. Some felt that they could because there were other untrained sales assistants working on their sections; others were in two minds and felt they could sell but needed the product knowledge to be able to advise customers and another group felt that they definitely needed the training, both the product knowledge and selling skills as well as training in the paperwork. The following comments illustrate the importance of product knowledge to the DS/WG trainees:

"It is hard to get hold of product knowledge material. You need more than brochures. I have to rely on magazines for computer technology. I have a lack of pre-knowledge and can otherwise not advise the customer properly. The documentation on stationery is good."

"We get too little product knowledge. The senior sales assistant and the apprentices put down a different number of hours covered."

"They (the senior sales assistants) have to find time to talk to the apprentices about product knowledge."

"We do too little product knowledge - I want to know about the goods. I didn't get any of the training cards. There are too few teachers. Product knowledge classes are cancelled."

"We have too little product knowledge because the assistant departmental managers don't have enough time."

At the DS/GB the trainees nearly all felt that they needed the training to do their jobs properly. Some felt that they could do their jobs after induction training but that it was better to learn the extra. Two trainees definitely said they could sell without training, having worked in shops before or being on very busy departments where the customer comes to them and giving advice as such is not involved. The difference in their comments on product knowledge is enlightening:

"The more product knowledge you have the more confident you are even if the actual knowledge is not that useful for the customer."

"People occasionally ask about where and how products are made, but it's not necessary to know in great detail how things are made, as there is no gold or silver jewellery."

"It's hard to find selling points with lighting, it's more a question of preference."

But, as discussed previously, no systematic teaching of product knowledge takes place (cf 6.7.3.) and the importance of it in training material and retail qualifications is not recognised in Britain (Jarvis and Prais 1989). The difference in views between the German and British trainees is thus not surprising.

It was to be expected that the trainees in the department stores were perhaps more aware of the need for training having to advise customers, create a selling relationship and learn in greater depth about products.

The Schade trainees were more sure as a group, two-thirds stating that they could do their job without training. The reasons they gave were again that there were people working in their branch who had not been trained and filling shelves, till work and tidying shopping trolleys did not really pose a problem. Two of these trainees, however, felt that although they could do the work without the training there would be no point because one could not be promoted without having completed an apprenticeship (a comment not made by a British trainee) nor would you learn things so intensively. The four who felt they could not do without the training said they needed some pre-knowledge and that they could not advise customers without training. One trainee felt that six to twelve months would be enough as most of the tasks repeated themselves as you moved around the departments. As far as product knowledge was concerned the following statement illustrates the lower emphasis placed on this subject in a supermarket:

"You need the product knowledge but the qualification is less important in determining whether you're going to be a good retail trade merchant - it's more your attitude towards the job, whether you enjoy it."

At Safeway two of the trainees felt they could not do the job without training because there was specialist work involved e.g. the weights and measures on the delicatessen counter and that through the training one is able to do a variety of tasks not just the one job. But of the other three one was adamant that he could do the work without training because there was no real training especially no product training. The

other two were less certain, saying that they could do the trolleys and packing at the check-out but not rotating for example.

These answers show that there is probably more similarity between the attitudes of trainees in supermarkets in the two countries concerning the perceived skills needed to do their job than there is between the DS/WG and the Schade trainees and the Safeway and the DS/GB trainees. This, I would suggest, is due to the nature of the tasks which are learned in the two different retail outlets. Shopwork in a supermarket involves more lifting, stocking up, till work and price changes and less serving and advising customers than shop work in a department store, where the pace of shopping is more leisurely, there is less direct pressure on the sales assistant and establishing a rapport with the customer is more important.

However, it can be argued that the trainees do not realise the extent of their knowledge and capabilities. The skills they have developed, apart from product knowledge, are social-communicative skills, which are the attributes many women have already developed in the home. As a result trainees do not see these as skills. Which is not to say that these skills are present in all the trainees or that they cannot be taught, and I will return to this point at the end of the chapter.

7.3.2. Enjoyment of Training

One of the criteria used in the Goldmann and Müller study to determine whether the vocational training scheme satisfied certain quality standards was that vocational training should be "fun". It should awaken personal interests in the vocation and not just in marks, points and the final examination. To do this it has to further creative and independent opportunities (1986,34). Although some of the trainees questioned the need for training to do their job they were almost all enjoying their training. Out of the fourteen DS/WG trainees only one said definitely that he was not enjoying the training because he had expected more variety and three said they only occasionally enjoyed the training, sometimes finding it boring. However, a large majority, ten trainees, said they enjoyed their training due to being with nice colleagues, there being a good atmosphere and good lessons; they

enjoyed the customer contact, the variety and being given responsibility in one case.

The DS/GB trainees were even more unanimous in their answer with all nine enjoying their training because of the variety including computing, trips and projects, learning how to do displays, the customer contact, the good atmosphere and friendly staff. They all conveyed the idea that they could see the point of being trained.

In the supermarkets the atmosphere was again slightly different with three-quarters of the Schade trainees enjoying their training because of the variety, the customers, liking having to deal with food and being able to work on their own. Some admitted that it was not an easy job and especially stressful on a Friday and Saturday. A quarter of the trainees were in two minds about their training, saying that they were not being trained according to the training plan, that they had not imagined it to be like it was and that they did not enjoy just stocking up. One said: "I know a lot about food but the customers don't ask."!

Out of the five Safeway trainees four were enjoying their training because they had either been given responsibility, had been on all different departments and learned how each worked, felt that the staff were friendly and that they had good trainers. However, one trainee said he only enjoyed it now and again because he was made to feel like "a YTS", he had not been moved around the departments and had had to endure racist remarks.

Whether the trainees were enjoying their training or not depended in the department stores on their acceptance by their colleagues and their friendliness. The company atmosphere, or more precisely that in the department of the DS/WG and the branches for Safeway and Schade also influenced their opinions. The opinion of the trainees regarding their training is greatly influenced by the attitude of their superiors and the acceptance by colleagues. If the right climate was not created from the outset even good training seminars could not counteract the negative opinion of the trainees (Goldmann and Müller 1986,45).^a

Trainees who are given responsibility for individual sections and allowed to work independently instead of continually having to stock up in different sections while being called to the checkout at peak times, are happier in their jobs. Those who are not challenged enough are the most discontented and, therefore, claim more frequently and quite rightly that they are not being trained according to the training plan. This is the case in both countries and is especially evident in the supermarkets. It is confirmed by the Goldmann and Müller study (1986,114). Possible changes in training practice as a result of this and other factors will be discussed at the end of this chapter.

7.3.3. Off-the-job Training

To clarify which parts of the training the trainees thought they needed most in order to do their jobs they were first asked whether they needed the lessons at the BS in the case of the German trainees. And in the case of the British trainees whether they needed the off-the-job training, whether this took place at college or on company premises.

7.3.3.1. The Need for "College" Training

The DS/WG trainees overwhelmingly (ten out of fourteen) replied that they needed the lessons at the BS and the other four felt they needed at least part of the lessons with the proviso that one would not need them if there was no examination to pass. If one wanted to do something else later or was interested in promotion one would also need the lessons. The reasons given for needing the lessons were mainly that they broadened one's knowledge and complemented the DS/WG lessons and that one needed the theory e.g. Book-keeping because this was not provided on the sales floor. Three felt that the extra product knowledge was definitely needed, one that Politics was not needed, three German, two Sport and one Religious Education.

The DS/GB trainees also supported the off-the-job training because it gave them confidence, made it easier to communicate when working in a team with other people on the Outward Bound week and they could develop leadership skills and try something new e.g. rock climbing. The computing course was considered useful generally e.g. for stock control

but there is no application at all in the company. If one was not going to be kept on at the DS/GB it would be useful in other jobs whether in retailing or elsewhere. The importance of transferable skills was, therefore, unconsciously perceived by these trainees. The trips to Harrods and Royal Doulton were mentioned as worthwhile by only two of the nine trainees.

The Schade trainees also felt that in the main they needed the lessons at the BS. Three-quarters felt one learned subjects one had not learned at school e.g. Book-keeping, Computing and Product Knowledge; that they learned much more than in the company especially the theory which was very important. Again many of the trainees felt they did not need German, Religious Education, Politics, Commercial Mathematics and information about the monetary system.

Two trainees said they did not need the lessons because the lessons had nothing to do with the job, at best they were for oneself and the first and second year were a waste of time. Only the third year was interesting, but this depended on one's educational level. One trainee felt one only needed most of them in order to pass the examinations but not to do the job.

The Safeway trainees felt that some lessons were useful e.g. Business Calculations but not directly related e.g. World of Work, People and Communication. One said he felt he did not need them because they had nothing to do with Safeway, it was only an extra examination while another was very positive saying that one was taught the job, learning about retailing and business studies.

These answers seem to indicate that in West Germany the majority of trainees felt they needed the lessons but that some e.g. Religious Education and Politics especially were not really necessary and that the perceived need is related to the level of school education reached with those having achieved the Abitur being bored in the lessons.

The British trainees, because of their more varied experiences could see the need of the Outward Bound and the Computing Course in the case

of the DS/GB and some of the courses on their BTEC General at college in the case of Safeway.

7.3.3.2. Opinion of "College" Training

When the trainees were asked to state their opinion about the courses away from the company in contrast with their perceived need of these courses more light was thrown on their previous answers. The majority (eight out of fourteen) of the DS/WG trainees thought the lessons were good, they were varied, different to school and they taught one the basics. Four trainees differentiated their answers saying that only some of the lessons were good and that for example Selling Skills could not be converted into practice. Two trainees found the lessons too easy, one with a Realschulabschluß said it had all been covered at school except for the product knowledge and the other one that the lessons were too monotonous with no imaginative use of learning materials (cf Goldmann and Müller 1986,8).

The DS/GB trainees were in fact asked to comment on their in-store training because this involved two half-days a week of lessons in the training room given by two different tutors, one covering mathematics and commercial aspects including law, the other one the more artistic side with display and colour schemes playing a large part. These lessons together with the Outward Bound Week and the Computing Course constituted their off-the-job training. All the trainees enjoyed the artistic lessons and half enjoyed the mathematical ones. This was partly due to the nature of the material covered and the personalities of the two teachers. The Outward Bound week was greatly appreciated because it gave the trainees the chance to meet trainees from other DS/GB stores, to work in teams and demonstrate or discover skills they did not know they had. The two-week Computing Course was seen as not directly relevant but enjoyable.

The Schade trainees varied in their opinions of the BS because in fact, they all attended different schools, closest to their home or branch, whereas the DS/WG trainees attended the same school. Some trainees felt they had to behave more in the BS than they had at school because they did not want bad reports to go back to the company, others felt it

was just like normal school but not as important with some not regularly attending because they had covered the material either at school or in a Berufsfachschule (cf 2.3.2.). However, many trainees felt that the lessons were geared to what might be applicable to their work and some found certain lessons very instructive e.g. Enterprise in Retailing, Mathematics and specialised theory, whereas there was less enthusiasm for Politics, Economics, German or Religious Education. Educational level again influenced whether individual trainees gained satisfaction from the lessons at the BS.

The Safeway trainees were following the BTEC General course at a local college of FE and four out of five felt it was completely different to school and that it was useful because one learned something. One trainee felt it was like going back to school and that the course was more geared to management trainees with lots of writing being involved!

On the whole all the trainees in both countries enjoyed the experience of being away from the sales floor to learn about the broader aspects of retailing and to broaden their general knowledge. Very few, if any, trainees were totally opposed in either country to extending their knowledge, which is an important point to emerge, because it is often said that young people in Britain are sick of school and learning and just want to work. It seems that if the educational aspects are geared to the interests of the young people so that they can see the relevance generally or to their future jobs they will be quite keen to acquire more knowledge. This fact was recognised a long time ago in West Germany and it was partly for that reason that the dual system developed. Although the German trainees may not appreciate the Politics and Religious Education classes these, nevertheless, broaden their outlook on life and the subject matter is not as narrowly defined as may be supposed (cf 6.7.4 and Appendix 18A5). The British trainees receive more directly relevant off-the-job lessons and the wider applicable knowledge from Computing and Outward Bound Courses develop skills which the German trainees lack.

7.3.3.3. Need for In-Store Training

When asked about the need for in-company training, which is not compulsory in either country, the trainees overwhelmingly supported these voluntary lessons, because here they felt they were learning the most easily relatable aspects of their jobs. It is of course in the company's interest to explain company-related features of a job and, therefore, these lessons are not seen as too great a burden. Goldmann and Müller found that the majority of young people found the in-company training positive with emphasis put on the need for it to pass the IHK examination. It was seen as a necessary addition to the BS and the importance of the BS was judged to be minor in comparison and was criticised for its lack of relevance to the real world and for its teaching methods.

In the DS/WG eleven out of fourteen trainees felt they needed the in-store company training because each company varies from the norm, five felt that learning about customer relations was especially important while two each mentioned product knowledge and the fact that the lessons complemented those at the BS. Three trainees felt that there should be more company training, whereas two others felt that one needed the lessons for the examination but not for the sales floor, because they were not based on practice on the sales floor. This was an interesting point to emerge, because one would expect company training to be very much related to practice. Having looked at the quantity and design of the training material (cf 6.7.) this view is reinforced. The following comments by the trainees illustrate that application is not always as it should be:

"Lessons in the company are not subdivided enough. Individual points are not covered in enough detail so you don't know which subject they belong to which makes it hard to revise."

"The lessons in the company are good but don't take place often enough."

"The courses are good but there could be more of them. I spent one week in Mannheim together with all the trainees in the DIY departments and two sales assistants from all the DS/WG branches in Germany."

"The DS/WG training has been reduced. We don't learn as much in the schooling. I had quite a different picture of the training. It never starts on time, it's always late."

Some of the DS/WG trainees thus felt that there could be more in-company training, it could be better structured and there could be more product seminars away from the store.

The DS/GB trainees basically all said that they needed the in-store training including the Monday morning half-hour every week. One trainee would have liked the chance of obtaining a qualification, which will be possible for the next set of trainees and most felt it was ideal not to have to go to college but have the lessons in the company. Aspects of safety and the history of the company were mentioned as well as "Selling is our Business" if that had been covered:

"We don't get much training on the department. ... Display on Tuesdays is good. I learned the colours and DIN sizes while checking the stock."

"SIOB was really good. All the training is good."

None of the Schade trainees felt that they did not need the company lessons. Two said they were dissatisfied with them because they had not covered Trade Unions, the shop committee or the trainees' rights and duties at induction and that they had more to do with the examination than with what happened daily on the sales floor. The other ten trainees all said they needed the seminars because they mainly covered product knowledge, discussed alternative products to offer if what the customers asks for is not stocked; one learned how to bone a piece of meat, how to make sausages and how to clean the machines. One trainee said that one still had to know about food even if the customer does not ask.

The Safeway trainees had not received very much in-company training as such but said that they had needed the induction day, learning how to speak to people, how to deal with broken goods, health and safety aspects as well as hygiene and cleaning. Some had not really considered these aspects as being part of the in-company training because they had been covered at the very beginning of their training year.

In conclusion it can be said that according to the trainees in both countries "off-the-job" training whether it is on the company premises and relates directly to company practices or is specific to one branch

of retailing or whether it is of a more general nature and takes place at a neutral institution is an essential part of training. The third hypothesis is, therefore, supported but will be tested further later in this chapter by asking the ex-trainees whether they use the acquired knowledge in their jobs and in life in general.

7.4. Value of Qualification

It has been suggested in Britain that the YTS qualification is not readily recognised by employers, parents or trainees and that trainees are not sure what kind of qualification they will actually obtain. The trainees in both countries were asked what kind of qualification they were going to receive at the end of their training and how they rated this qualification. In addition they were asked how their knowledge and skills were tested to ascertain whether there was some kind of verification process and how aware the trainees were of this.

When asked what kind of qualification they would receive twelve DS/WG trainees said EHK and two said VK. How they rated this varied with EHK being rated as average or slightly above average and VK as below average. ⁹ Four trainees felt that they could build on this initial qualification. Hairdressing, cleaning and craftwork were considered as lower down on the scale but VK was not necessarily something to boast about. On the other hand some trainees felt that as long as you had good examination results there would always be jobs for sales assistants and there was no risk of a computer doing one's job. Interestingly enough this was contrary to the views of the trainees in the Goldmann and Müller study:

"Den Verkaufsberuf selbst hält kaum jemand für einen sicheren Beruf." (1986,144)

Hardly any of the trainees in that sample thought of sales assistant as a safe occupation. Among the present sample clerical work was still considered superior to selling, but with the EHK qualification one would be able to get work in an office. In any case one had to at least have the EHK because there were enough sales assistants around.

At the DS/GB all the trainees said that they would receive a YTS Certificate stating the standard they had reached. One trainee mentioned references, another log books, another assessment or a general report which they considered to be part of their qualification. However, contrary to expectations four trainees said that they felt they would be more likely to be taken on by companies if they had done a YTS, two considered the certificate quite good if it was in the career one wanted to pursue, two felt an examination would be better and one rated it higher than O-levels. Nevertheless, two-thirds felt that the DS/GB's reputation was the best part of the qualification (cf Goldmann and Müller 1986,147-8). Only one of the DS/WG trainees mentioned this factor. So, although generally the YTS certificate and, therefore, YTS as a whole was rated as quite good, the fact that the training had been obtained at the DS/GB was more important. This seems to contradict their preconceptions about why they had joined a YTS and shows that once one participates and can see the benefits the whole idea of training can become a normal part of the route to employment. As in the Goldmann and Müller study it proves that the quality of the training received is more important than any original career aspirations (1986,25).

Two-thirds of the Schade trainees were expecting to obtain the EHK qualification and three the VK one, with these mentioning their specialised option such as meat sales assistant and one mentioning "Metzgergeselle" leading to a butcher's qualification. The trainees named roadsweeper, dustman, bricklayer and gardener as being worse than being a sales assistant and a clerical worker, going to university, working in local government or a bank being better. However, they rated the qualification of EHK as above average and some trainees said that it was better to have a good report as a sales assistant than a bad one as a clerical worker or a hairdresser. The qualification of VK was rated as average with the chance of applying what one had learned and having more contact with people than a clerical assistant. Another consideration was that "people will always have to eat" and in offices computers are taking over. The effect new technology such as EPOS might have on their jobs was never mentioned by the trainees. The fact that there are supermarkets in France, where only night crews for stocking and cashiers are employed with the store being open 24 hours a

day is not a concept for these trainees for whom service to the customer is the constant watchword. Goldmann and Müller found a similar lack of knowledge among their sample (1986,144).

The Safeway trainees were all aware that they would get their BTEC General but only three mentioned the YTS Certificate, one was convinced that he would get nothing from the store and one thought there was a report from the store. Two trainees felt it was useful to have the certificate to get a job in another store and two also felt this about the BTEC General but that this qualification in addition was useful if one wanted to go on to further studies. One trainee felt the YTS certificate was more important than the BTEC General and another said the BTEC General was not as good as A-levels. The comment "We were told it was good" sums up the feeling about the value of the qualification. The opinions the trainees expressed were not really their own because it seemed they had not fully thought about this aspect of their training.

In general it can be said that the German trainees were more aware of the value of their qualification and could see the point of obtaining it, whereas their British counterparts were more influenced by the store's reputation in the case of the DS/GB and not terribly sure about the value of the qualifications they would obtain in the case of Safeway. The fourth hypothesis is, therefore, supported.

7.5. Verification Procedure

When finally questioned about the way their skills and knowledge were tested twelve out of the fourteen DS/WG trainees mentioned the final and intermediate examinations, twelve also mentioned that their product knowledge was tested orally on the department and by the oral exam administered by the IHK and eleven mentioned that the theory was tested at school. Only three said that they were tested by the customers or by having reports written on them.

In contrast five out of the nine trainees at the DS/GB mentioned the customers who visited their department, five said they were tested through application e.g. Retail Law when dealing with returns, three

reported the assessment interviews they had with the tutors and two said that the off-the-job knowledge was tested through project work. This demonstrates the less formal way of testing the trainees than is the case in West Germany.

When questioned about the way they were tested only one Schade trainee said "not much" while eleven mentioned the examinations administered by the IHK. Eight cited tests and check-lists in the seminars, four named tests and reports at school, six said their department manager checked up on them after he had shown them how to do a certain job and two mentioned the customers.

The Safeway trainees felt that they were mainly being tested by other staff to see if they could do the same task again and by the college through the exams and tests. Only one trainee mentioned being tested by the customer on products, stock and location and one felt he was not being tested at all by the store.

However, the Safeway trainees did not give the impression that the BTEC General really tested whether they could do a job in retailing, although they mentioned that the examination results were important as far as being kept on at Safeway was concerned. It seemed to be more important to be accepted as being able to do the job by other members of staff. This was even clearer among the DS/GB trainees, where the greatest testing seemed to come from the other staff and the customers.

Goldmann and Müller (1986,69-71) found that quality was expressed as satisfying the requirements of the company. These could, however, not be measured objectively, which meant that the trainees were not able to evaluate their work themselves and had to rely on praise and recognition by their superiors. The only measure of their own ability was through the fact that certain tasks which entailed independent and responsible action had been delegated to them.

In the more formal West German system the examinations played a more predominant role as did in-company testing for the Schade trainees and the testing of the theory at school through reports and class work in

the case of the DS/WG trainees. The rigour with which this testing is carried out determines the self-confidence of the trainee as it can be measured objectively. Nevertheless, recognition of one's progress by one's superiors on the shop floor was equally important in both countries. Although it is likely that the German trainees would be asked by the customers about the products they were selling they did not see this as a test but more as part of their job, the natural outcome of good training. The fifth hypothesis is thus supported.

Whether the content of what should be learned during training is the knowledge which is required for the occupation of sales assistant can be verified to a limited extent by questioning sales assistants who have completed their training.

7.6. Ex-Trainees

As it would be more difficult for sales assistants to be released from their work to be interviewed it was indicated to the companies that only a small sample would be required with a shorter interview schedule. In total 21 trained sales assistants were interviewed in the four stores with the largest number coming from the DS/GB. The interviews were shorter - approximately quarter of an hour long with fewer questions (Appendix 21 and 22).

The point of questioning ex-trainees who were now employees of the companies was to see whether they had considered their training to be worthwhile, whether they had criticisms in hindsight, whether these had been observed by the management and whether changes had been implemented. However:

"... we do not routinely offer views in response to questions by researchers, but in response to the ongoing contingencies of our work (and non-work) situation." (Silverman 1974,54) ¹⁰

As with the trainees the views of the sales assistants depended to some extent on their current position both at work and in their home environment. One female senior sales assistant in the DS/WG had recently been spending a lot of time thinking about her position and

career prospects. Had she been interviewed a week earlier or later her views may not have been quite the same.

Bearing these sort of factors in mind, after briefly looking at the characteristics of the ex-trainees, the relevance of their training to their present occupations will be discussed.

7.6.1. Characteristics of the Ex-Trainees

7.6.1.1. DS/WG

Number of Ex-Trainees:	Male	3
	Female	2
		--
	Total	5

Age Distribution:	21 years old	1
	22 years old	1
	23 years old	1
	28 years old	2

Years of Activity:	5 years	2
(including training)	6 years	1
	12 years	2

Position:	Assistant Trainee Department Manager	2
	Senior Sales Assistant	3

7.6.1.2. DS/GB

Number of Ex-Trainees:	Male	1
	Female	7
		--
	Total	8

Age Distribution:	18 years old	4
	19 years old	3
	20 years old	1

Years of Activity:	2 years	5
	3 years	3

Position:	Grade 2 Assistant Department Manager	1
	Display Assistant	1
	Sales Assistant/Stock Clerk	6

7.6.1.3. Schade

Number of Ex-Trainees:	Male	1
	Female	3
		--
	Total	4

Age Distribution:	18 years old	1
	22 years old	1
	23 years old	1
	26 years old	1
Years of Activity:	3 years	1
	6 years	2
	8 years	1
Position:	Second Cashier	1
	Sales Assistant (Verkäufer/in)	3

7.6.1.4. Safeway

Number of Ex-Trainees:	Male	1
	Female	3
	--	
	Total	4
Age Distribution:	17 years old	1
	18 years old	3
Years of Activity:	2 years	3
	3 years	1
Position:	Meat/Delicatessen Assistant	1
	Inventory Control Clerk	1
	Day Grocer	1
	Pharmacy Assistant	1

The small number interviewed can be explained by the difficulty with which staff could be liberated from the sales floor and in the case of Britain the small number who had gone through YTS with the company. Whereas among the trainees there was a more equal gender distribution the qualified sales assistants, who were still working on the shop floor tended to be female, which is representative of the national situation in retailing in the two countries.

The German sales assistants were on average a few years older than their British counterparts due to the length of the German training and the relatively recent introduction of YTS in Britain. As a result the positions reached by the British ex-trainees in their companies were slightly lower than those of their German counterparts, although there were some exceptions with one of the DS/GB ex-trainees also being an assistant trainee manager at 20, the two Germans in that position being 21 and 22. This confirms the hypothesis that German trainees are more likely to have reached higher positions in their companies than their

British counterparts. The British companies both used management training programmes with extensive recruitment outside the company, although they pointed to a few ex-trainees who had reached assistant trainee manager status. German companies were more likely to promote ex-trainees. This is probably due to the fact that they had initially recruited trainees with a higher academic profile than the British companies. Trainees with the Abitur were trained to the level of EHK in 18 months and then frequently put on further management training programmes in the store. These trainees often did not experience the initial training as very positive, but accepted the disadvantages in anticipation of fast promotion. It demonstrates that an apprenticeship for any occupation can be adapted to a variety of educational entry levels.

7.6.2. Views on Training

To verify how useful and relevant their training had been for their current occupation the ex-trainees were asked the following questions. Which part of the training did you find the most useful? Which parts don't you need in your work, but which are quite useful for your life generally? Were there parts of your training which were superfluous? and finally are there aspects you would have liked to have learned, which would make your present job easier?

7.6.2.1. Most Useful Training

For the first question almost all the ex-trainees felt that in-store or internal company training had been the most useful, thus confirming the trainees' views. Three of the DS/WG assistants and six of the DS/GB assistants felt this; three of the Safeway assistants mentioned in-store training and half of the Schade assistants felt that everything had been useful. Interestingly enough both German groups of assistants mentioned product knowledge, be it textile knowledge learned at the BS or in-store fruit and vegetable knowledge. Neither of the British groups of assistants mentioned this, finding Display Training, Communication Skills, Dealing with Customers and CV writing more useful. This again demonstrates the fundamentally different concept of training in the two countries; where knowing your products is essential

to a German assistant but being able to present them well and communicating with customers is more important to a British assistant. Communicating with customers was, however, also seen as important by the German trainees.

7.6.2.2. Usefulness of Subjects for Life Generally

When questioned about the usefulness of certain training subjects for their life in general the DS/WG assistants concentrated on Dealing with People, Book-keeping, Commercial Knowledge and even Economics/Politics and German, with the DS/GB assistants also valuing Communications, Mathematics, Computers and Interview Techniques. The supermarket assistants at Schade mentioned Sport, Economics/Politics and Wallpapering, whereas the Safeway assistants thought the secretarial aspects they learned at College were the most useful. This question was asked to see whether any transferable skills had been transmitted or at least subconsciously identified by the trainees.

On the one hand, it seems strange that both sets of department store assistants did not see Communications and Dealing with People as useful for their jobs and that Mathematics was seen as useful for life in general but not useful for the job of sales assistant. However, the German assistants were more likely to mention Mathematics as being useful to their jobs than the British ones. On the other hand, the fact that the sales assistants saw Dealing with People and Communications and Mathematics as useful for their lives in general means that these subjects have transferable value. It again emphasises that the social-communicative aspects of the sales assistant's job are not valued as professional competences, but as attributes which one is simply expected to have to be a sales assistant:

"Auf diese Weise bleibt ein wichtiger Teil der beruflichen Anforderungen, nämlich der Umgang mit Kunden, eine persönliche Anforderung an die Auszubildenden. Der Erwerb der für den Kundenkontakt notwendigen sozialkommunikativen Qualifikationen ist nicht als beruflicher Lernprozeß sichtbar, nur als individueller Erfahrungsprozeß." (1986,75)

Goldmann and Müller above argue that trainees are forced to learn how to deal with customers on their own or by watching others. The lack of systematic training in this area makes it difficult for sales

assistants to develop vocational self-appreciation, especially if they are not given the opportunity of applying the recognised "specialist" part of their job - product knowledge and merchandising to name just two.

7.6.2.3. Superfluous Subjects

To verify which aspects of their training were most important the assistants were asked which parts of the training they found superfluous. Most of the DS/WG assistants could not think of anything superfluous; one mentioned Religious Education and one Book-keeping if one was not aiming for promotion, and another said that instead of learning how to write letters it would have been better to concentrate on selling skills and product knowledge. Only one of the DS/GB assistants felt nothing was superfluous, whereas three mentioned some parts of Mathematics and Abstract Display Theory on paper compared to Practical Display Techniques. The Schade assistants all mentioned Religious Education as being superfluous and two thought Book-keeping had not been relevant unless they had carried on with their training. Sport and German were also mentioned by them. The Safeway assistants were again more positive with two finding nothing superfluous, one mentioning Accounts and Book-keeping and one the visit to the West Midlands County Council.

As British trainees would not have Religious Education as part of their training a comparison on that subject cannot be made. It is interesting to note, however, that supermarket assistants in both countries felt that Book-keeping was not initially useful and that the German department store assistants and British supermarket assistants at first sight seem more satisfied with the content of the training they have received.

Religious Education being a very general subject and one which it was not possible to observe at the BS perhaps needs to be looked at by the educationalists in curriculum terms. It is, however, a subject which is likely to continue to be controversial in education generally in both countries (cf new National Curriculum discussions in Britain). The other subjects were all only mentioned relatively reluctantly and

by only a few ex-trainees. It can, therefore, not be stated conclusively that they are superfluous subjects for a sales assistant.

7.6.2.4. Suggested Improvements in the Training

To the last question regarding improvements in training one answer was:

"As a trainee you are drawn too much into the actual work without learning anything specifically due to lack of staff on the department. Trainees are often put in as sales assistants which is not the point of the exercise."

This matches the comments made by the trainees who felt that not enough off-the-job training was being carried out, which thus devalued their occupation, seeing that it could be done with a minimum of training. Being employed almost immediately on the shop floor, although emphasised as important by all the training managers due to the nature of the occupation, contrasts starkly with other apprenticeships. In many craft apprenticeships the first year of training is spent away from the production line in a training workshop. Other commercial apprenticeships require the learning of tangible skills such as typing and short-hand before a trainee can participate in the operation of the company. Selling and customer contact and all the refinements that this entails are still not skills which are recognised in these terms.

In all four companies some assistants felt there was really nothing else they could have learned to make their job easier, the job not being that difficult. Some of the DS/WG assistants would have liked more product and selling knowledge through role play, the two subjects also frequently mentioned in the Goldmann and Müller survey:

"Warenkunde ist auch wichtig, aber die Beziehung zu den Kunden ist ganz besonders wichtig." (1986,93)

The DS/GB assistants instead mentioned improvements which had in fact already been implemented - an Outward Bound Course and a change in the timing of the off-the-job elements. Communication, display and selling skills were again mentioned by individuals. The main concern among the Schade assistants was again an update on new products, whereas Safeway assistants were more concerned about computing skills.

This again indicates the different attitudes adopted to selling in the two countries. The German assistants felt a desire (if not a need) to know more about their products to be able to serve the customers better, whereas the British assistants were more concerned about the technical side e.g. computers and corresponding with manufacturers.

7.6.3. Main Features of the Job

However, as the number of assistants questioned was relatively small, it is more enlightening to study the comments the assistants made about their training and working life in general to explain the replies to the more structured questions.

The DS/WG assistants were on the whole the most constructively critical of their training, some having spent time in the recent past analysing what improvements could be made, thinking about their career progression and reflecting on the general training situation. Their comments, and where relevant those of other assistants, will be studied below, firstly in relation to the need for selling skills and secondly for product knowledge. Thirdly, Goldmann and Müller emphasise the lack of recognition of the social-communicative skills as a professional qualification of this job. This will be looked at in conjunction with the general attitude towards the job of sales assistant. Finally the general working conditions of sales assistants will be looked at, with long hours being prominent as well as the relative low pay.

7.6.3.1. Selling Skills

The importance of being able to approach the customer in the right way, knowing when to close the sale and offering related products was demonstrated by the training material of both department stores. The DITB survey (cf 5.3.1.) had identified it as an area of growing importance and the new training regulations in both countries were designed around it. The ex-trainees emphasise the importance but also the contradictions of this aspect of their job: ¹¹

"Selling is possible without training. You quickly get used to it. ...Sales conversations are quite different in practice than when learnt. You can only do it through practice." (DS/WG,28,f)

"The difference between a trainee and a sales assistant is that the trainee needs special training because s/he is new and the sales assistant (without training) will have learned through practice." (DS/WG,22,f)

"You need to learn more about why customers take certain things in such and such a way. If your brain is not stimulated you are afraid that you'll unlearn what you learned during the apprenticeship." (DS/WG,22,f)

"It is harder to sell to friends or acquaintances because the inhibition is greater. Through videos or role play you would perhaps get over this quicker." (DS/WG,23,m)

"Since doing SIOB I've felt more confident in approaching customers." (DS/GB,19,f)

Department store sales assistants are, therefore, ambivalent towards selling skills, some feeling that more training is needed through role play and videos, while others continue to believe that only through experience can these skills be acquired.

Although "serving the customer" is the image both supermarkets were promoting the sales assistants did not highlight this skill. In practice supermarket assistants are not called upon to serve and advise customers very frequently. However, the image of a specialised sales assistant, whose main task is serving customers still determines the job of grocery assistant. Although other activities occupy the majority of the sales assistant's time these are seen as minor (Goldmann and Müller 1986,53). The sales assistants in this sample seem to have accepted that their job is different to that of a specialised sales assistant and they no longer hanker after it. The trainees have accepted this to a much lower degree. Furthermore, the image which the supermarkets are creating both towards the customers and potential trainees is not reflected in the realities of the sales assistant job.

7.6.3.2. Product Knowledge

The emphasis placed on knowing one's products has been demonstrated by both the trainees and ex-trainees. The following comments were only made by German assistants:

"The most important things for the customer are price, where the goods are situated and how many different kinds of the same product there are available in the shop. You could then concentrate on product knowledge to give the extra." (DS/WG,22,f)

"For furs or leather you would need training." (DS/WG,28,f)
"(You) should have 25% more internal company training. It's impossible to teach the trainees product knowledge due to lack of time on the part of senior sales assistants, the assistant manager and the sales assistants. I suggest a travelling expert who would do one hour product knowledge in the company. Take one of the hours from the vocational training school. ... 50% of customers don't know their size." (DS/WG,28,m)
"I have the interest to check up at home if a customer asked me about a product because the training was good." (Schade,23,f)
"You should be brought up to date when new products are put on the market - you should have new product knowledge seminars so that you know the product range better." (Schade,26,f)

The comments again demonstrate that although the DITB survey emphasised the need for more product knowledge as customers became more discerning and knowledgeable it is not a subject of importance in the British stores. When I explained the importance of product knowledge for German assistants to one of the DS/GB trainee departmental managers in the handbags, travel and jewellery section she had no comprehension for this nor could she see the point of spending that much time on product knowledge. This explains why it is possible for a non-product specialist to be promoted to a different department in the DS/GB. Other qualities are more important than product knowledge. This type of promotion is also possible in the German DS/WG, with trainees and assistant trainee managers being offered employment on completing their examinations in a different section to the one in which they had trained. They are, however, often reluctant to accept it.

7.6.3.3. Social-Communicative Skills

The social-communicative qualities of being polite, always friendly, remaining calm, attentive, concerned and interested in people are attributes which employers are looking for in sales assistants. In both countries there is a feeling that these qualities together with selling skills cannot be taught systematically. Both trainees and ex-trainees experience and internalise this view and often take these qualities for granted. One trainee said that many people think that selling is easy but it has its own problems as confirmed by a trainee in the Goldmann and Müller study:

"Ich meine dieser Beruf ist kein Zuckerlecken, ganz bestimmt nicht." (1986,70)

Always having to be friendly and the constant pressure between raising turnover by selling more for the company and being honest towards the customer are aspects with which a sales assistant has to come to terms. Some, however, do perceive that more could be done:

"They (trainees) should learn more about politeness. However, politeness and sales arguments are pointless if they are not well taught and learned at the beginning and if the trainee has not been brought up well at home." (DS/WG,22,f)

"You have to rouse the interest of the trainees. Many are there because of the unemployment situation and are only having a look and aren't taking it seriously. ... So far I have not been able to use much of what I learned as a retail trade merchant. ... It's more a question of age than education level how fast and well you learn to become a sales assistant." (DS/WG,22,f)

"Cuts in staff are made, but a good turnover is still expected. It means more stress for those who are there. Means you have to listen to lousy customers. The older ones are often better. ... The job of a sales assistant is devalued." (DS/WG,22,f)

"Customers are of the opinion that anyone can be a sales assistant and as assistants get paid customers will not accept rudeness." (DS/WG,28,f)

"You have to be 24ish to get on the management training scheme. It was important to learn social skills, for example telephone manner and communication. I couldn't see the point at the time but I can now." (DS/GB,19,f)

Goldmann and Müller also found that one does not learn how to behave towards customers through training but while training:

"... man lernt es im Verlauf der Ausbildung, aber nicht durch die Ausbildung." (1986,81)

and that experience is what is important. Watching and developing one's own style is the way to become a good sales assistant. They argue, using psychologically-based research as proof, that social-communicative and selling skills can be taught. If these were taught systematically their value would be recognised and the qualification standard and image of the sales assistant would be raised. If these competences were recognised the view that anyone can do the job would largely be dispelled. In Britain this may well now take place on an official level by having introduced a two-year scheme with higher educational entry requirements for an occupation which in the past required no more than a few weeks induction training. In Germany with the new training regulation, where selling has been made the central focus and where the administrative tasks are spread throughout the three years and product knowledge has been made the responsibility of

the company and not the BS there is also potential for this occupation to increase in recognition.

7.6.3.4. Working Conditions

The working conditions of shop assistants, including trainees, are in no way ideal with many working a twelve-hour day due to long journeys, the long lunch breaks and the wish to please the boss:

"I know I shouldn't work over but I do it because it's for my benefit." (Safeway trainee)

"The working hours are too long - until 6.30 or 7 pm, when you're on the till. I'd rather start earlier and stop earlier."

(Schade,18,m)

"The bad part is having to work on a Saturday but having two and a half days off in the week is good." (Schade trainee)

"The working times aren't good and the money not sufficient for the many hours. It takes me from 6.30 in the morning to 7.30 at night door-to-door because of the two hour lunch break and because I live a long way away.... If you come from far away you'd have to stay late in the evenings to learn how to cash up. It's voluntary and doesn't count as working time." (Schade trainee,20,f)

The low pay was mentioned by some of the YTS trainees and also by the fully trained assistants as a negative factor of their job. The levels of pay between the two countries do not compare favourably at first sight:

Comparative Wage Levels for Trainees, Sales Assistants and Assistant
Manager in Frankfurt and Birmingham (1986)

<u>Position</u>	<u>West Germany</u>	<u>Britain</u>
	gross in pounds sterling per month	
1st year trainee	175.52	118.30*
2nd year trainee	192.83	151.66* +
3rd year trainee	232.53	na
Sales Assistant		
1st year of employment	440.29 (w t)	256.00
1st year of employment	359.40 (w/o t)	na
2nd year of employment	441.79 (w t)	310.00
2nd year of employment	381.19 (w/o t)	na
7th year of employment	637.31 (w t)	--
Assistant Manager		
1st year of employment	651.64 (w t)	416.66

Notes: Conversion rate in 1986 of £1 = DM 3.35

- * net amounts
- + from 1986 onwards
- w t = with training
- w/o t = without training
- na = not applicable
- = not available

Salaries in any context are difficult to compare and the gross amounts above only give an indication of what either the individual assistants or trainees told me in the case of the British figures or it is based on the YTS allowance. The German figures are taken from the negotiated agreement. In net terms the amounts for the trainees are not at all dissimilar: £27.30 for a first year YTS with an additional £3.00 travel allowance compared to a first year German trainee earning £33.44 net per week. The most noticeable difference in the table above is that between the trained and untrained sales assistant in West Germany, with a trained assistant earning £80.89 a month more than an untrained assistant. It must be stated that globally sales assistants in Germany are better paid than their British counterparts and once they reach higher positions the pay differential becomes greater still.

In conclusion then the hypotheses set out at the beginning of this chapter have largely been shown to be true. Proportionally more trainees are trained in retailing in the German companies, the trainees have achieved higher academic qualifications and are thus slightly older than their British counterparts. Very few trainees in either country had chosen retailing as their dream career but once in training

were enjoying it. Nevertheless, the German trainees were, from the beginning, convinced of the importance of doing an apprenticeship, whereas the British trainees only gradually came to terms with the benefits of YTS.

The German trainees and ex-trainees both emphasised the importance of the courses at the BS and more particularly the in-company lessons, of which there were not enough. If there was no examination to pass the need for these courses would decline. The British trainees enjoyed their off-the-job classes and some had identified the transferable nature of the skills being transmitted. The broader curriculum of the German classes meant that transferability was in-built to a large extent, as courses in German, Mathematics and Religious Education are not job specific. The same can be said for Communications, Dealing with People and Computing, and it can be argued that the content of these courses may be more suited to the professional and personal life of a sales assistant. The major difference between the views of the trainees and ex-trainees in the two countries is the lack of emphasis put on product knowledge and selling skills by the British trainees and the overriding importance of these to the German trainees. These differences and the social-communicative competences, which do not seem to be valued conspicuously in either country will be looked at again by studying the training managers' views.

7.7. Personnel/Training Managers

The views of the training (and/or personnel) managers have already been incorporated into the company profiles and training philosophy where relevant in Chapter 6 but their opinions on certain other aspects are relevant before concluding this chapter. Although interviewed systematically using a structured interview plan (Appendix 23 and 24) subsequent discussions proved equally useful. In addition branch managers in some of the supermarkets and departmental managers in department stores were interviewed informally, as these are involved with the trainees on a day-to-day basis and actually supervise much of the training.

The views of the training managers will be used to assess the constraints of and problems with training in each of the companies, changes which were being made in light of the new training regulations in Germany and YTS-2 in Britain and the effect new technology might have on training in each store. Finally an indication of how the image of the sales assistant could be improved through a more systematic training approach to social-communicative skills will be given.

7.7.1. Constraints and Problems

As in the Goldmann and Müller study the major problem identified by the training managers in West Germany was the lack of control which can be exercised over individual branch managers in the supermarkets and departmental managers in the DS/WG. Although these departmental and branch managers are trained to carry out training and more recently have had to take examinations (Ausbildereignungsprüfung), the quality of training on the shop floor very much depends on the personality of the managers and their assistants. As much as Head Office training managers in the supermarket would like to travel round on a regular basis to the branches this is impossible due to a lack of personnel and time. The trainees recognise the importance of "getting on" with the branch manager but also highlighted the lack of time the manager had to give to training the apprentices. The Safeway trainees also commented on the infrequent visits by the regional training manager, although each branch had an in-store trainer. The effort in setting up YTS in Safeway and developing it into YTS-2 was a definite constraint on the time of the regional training manager, especially with the short lead times given by the MSC for implementation.

In the DS/WG many trainees commented on the importance of "getting on" with the departmental manager and although a management training programme (KAMGA) was actually taking place in the week I spent in this store, the view of the training managers was that some departmental managers were too set in their ways to change even with training. This training programme had highlighted that departmental managers, although achieving their objectives could have performed better if their communication skills had been better. It is the responsibility of the departmental manager to show trainees how to put theory into practice.

At the DS/GB the friendliness of the staff was emphasised by the trainees and there were only occasional references to the importance of the departmental manager i.e. it depended on him/her how much product knowledge one was taught. As the departmental managers have to run the half-hour weekly Monday morning training sessions and are given extra guidelines for SIOB (cf Appendix 18E7) the variability between individuals is perhaps reduced. One could conjecture that less comments were made by the trainees and the training manager because the majority of departmental managers and their assistants are female! ¹²

The other problem highlighted in West Germany was the lack of integration between learning at the workplace and lessons at the BS. The Rahmenlehrplan (framework plan) and the IHK-Lehrstoffkatalog (training catalogue) are in theory co-ordinated at inception in very broad terms, but the training managers in both German stores felt that they were not co-ordinated systematically. At Schade the trainees attend 25 different BS and it is up to the teacher where in the Rahmenlehrplan he starts his subject. Every six months a new timetable is established. It is the role of the IHK to represent the stores in a co-ordinating role in discussions with the BS. Schade had sought clarification on this issue but to no avail. The views of the training manager in the DS/WG were very similar.

The main problem seems to be that there are not enough BS teachers and those who are there are frequently ill (cf my experience on the day I attended the BS was that the headmistress and the product knowledge teacher were both ill). The DS/WG, furthermore, felt that one could not rely on the BS to cover all the material needed for the examinations. It had, therefore, developed its internal company training to a high degree, reflected in the success rate of the trainees at the examination stage. This is an interest-ridden point of view as the companies would wish to do their own training without the BS, but would not admit this openly. The BS then blames the companies for taking on their role. The typical view seems to be that each side feels the other should be adopting their plan. The fact that the BS believes that the companies should be teaching product knowledge as they have the products in front of them is interesting in light of the decision

that this indeed should be the case for the new training regulation. This is the one subject trainees really want and when it is taught in the BS trainees do not really pay attention, because to them going to the BS is not the same as being "at work" according to one of the trainee departmental managers.

At the DS/GB the link between on- and off-the-job training is very close as trainees receive the off-the-job training on the premises. No problems were mentioned as the syllabus had been designed in-house. There is not necessarily a direct link each week between on- and off-the-job training i.e. display could be covered one week off-the-job and one month later on the department.

At Safeway there is personal liaising between the regional training manager and the local FE college. Block release was organised to suit the company and all Safeway trainees in the area attend the same course. The lecturers have adapted the course to suit Safeway using products sold in Safeway as illustrative material. The college is very flexible and there are apparently no problems.

It seems from these case studies that the generally held view in Britain that colleges are not adapting to the needs of companies is not true. Both British companies have solved the problem of integrating on- and off-the-job in different but equally suitable ways. In West Germany both companies had very similar views and the lack of integration between the BS and the store was seen as a problem. The wish to do something about it was there but the training managers felt relatively powerless on an individual basis and reacted by improving their own training syllabus. Changes can be seen with the introduction of the new training regulation.

7.7.2. New Training Regulations - YTS-2

YTS-2 in Britain was more of a talking point in the British stores than the new three year training regulation in Germany which is not surprising as YTS-2 was about to start in Britain, whereas the introduction of the new training regulation in Germany was still at least a year away. The DS/GB was at first most sceptical about

extending sales assistant training to two years with the training manager feeling that it was unfair to the trainees to commit themselves for that period of time. However, by studying towards an externally examined qualification (BTEC or CGLI Distribution) the trainees would be given more chances of employment outside the store. This was important as the DS/GB was not able to keep all its trainees on after training every year. Safeway were keen to develop YTS to two years, giving trainees the chance to specialise in a specific product group in the second year.

The problems in the present training scheme in West Germany were recognised by the case study companies, especially as far as the training for the third year was concerned. The DS/WG had converted its third year to an off-the-job mode as there were too many trainees to let them progress through the central administration, especially as some of it had been moved to a neighbouring branch and could not be reached easily by the trainees. The fact that the transmission of product knowledge will be the responsibility of the company and not the BS will mean that more time will have to be allocated in the branches and departments. Trainees will also be receiving computing and EPOS training at the BS under the new regulations and less time will be spent on book-keeping. The new emphasis on selling skills and product knowledge in both the BS and the company very much match the expressed needs of the trainees in West Germany. In Britain the lack of product knowledge as an integral part of CORC is surprising. Selling skills have been given a more prominent role, but companies are in no way obliged to adopt CORC as the standard for their company. The lack of uniformity in the British system is highlighted once again, with for example the DS/GB's trainees likely to follow CGLI Distribution and Safeway trainees following BTEC Distribution with similar, but not identical contents.

7.7.3. Technology

It was explained in Part II that although the potential for new technology in retailing, specifically in the form of EPOS and ultimately EFTPOS was enormous, fully integrated systems were only just being introduced in many retail companies. Food retailing for the

majority of the pre-packaged goods had more potential in the short-term than the more diverse range of goods sold in department stores.

Nevertheless, all four companies in the case studies had looked at new technology to varying degrees. Schade had introduced scanning in two of the branches visited and Safeway in one of them. Schade had run special courses for its cashiers to introduce them to the new system and this had not met with any difficulties. Older employees took longer to adapt than the younger staff and trainees. In many sections ordering was still a manual operation but the computer could be used at store level to calculate profit margins on individual lines. However, this was not instituted as this knowledge would be very useful for an employee who was planning to leave for a competitor and, therefore, remained under the control of Head Office. Three software programmes had already been tested to arrive at a system which suited the store where a number of articles were still not adapted to scanning.

The implications for training had not really been discussed except for the cashiers who were directly affected. Similarly at Safeway the regional training manager felt that although EPOS had great potential the implications were more a question of attitude development rather than training. The skills at the checkout will be reduced through scanning and, therefore, cashiers have more time to talk to customers. This is where the emphasis in training will lie rather than on computer technology itself.

In the DS/GB, as already indicated in Chapter 6, technology is one of the later development fields. There are only four electronic tills in the SC branch and no central till as is the case in many other department stores. The two week computing course which is a compulsory part of YTS gives British trainees an insight into computers even if they do not need to use them in the store. Off-the-job training also covers EPOS and other systems, but it was not a talking point in this store.

In the DS/WG by contrast seminars on EPOS had been held as early as 1984 for all the training managers, demonstrating that the cost-benefit point had now been reached where the introduction of EPOS was

profitable. No specific training implication as such was seen for the selling function but the cashier and pricing functions needed careful attention. The training managers were informed that it would be their role to explain the new system to trainees and staff through off-the-job seminars. All stores were to be operating this new system by 1988 at the latest. Training material to explain an integrated EPOS system had been developed and would be available to the trainers. The DS/WG was, therefore, well in advance of its British counterpart in developing the training for the introduction of EPOS. It was also more open about informing and involving as many staff as possible in this exercise which it was shown (Part II) is of great importance when introducing new technology.

The DS/WG was thus the only company to have fully researched the importance of training for the introduction of new technology.

7.7.4. Systematic Instruction in Social-Communicative Skills

Research in both West Germany and Britain has come to the conclusion that selling skills and product knowledge together with social and personal skills are the areas which will be of growing importance in the work of a sales assistant in the 1990s.

Technology on the one hand will remove many of the administrative functions e.g. ordering or at least reduce the time spent on these, leaving shop staff free to concentrate on their primary function - selling. It is in this area that trainees feel the least competent. Ex-trainees showed that the theory of selling is not like the practice and that the conversion process can only come with experience. Although dealing with customers is the area most sales assistants wish they were spending more time on, having chosen retailing because of its people-orientated image, it is also the most stressful activity. Product knowledge is recognised by the training managers in all four companies as being important with the German trainers putting more emphasis on it than their British counterparts. Selling skills were also deemed very important by the two department store trainers but of less importance by the supermarket trainers as most of their products

sell themselves. Instead, the friendly customer approach was highlighted.

Knowing how to sell i.e. selling skills are closely interlinked with knowing how to behave towards customers, understanding their motivations and desires and being able to detect very subtle signals. Knowing how to behave towards ones superiors and to ones colleagues is equally important in a people-orientated industry. Admittedly, actual practical experience and watching experienced sales assistants in action can be used to acquire these skills. As this is the standard method it is perceived by the trainees and ex-trainees as the only method. However, customer contact skills and human relations in general (social-communicative or interpersonal skills to give them another name) can be taught systematically. These skills were recognised more readily by the trainee departmental manager (DS/WG) and the trainee branch manager (Schade) than by the training managers. They were mentioned at Safeway as being important but no training material or reference to how these skills were to be transmitted was made.

It is beyond the scope of these case studies to analyse in detail the demands placed on a sales assistant in terms of selling skills, but the qualities needed are: product knowledge, the ability to be judgemental, a willingness to make contact, good oral expression, emotional stability, confidence and empathy with the customer. These are the skills demanded of many managers and seen as very positive qualities. In the case of sales assistants they are decidedly undervalued.

The new training regulation in West Germany does accord this area more importance, dividing the training into three qualification areas: social-communicative, product-related and information-related. 20% of the learning objectives are centered on sales skills with product knowledge following closely with 18%. In the new British retail illustrative scheme customer contact is identified as the first foundation objective group. It is, however, limited to establishing contact with the customer, receiving and directing the customer, consulting, finding out and checking orally the needs of the customer and dealing with customer complaints. These limitations mean that the

trainee has to rely on the personal and social skills element of the broad YTS syllabus to provide the real communication skills. This is, therefore, still an area which needs attention in both countries, being recognised more subconsciously by the training staff than consciously.

7.8. Conclusion

In this chapter the differences and similarities between the practical training experience of trainees, ex-trainees and training managers have been analysed. The major difference to emerge is the greater value placed on obtaining qualified status in West Germany compared to Britain and the greater selling skills needed in a department store compared to a supermarket. There is no difference between the two countries as far as this aspect is concerned. German trainees, ex-trainees and training managers place more emphasis on product knowledge than their British counterparts. The quality of the training received is determined to a large extent by the departmental and branch managers in the stores in West Germany. Their training is often insufficient to convert theory into practice for the trainees. Although British managers are no better trained it is a problem which is not mentioned as frequently. I would argue that this is interlinked to the fact that less emphasis is put on product knowledge and that, therefore, less instruction is needed. The lower expectations generally of British trainees, not being used to receiving very much training in the first place also has a role to play here.

Trainees respond well to being given responsibility and being allowed to act independently by being in charge of a particular section, where they can divide their own time. Trainees in both countries are used on the shop floor as sales assistant from a very early point in their training. Not enough attention is given to the systematic transmission of customer contact skills, with trainees spending more time on menial tasks - stocking, pricing, tidying, cleaning. This one can then argue, is an abuse of cheap labour. As more and more trainees with higher educational qualifications enter retail apprenticeships in Germany disillusionment sets in with Abitur trainees being the most critical of their training.

The formalised instruction of product knowledge and selling skills heightens the self-image of sales assistants and if they feel that they are valued by their employer with time being spent on their development they will respond by working harder and creating a happier working environment. This can ultimately only be of benefit to the company as a satisfied workforce reflects this feeling to the customers, who will favour a store with a happy atmosphere to an unfriendly one. Product knowledge is important not only because the customer needs to know the information but also because it is the only tangible way in which sales assistants can identify themselves as being skilled. The lack of emphasis placed on social-communicative skills strengthens this view, as these are skills which sales assistants and trainees believe they are imbued with. This is the case for both countries. The Outward Bound Course organised by the DS/GB is a notable exception and is an element which could profitably be introduced into the German training plan. The best way of teaching social-communicative skills in a retailing environment is an area still requiring further research. A suggestion would be to use middle-management who seem to sympathise with the need for these skills, needing to acquire them themselves.

Finally the transferability of the skills acquired in a retail training scheme is thus not immediately evident. Elements of various subjects could be used in other stores or other occupations or increase the knowledge of the trainee for life in general e.g. Communication in Britain and Politics and German in West Germany. The qualification of sales assistant does not have a high enough standing in German society to be classed as transferable in its own right. This is reflected in the attitude of the trainees towards their occupation and its future. Compared to other apprenticeships in Germany the content is very narrow. The new training regulation has brought forward many improvements, widening the content to include environmental factors, computing and more product knowledge which can be applied in other fields as well. However, in comparison to the British YTS the German qualification is extremely transferable for two main reasons: there is a large amount of general knowledge which is acquired in the non-specialist syllabus of the BS, even if not always popular with the trainees and the qualification which is obtained after the successful

completion of several examinations is nationally recognised. Its currency will increase as a result of the new regulation extending the training to three years and hopefully abolishing the two year training programme. Maybe in Britain in time CORC will fulfil this function. However, even then the requirements demanded of a British trainee are still lower than what is expected of a German trainee.

- ¹ As there are only first year trainees in the British companies the sample would have been better matched if only first year apprentices in the German companies had been interviewed.
- ² Statement made by a boy in 1967 in a study by Dibbern quoted in Ehrke 1981,15.
- ³ Male apprentice in his third year in the 1967 study by Dibbern quoted in Ehrke 1981,16.
- ⁴ The fact that I am German, but living in Britain helped in both cases.
- ⁵ For Schade the figure reduces to 3% if the trainees in the region are taken into account. For Safeway the region was not as large and this would, therefore, be an unfair comparison.
- ⁶ If it had been possible to undertake a longitudinal study it would have been interesting to study the breakdown of the training occupations and the potential career paths, followed by what actually happened several years later.
- ⁷ Ehrke refers to the following study: Immler, Erwin. 1977. "Ist es noch sinnvoll, Verkäuferlehrlinge auszubilden?" in BAG-Nachrichten Heft 9.
- ⁸ The complaints and counselling mechanism in place in each store for dissatisfied trainees was not explored in any great detail, but individual trainees in both countries implied that they had not been given adequate information about this. In theory the German trainees can complain to the IHK and the British trainees to the MSC. One of the DS/WG trainees had done so in her previous apprenticeship and had subsequently been transferred to the DS/WG. None of the British trainees mentioned this.
- ⁹ A study in 1972 by Timmer asked school leavers of the upper secondary school to rate the social prestige of occupations. VK was rated as by far the lowest (0,0), followed by hairdresser (0,3) and EHK (1,0) together with kindergarten teacher. The average for all jobs was 1,5. Reported in Ehrke 1981,17-18. Timmer, Detlev: Berufsstatus und Personalwerbung in Bergler, Reinhold (ed): Marktpsychologie, Bern-Stuttgart-Wien 1972.
- ¹⁰ Quoted in Ball 1983,92. Silverman, D. (1974) 'Producing Organized Sense' in Thompson, K. Perspectives on Organizations, Open University Press.
- ¹¹ In all the following quotations the sales assistants are coded by their store, age and gender.
- ¹² It has been recognised that women use a different managerial style to men.

CONCLUSION

In this study it has been shown that although the West German and British labour markets present young people of minimum school leaving age with the same options: staying on at school or transferring to vocational education; entering employment with or without training; taking up an apprenticeship or joining a government sponsored training scheme, school leavers chose the various options to quite differing degrees in the two countries.

Changes in participation rates in education and training occurred over the last twenty-five years in both countries. In West Germany young people have increasingly been staying on at school to obtain higher qualifications before embarking on an apprenticeship and a large proportion ultimately continue onto university. In addition, apprenticeships may precede university education, this being just another track of the accepted educational system. In Britain, in contrast, this would be a rare occurrence, as the link between apprenticeships and degree level education is virtually unknown: they are two separate tracks. In Britain, although the proportion going straight into employment with little or no training has dropped with a shift towards government sponsored training schemes, this is still a much greater proportion than in West Germany. West Germany therefore trains a much larger proportion of its workforce to higher levels than Britain.

However, in the long-term is the training structure which has developed meeting the demands of the future, both in terms of employers' needs and young people's aspirations? Britain demonstrates a closer match between skills taught and employers' needs - due to the fact that training is more company specific, but those who get no training or are not taken on after their training are at a greater disadvantage. The German system trains a greater number of school leavers but not necessarily for the jobs which are going to be available. If the training is then very specific and not broad-based young people are forced into related jobs or into semi-skilled employment. However, having been trained gives the person the opportunity of rising to the

higher level and enables them to be retrained more easily. Through the introduction of technology the occupational structure is changing away from no skill labouring, sweeping, strength type jobs to a need for people who understand the whole process, can operate both machines and computers and know what to do when they go wrong. Employees are expected to be more flexible in terms of skills so that they can be employed in different sections of a company - polyvalency being the key word. The German Lehre enables young people to transfer into other occupations, because it is the value placed on the qualification which determines the person's worth in society. The qualification of retail trade merchant can be used to obtain office employment.

YTS does in theory also make this possible: the actual concept of YTS is very good, especially with the second year attached, leading to a recognised qualification. The problem is that it does not work everywhere in practice. Whereas tradition and legal provision make training work in West Germany as it is the accepted path to starting work, this is not the case in Britain. Various studies have demonstrated the link between productivity and training (Steedman and Wagner 1987,1989) but there is still some reluctance among British industry and policy-makers of accepting the evidence (NEDO/MSO 1984). The central role of the "Beruf" which can only be acquired through officially recognised training i.e. via an apprenticeship continues to dominate West German society. The value of training in Britain is only slowly being recognised and the government has invested huge sums to raise the consciousness of the population at large, young people and their parents and employers.

At first YTS seemed to be directed at the less qualified young people. It also had inherent faults in the quality of training provided, funding, structure and length. With the greater proportion of school leavers now automatically going onto YTS and employers, young people and parents accepting it as the normal route into employment attitudes are beginning to change. Training in Britain has gained in value in the last ten years. Many young people are now demanding training as a right before accepting a job. To obtain total credibility the government will eventually have to cease funding it (as is starting to happen in 1990), but retain the structure which is now slowly emerging

of qualifications for all two year participants, links to FE or other training and links to permanent employment. At the time the case studies were undertaken this was not universally true: training in the form of YTS was still very much seen as second best to a job.

If employers can demonstrate an organised well-planned training programme where school leavers learn to be flexible and adaptable within a specific work environment and the young people are able to work in jobs using skills they have acquired during their training then it is proof that YTS is working. If, however, they end up in jobs where the training is of no relevance or use then YTS has failed. In West Germany the components of an apprenticeship are established in tripartite bodies, but still afford flexibility in individual companies. It means that the content has been agreed by all concerned. In Britain the content is decided by managing agents with approval from the MSC. There is no uniform scheme throughout the country. This obviously restricts the mobility of the labour force but it also means that there is no in-built quality control nor any safeguards against abuse.

German retail employees are likely to have a nationally-valued and recognised qualification enabling them to work in any retail outlet in the country. In contrast a British retail employee will only in very recent years have been given the chance to acquire a qualification; this will not be the same nationally and will not confirm a recognised level of skills.

However, if the certificate at the end of the training or the log book are only regarded by some employers as a worthwhile achievement or worth doing, then they have little value. What is the point of filling in a log book if from day one to the end of three months all the trainee has been doing is sitting at the checkout. That is not exposure to work experience, but to work. A log book like that is of no value to anyone. The case studies show that German trainees have similar experiences which indicates that it is perhaps the nature of retailing which leads to these types of examples.

Paper qualifications have never had the same value attached to them in Britain as West Germany: proving one's worth in a job ensured promotion and systematic training to do well at the next stage was not considered essential. Qualifications can, however, enhance the status of an occupation. Accountants only become qualified professionals once they have passed a series of examinations. There is no reason why this status cannot be conferred to other occupations, which at present hold a lower prestige value such as retail workers. The case studies conducted in Frankfurt and Birmingham very clearly showed that none of the trainees viewed their occupation very highly. The German trainees were aiming for a nationally recognised qualification, but it was one to which a low status value was attached. They all, nevertheless, insisted that it was essential to obtain the qualification because it confirmed to society that they were capable of reaching a certain standard and they would then be officially able to call themselves a sales assistant. The British trainees were also in part aiming for qualifications, to which, however, they attached little importance. Impressing the boss with one's skills and attitude was of more importance to the trainees, as this would ensure them continued employment.

The occupation of sales assistant is undervalued in society. Good sales assistants are difficult to find and the skills needed are not seen as skills, as shown both in the Goldmann and Müller study and reinforced by the answers of the ex-trainees in the present study. Coping with the constant pressure of being on show, communicating effectively with customers, making them want to come back to a store - or even displaying politeness continually - are qualities which are expected of young trainees with little systematic training given in these areas. Product knowledge and social-communicative skills are undervalued in retail training in Britain and West Germany in practice, although in theory, at least, in the German system provision for their transmission is made. German trainees know much more about the products they are selling than the British trainees. The DITB Environmental Scan highlighted many of these points, but training provision in British retailing has not made good use of the knowledge gained from this scan. Short-term expediency at the expense of long-term advantage is again in evidence.

These findings are relevant in view of the discussions about changing the content of the training regulations for retail staff. Training in retailing can help companies identify future managerial staff and help enhance the reputation of a company. The image of working in retailing can be improved through good training provision. The occupation of sales assistant can be made worth aiming for by giving it qualified status in the form of paper qualifications. The increase in the number of trainees aiming for the retail trade merchant qualification rather than the two-year sales assistant qualification in the German system clearly illustrates the effect which can be achieved.

Finally, information technology has played a very significant part in the discussions, because fundamentally the selling process and the skills associated with that will remain the central focal point. However, the influence of technology should be given greater emphasis, before it is too late. It would be problematic if the new training regulation was orientated too much towards a certain form of selling or a certain product range, because in this way the companies would lack the future innovation potential in their staff, and the employees would be hindered in adapting themselves to future demands which might be made of them.

YTS still has many weaknesses compared to the German Lehre in retailing, but it also has some strengths. The most important for the future is its flexibility. This was demonstrated in the case studies where one trainee was moved in the DS/GB from selling to window display and one trainee at Safeway moved from general shop work to computerised stock control. In the German system a trainee's potential in these areas would no doubt have been noted but the possibility of developing them at that stage would not have been possible, as it would have been a different training regulation governing that occupation. In those terms the British system is more flexible but the German system is more thorough.

Future research could usefully look at the effect of YTS-2 and the new training regulation in Germany to see if the improvements which were intended were actually put into practice. A larger sample of companies

in a wider geographical area could be considered. The following questions could be asked. Has the image of the sales assistant occupation improved? Have young people been able to use YTS in large numbers as a stepping stone to a career in retailing? Has the new German training regulation meant that retail trainees are more broadly qualified? Are British retail trainees receiving instruction in product knowledge to the same extent as their German counterparts or is short-term expediency, i.e. training for the job in hand, becoming dominant again as the number of school leavers declines in the 1990s?

Training provision in retailing in both countries is not perfect, nor is it likely to ever be so, because the retail industry is constantly changing. The German training provision is slow to adapt to change, but even the out-dated training regulations provide young people with broad-based knowledge (through compulsory day-release) and a narrow skill base. The British training provision is quicker to respond to market forces, but as there is no uniform qualification structure much of the training is invalidated. Without some systematic framework for an admittedly disparate industry progress is unlikely to be fast.

In the long-term a training system based on a measurable output, i.e. qualifications, is going to be more acceptable in the Single Market of 1993. The fact that a particular employer knows that a certain employee is worth more than the paper qualification he holds is not going to serve that employee when he tries to move into other employment possibly in another country. The case studies have shown that both the British and the German training provision in retailing work, in the former because the need for training is not seen and in the latter because without it one is not a full member of society. The case studies cannot prove that the qualification issue is as relevant, but going on past experience, I would predict it to be true.

In the late 1980s the British attitude to training had started to change for the better, a unified programme of training for young people had been instituted and a national review of qualifications had been undertaken. However, by the early 1990s short-term expediency had again started to appear as the number of potential school leavers started to decline: reduced funding for youth training, greater

employer control concerning length of training and no compulsory 20 weeks off-the-job training to obtain qualifications. The concept of flexibility has been taken a step further: there is no longer a training agreement, young people no longer have the choice as to whether to participate and the employer determines the programme. Whether this will make training in Britain more acceptable is debatable.

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GLOSSARY AND ABBREVIATIONS

Abitur	School leaving qualification considered equivalent to GCE A-levels
Azubi	Auszubildender (Trainees)
BIBB	Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung (Federal Institute for Vocational Education)
BGJ	Berufsgrundbildungsjahr (Basic Vocational Training Year)
BMBW	Bundesminister für Bildung und Wissenschaft (Federal Minister for Education and Science)
BS	Berufsschule (Vocational Training School)
BVJ	Berufsvorbereitungsjahr (Vocational Preparatory Year)
BWP	Berufsbildung in Wissenschaft und Praxis (Journal of Vocational Training in Theory and Practice)
CEDEFOP	Centre Européen de la Formation Professionnelle - Europäisches Zentrum für die Förderung der Berufsbildung (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training)
DGB	Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund (German Trade Union Council)
DITB	Distributive Industry Training Board
EHK	Einzelhandelskaufmann/frau (Retail Trade Merchant)
EITB	Engineering Industry Training Board
FE	Further Education
FEU	Further Education Unit
GB	Great Britain
HBV	Handel, Banken und Versicherungen (Shopworkers Union)
HSA	Hauptschulabschluß (School leaving certificate)
ICT	Industrial and Commercial Training (Journal)
IHK	Industrie- und Handelskammer (Chamber of Trade and Industry)
KMK	Kultusministerkonferenz (Conference of Ministers for Culture)
MSC	Manpower Services Commission
MR	Mittlere Reife also referred to as Realschulabschluß (school leaving qualification roughly equivalent to GCE O-levels)
NEDO	National Economic Development Office

NIESR National Institute for Economic and Social Research
 RCB Retail Consortium Bulletin
 RDM Retail Distribution Management
 TES Times Education Supplement
 THES Times Higher Education Supplement
 USDAW Union of Shop, Distributive and Allied Workers
 UVP Unified Vocational Preparation
 VK Verkäufer/in (Sales Assistant)
 WEEP Work Experience on Employers' Premises
 WG West Germany
 WZB Wissenschaftszentrum Berlin
 YOP Youth Opportunities Programme
 YTN Youth Training News (MSC Publication)
 YTS Youth Training Scheme
 ZBW Zeitschrift für Berufs- und Wirtschaftspädagogik (Journal for Vocational and Economic Pedagogy)

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APPENDIX 1

Visits to West Germany by British Groups to Look at Vocational Training

- 1955 John WAY, Productivity Group
- 1975 Anglo-German Foundation sponsored visit (TUC, ITB, FE College and industrial representative): Provision for unemployed young people. (Anglo-German Foundation 1976 Report).
- 1976 DITB group visited the Rhineland and Munich to look at training centres.
- 1979/ Further Education Staff College visit
1980
- 1984 Geoff DALE "German Study Visit" BACIE Nov/Dec 1984, 215.
Geoff LAWLER MP
- 1985 Jacob FRANKLIN, Dudley MSC.
- Nov. CBI tour of training facilities in the Cologne area.
- 1986 GRANA OA TV visit to Hamburg, JOBWATCH
NEDO/MS C visit for "Competence and Competition".
- 1983- Sig PRAIS and Karin WAGNER collaboration
1986
- 1987 Hilary STEEDMAN for television programme on a comparison of kitchen unit manufacturers.
- 1990 John MacGregor, Secretary of State for Education

NB There were undoubtedly other visits which took place during the last 35 years, and especially during the last 15, but the above gives an indication of the importance attached both to comparative views and to the German vocational training system as a potential model for British policy makers and for those with an interest in training.

APPENDIX 2

Assimilation of Industry Groups in the IER Review and the Prognos Zukunft der Arbeiterlandschaft

The IER uses the 1963 SIC MLH to classify its industry groups (Summer 1983,131) while Prognos has used a combination of the micro-census's (MZ) sectoral structure and the economic branch system of the economic total reckoning (Volkswirtschaftliche Gesamtrechnung - VGR) (BeitrAB 94.1 1985,46-8,52).

The sixteen British industry groups were used as a base and an attempt made to fit the thirty German groups into these sixteen. Mechanical engineering and vehicles could not be separated out in the German classification system for the given statistics and in the British system mining and public utilities had to be grouped together as the German system categorises these together.

Details concerning the individual classification methods can be found in the source documents, but the table below shows the assimilation process used for this research.

<u>British Industry Groups</u>	<u>German Industry Groups</u>
<u>Manufacturing</u>	<u>Manufacturing</u>
1. Agriculture	1. Land, Forstwirtschaft, Fischerei
2. Mining and	2. Energie, Wasser, Bergbau
10. Public Utilities	
3. Food, drink and tobacco	15. Nahrungs-, Genussmittel
4. Chemicals	3. Chemie, Mineralölverarbeitung
5. Metals	7. Eisen-, NE Metallerzeugung und
	8. Eisen-, Stahlverformung
6. Engineering	9. Stahl-, Fahrzeug-, Maschinenbau
	10. EDV, Büromaschinen und
	11. Elektrotechnik, Optik, EBM-Waren
7. Textiles & Clothing	14. Leder, Textil, Bekleidung
8. Other Manufacturing	4. Kunststoff, Gummi, Asbest und
	5. Steine, Erde, Grobkeramik
	6. Feinkeramik, Glass
9. Construction	16. Bauhauptgewerbe und
	17. Ausbaugewerbe

Services

- 11. Transport & Communications
- 12. Distribution
- 13. Professional Services

- 14. Miscellaneous Services

- 15. Social Services

- 16. Public Administration

Services

- 19. Verkehr, Nachrichten Übermittlung
- 18. Handel
- 20. Kredit, Versicherungen und Beratung, Architekturbüros, Werbung, Wohnungswesen
- 21. Gaststätten, Beherbergung, Heime
- 23. Medien, Kunst, Unterhaltung
- 28. Wäscherei, Reinigung
- 27. Friseur, Körperpflegegewerbe
- 28. Sonstige Dienstleistungen a.n.g.
- 29. Organisationen ohne Erwerbscharakter, Private Haushalte
- 22. Wissenschaft, Bildung, Erziehung, Sport
- 24. Gesundheits-, Veterinärwesen
- 30. Gebietskörperschaften, Sozialversicherung

APPENDIX 3

Assimilation of Occupational Categories in the IER Review and the Prognos Zukunft der Arbeiterlandschaft

The IER uses its own Warwick Occupational Categories (Summer 1983, 132) and Prognos has also defined its own activity groups (Tätigkeitsgruppen) (BeitrAB 94.i 1985, 68-74). The eighteen British categories were used as a basis and an attempt made to fit the twenty-four German groups into these.

Details concerning the individual classification methods can be found in the source documents, but the table below shows the assimilation process used in this research.

<u>British Categories</u>	<u>German Categories</u>
<u>Manual Occupations</u>	<u>Manual Occupations</u>
10. Supervisors & Foremen	4. Kontroll-, und Anleitungstätigkeiten in der Produktion
11. Engineering Craftsmen	2. Handwerkliche Fertigungstätigkeiten
12. Other transferable craftsmen	5. Maschinenbedienung und -regelung
13. Non-transferable craftsmen	6. Reparaturtätigkeiten
14. Skilled Operatives	3. Maschinelle Fertigungstätigkeiten
15. Other Operatives	1. Tätigkeiten in der Primärproduktion und
	7. Lager- und Versandtätigkeiten
	8. Transporttätigkeiten
16. Security Occupations	20. Ordnen, Bewachen
17. Personal Service Occupations	18. Reinigungs-, hauswirtschaftliche Tätigkeiten, Gästebewirtung
18. Other Occupations	24. In Ausbildung

Non manual Occupations

1. Managers & Administrators
2. Education Professions
3. Health Professions
4. Other Professions
5. Literary, artistic and sports occupations
6. Engineers & Scientists
7. Technicians, draughtsmen
8. Clerical Occupations etc
9. Sales Occupations

Non-manual Occupations

17. Führungsaufgaben, Management
19. Ausbilden, Lehren, Betreuen
22. Physisch, psychisch behandeln/beraten
21. Rechtspflege
23. Publizieren, künstlerisch arbeiten
15. Forschungs- und Entwicklungstätigkeiten
16. Sachbezogene Entscheidungsfunktionen
12. Arbeitsspezifische Büro-tätigkeiten
13. Integrierte Sach/Antragsbearbeitung und
14. Entscheidungsvorbereitung und assistenz
9. Verkaufstätigkeiten allgemeiner Art und
10. Produktbezogene beratungsintensive Handelstätigkeiten
11. Kundenbezogene beratungsintensive Mittler/Maklertätigkeiten

Information über
Angehörige von
...

APPENDIX 4

Beratungs- und Entscheidungsgremien nach dem Gemeinsamen Ergebnisprotokoll vom 30. 5. 1972		
Gremium	Zusammensetzung	Aufgabe
Kontaktgespräch	Beauftragte des Bundes und der Kultusminister der Länder (zuständige Abteilungsleiter der entspr. Ministerien)	Klären von Grundsatzfragen der Koordination betrieblicher und schulischer Berufsausbildung sowie der im Koordinierungsausschuß nicht einvernehmlich gelösten Fragen
Koordinierungsausschuß	Beauftragte der zuständigen Bundesministerien und der Kultusministerien der Länder (zuständige Unterabteilungsleiter oder Referatsleiter)	Beraten und Entscheiden über <input type="checkbox"/> das Verfahren zur Abstimmung von Ausbildungsordnungen und Rahmenlehrplänen <input type="checkbox"/> den Beginn, die Probleme der Durchführung und den Abschluß von Abstimmungsprojekten
Ausschüsse der Sachverständigen des Bundes	Experten der Sozialparteien und des Bundesinstituts für Berufsbildung	Entwickeln der Ausbildungsordnungsentwürfe
Rahmenlehrplanausschüsse der KMK	Sachverständige der Länder, entsandt von den Kultusministerien	Entwickeln der Rahmenlehrplanelntwürfe
Gemeinsame Sitzungen der Sachverständigen des Bundes und der Länder	Sachverständige des Bundes und der Länder	Abstimmen der Ausbildungsordnungs- und Rahmenlehrplanelntwürfe

Source: BENNER; Hermann: Ordnung der staatlich anerkannten Ausbildungsberufe. 1982. Heft 48
 Berlin: BIBB, page 63.

APPENDIX 5

Apprenticeship Schemes and Further Education in Britain

Historical Overview

The start of formal apprenticeships to a craft trade in England can be traced back to the Middle Ages. A boy (girl apprentices did not exist) was 'bound apprentice' to an established member of the guild of his chosen trade, who undertook to transmit his knowledge and skill as well as supervise the moral welfare of his apprentice, provide him with food, lodgings, clothing and medical care. Usually the apprentice would live with his master's family, the workshop normally being attached to the living quarters.

An apprentice became legally bound by the Elizabethan Act, the Statute of Artificers (4 Eliz. 1, 5) of 1563 to serve a master for seven years and in the majority of cases received little or no monetary remuneration. Before the industrial revolution (c. 1730-1850) this was the accepted system, with the apprentice learning by what came to be known as "sitting next to Nellie": he would watch his master and then copy him. There were no training guidelines or curriculum. Bad habits could equally well be passed on as good ones. The apprentice was, however, required to make a test-piece, known then as a 'master-piece', which he submitted for inspection to a group of masters, in order to gain recognition by the guild of his status as a free journeyman no longer bound to a master. The period as a journeyman would last several years on very low wages before a craftsman could set up his own business either by marrying his master's daughter or in the ordinary way of business. The system was based on small businesses, with close harmonious relationships between master and apprentice and the community judging the master as much by his apprentices as by his goods.

The advent of the factory system brought about major changes. The benefits in kind were replaced by wages, initially payable to the parent or guardian, who would provide the services instead of the master. The document which legally set out the terms of agreement was, and still is, called an 'indenture'. The actual terms changed very little until the end of 19th century: the apprentice was severely restricted in his outside activities, not being allowed to marry, gamble without his master's permission, buy or sell nor haunt taverns or Playhouses (Crawford/Sterland 1963,8). Although trade apprenticeships were still a desirable way of learning a trade and securing a future livelihood, the industrial revolution brought about the rapid decline of apprenticeships. In 1814 the Statute of Artificers was repealed, the craft guilds lost much of their influence and the term 'apprentice' became debased and was initially replaced by 'lad' by the unions. However, the industrialists were now in a position of power and although by 1831 the regulation of apprenticeships had become a matter for agreement between employers and unions as the statutory system had broken down, employers paid little attention to the demands unions who were trying to enforce regulations concerning ratios of men to apprentices and the reduction of the apprenticeship period to five years.

By 1877 the cracks in the system were beginning to show and as George Howell, a writer at the time said:

"... our clothing, furniture, everything tells the same tale of scamped work; the public look on, shake their heads, and say it is the deterioration of our workmen." (Wellens 1963, 51)

It was not only the recognition of low-quality products being manufactured but also the fear of foreign competition which brought the subject of training or the lack of training the work force to the forefront. To quote George Howell again:

"The goods sent abroad by Sheffield and Birmingham are notoriously at a discount in consequence of the flimsy stuff of which they have been made; Lancashire and Yorkshire have suffered in a similar manner by the exportation of their shoddy produce and manufactures, until Continental Europe has been driven to repair the injury done to it by the manufacture of its own goods."(Wellens 1966,59)

This very real fear of competition from abroad, the strengthening of the trade unions through certain acts of Parliament and the 1870 Forster Act, bringing in a system of universal education and given weight by the 1880 Mundella Act, introducing the principle of compulsory attendance at school brought together employers and unions on the one hand and educationalists and employers on the other to discuss the improvement in standards of workmanship, skill, technical education and training.

The relegated role of apprenticeships was about to be reversed. In 1878 the education lobby advocated a dual system within which industry was to be responsible for practical training and the colleges and institutes for the formal academic courses. This was the start of the division of theory and practice into two distinct compartments, a system which was appropriate in the 1880s but a feature frequently lamented in this century. Wellens (1963,62) saw the cause of this dichotomy as the result of the absence of a national policy-making body to link the several interested parties. Although ten years later the Manpower Services Commission (MSC) was brought into existence, the complaint by industry that colleges are not supplying courses related to the training offered by employers is frequently voiced.

Developments in the the 1870s and 1880s caused the system of apprenticeships to be revived and adapted to the Victorians' concepts: the unions reimposed controls over the age of entry, the duration of apprenticeships and the proportion of apprentices to skilled men, all of which reinforced the time-serving principle; the educational institutes developed courses to match the five-year period laid down by the unions and the examination bodies devised examinations which tested the theoretical knowledge of apprentices. The one feature not to be revived was the 'master-piece', because the Victorians thought that progress in manufacturing lay in breaking down a process into a large number of simple operations (Taylorism). Thus, no apprentice in a factory saw the product through the whole process himself, making the 'master-piece' redundant. Since 1814 apprenticeships had tended to be developed by agreement between employers and unions rather than by statutory enactments and state involvement in this field came to be

regarded as that of an observer giving its blessing to the proceedings. The defects of the post-war system of apprenticeships can be traced back to the revival of the system in the Victorian era, making changes in the context of that time, but which is in need of major modifications if it is to function successfully one hundred years later.

Slight modifications did occur at the beginning of the 20th century, keeping pace with the social revolution at that time. The industrial revolution had called for two types of workers: the skilled artisan on the one hand and the manager or technologist on the other. To enter the latter group a boy would become a pupil, which involved paying a premium and therefore only possible for boys from relatively prosperous families. They would take a university degree and then become a premium pupil for three to four years before obtaining positions of responsibility.

Those less fortunate worked their way up from the shop floor, attending evening classes (usually after a 12-hour working day from 6 am to 6 pm) at the local Mechanics Institute (see the section on Further Education for more detail) and taking examinations set by the City and Guilds of London Institute. The National Certification Scheme was introduced in 1921.

After the First World War there was also a change in the premium apprenticeship, which developed into a student apprenticeship, whereby the graduate was trained for two years and paid for his work, rather than the trainee paying to be trained as was the case before.

Post-1945

The post-war period 1945 to 1955 has been characterised as a

"compact and homogeneous group of errors - all having to do with the national organisation of occupational training." (Wellens 1963,68)

Various efforts on the part of the trade unions, employers and educationalists with the support of the government were initiated to set up national committees to oversee training. The 1947 Agreements (Ministry of Labour and National Service, 1947) between employers and unions created national joint bodies and training committees which had the support of the Ministry of Labour, but because no Act of Parliament gave them any compulsory power to supervise, guide and inspect training facilities, they were ineffective and showed little initiative. The premise that the training of the worker should be solely the concern of the employer and the union, and that if they co-operate in the training venture an effective system would develop proved then, and again later to be misguided.

As a result of the special committee report on Higher Technical Education, chaired by Lord Percy in 1945 (HMSO code no 27-269) and the Hardman Working Party Report in 1947 (HMSO code no 27-9999) the National Advisory Council on Education for Industry and Commerce was set up, together with ten Regional Advisory Councils. These were to define the need for new academic courses in technical colleges and colleges of further education. Wellens (1963,66) argues again that the

bringing together of educationalists and industrialists, giving the latter the chance to state their requirements, so that the education system can then provide the courses to meet these needs, does not necessarily lead to any results of consequence. Education in industrial society cannot be used by industry like a shop, where goods are ordered and then paid for; the relationship between industry and the economic system is more subtle and delicate.

Even when the state intervened the results made little impression. The 1947 Industrial Organisation and Development Act proposed the establishment of development councils in certain industries, one of whose functions was to "promote the training of persons engaged or proposing engagement in the industry, and their education in technical and artistic subjects relevant thereto." (Wellens 1963,66) Only four were ever created and in 1963 there were just two remaining - the Cotton Industry Development Council and the Furniture Development Council, the former being very actively involved in training.

These efforts resulted in a set of organisations with no power and often with little initiative and so the apprenticeship system continued as before with all its faults, influenced only by three external factors: the 1944 Education Act, which offered equal opportunities for higher education and therefore reduced the supply of poor, talented boys working their way up through the apprenticeship system; a situation of full employment, which left school leavers more choice of occupation and made employers realise the necessity of apprenticeships to ensure a steady supply of skilled and trained labour. Coupled with this was the significant change in industrial structure, effected in part by the deployment of trained teams of skilled men, again enforcing the need for apprenticeships.

The value of the apprenticeship system was readily acknowledged, but critics also saw its shortcomings - no supervisory body, no test-piece, no nationally uniform training syllabus, narrow job specific training, obsolete working practice, no compulsory day-release for further education - to name just a few.

The Carr Report of February 1958 (Training for Skill 1958) was to prove a turning point in the history of occupational training in Britain. The effects were not immediate, but it was the first public document criticizing the inflexible and restrictive nature of apprenticeships to be signed by representatives of the trade unions; it called on industry to revise the apprenticeship system in order to use the extra pool of potential labour - the extra number of school leavers - resulting from the post-war increase in the birth-rate and it recommended closer cooperation between employers and further education to improve training methods and facilities.

The main outcome of the Carr Report was the establishment of the Industrial Training Council, composed mainly of trade union and employer representatives, but some government and further education representatives were co-opted. The Council was to encourage and assist the raising of training standards. However, as it had no legal backing it was not accountable to the public and being industry-dominated it proved more laudatory of current practices than an independent body might have been. It proved that the mechanism which had failed already

- a committee of employers and trade unions - would be no more successful when repeated.

As the government was leaving training to industry and relying on the continued buoyancy of the economy to absorb the increased number of school leavers, the critics of this approach, who finally took decisive action were the education institutions, who started offering pre-apprenticeship courses to occupy the whole of the first year between leaving school and starting an apprenticeship.

The following year on 11 April 1960 the government for the first time admitted some responsibility for apprenticeship training by announcing that the Government Training Centres (GTC), previously used to train adults, were to be used to provide, free of charge to the employer, full-time craft instruction for first-year apprentices. It was recognised that the first year of an apprenticeship was costly because the boy makes little contribution to production and needs a great deal of attention, and so by taking on the initial responsibility the government hoped to encourage employers to take responsibility for the remaining period. The courses at the GTCs were available for apprentices from small to medium sized companies, but the take-up rate was so low that places had to be offered to larger companies, who were quick to realise the benefits of a well-planned basic year of instruction, even if the apprentice was still indentured to the individual employer, who paid the wages.

This first direct government intervention in training, coming two years after the government had supported the Carr Report concept that training should be left to industry, led to the Local Education Authorities following suit and providing full-time courses in technical colleges for the first year apprentices. By mid-1962 55 LEAs were offering courses and over 3,000 students had enrolled. The apprentices were still indentured to an employer, who would provide the training for the remaining period. However, due to the autonomy of individual LEAs and regional variations in local industry the finance and curriculum varied greatly from no charge to £120 per session and the amount of time spent in the workshop from 75% to 13% of the total time. (Williams 1963,13)

Further isolated initiatives e.g. the Middlesex County Apprenticeship Scheme (Wellens 1963,72) or the call for a national apprenticeship scheme by the Central Advisory Council of Education (Wales) in March 1961 led to the complete fragmentation of the apprenticeship system. For the country as a whole this was a negative development, although positive practices developed: the Foundry Industry and Motor Vehicle Repairing Trade made advances in certification and the Post Office improved recruitment practice.

Not as a direct result of this individualised effort, but surely influenced by it, the 1962 government White Paper 'Industrial Training: Government Proposals' highlighted the serious weakness of the arrangement, whereby industrial training was left to the unco-ordinated decisions of firms, who lacked the economic incentive to invest in training workers, who were free to leave for other jobs, leaving the financial burden on those firms who trained. The new proposals, intended to remedy these weaknesses, represented a total reversal of government policy. The future state involvement in training the

nation's workforce was to be demonstrated by the 1964 Industrial Training Act. This development in Britain was in total contrast to developments in West Germany, where at this time the government continued to place the onus of training on employers and on convincing them of the need to train (cf Chapter 2).

Further Education in Britain

Historical Overview

The beginnings of further education can be traced back to the industrial revolution. Up until that time craft training had been the domain of the medieval guilds. With the advent of the factory system many workers developed a desire for instruction in the principles underlying workshop practice.

The first institutes, founded in 1796 catered mainly for cultivated men, but by 1850 the Mechanics Institute movement, started by George Birbeck in London in 1823 laid claim to 600 Institutes with over half a million members (Bristow 1976,132), attracted mainly by the opportunity for self-improvement. Lectures were held in the evenings and were often an exchange of knowledge by workers in the same industries. However, the Mechanics Institutes were too ambitious, for the majority of members lacked basic education, a national system of education only being provided at an elementary level for children by the Church of England and other religious bodies. They thus subsided into middle class organisations, offering lectures of general interest.

In addition, the commonly heard argument today, that a country dependant upon the skills of its workforce in an increasingly competitive age cannot leave technical education and training to voluntary effort, was already being voiced in the 1850s. Although manufacturers in the Victorian era were as unenthusiastic about human capital investment as employers often are today, technical education did expand, but provision remained evening-based.

The establishment of the Royal Society of Arts (RSA) and the City of Guilds of London Institute (CGLI) in the second half of 19th century as examination bodies in scientific, artistic and commercial branches practised by young artisans and others, led to a nationally unified base for examining approximately 300 craft and technician subjects. Although government initiated and still enjoying a close relationship with the Department of Education and Science, they are financially and educationally independent. The RSA since 1882 has concentrated on commercial subjects and since 1973, with the creation of the Business and Technicians Education Council (BTEC), the CGLI has relinquished certain technician examination schemes.

Industry and education were brought together in a partnership, where industries could develop and adapt schemes of FE as integral parts of apprenticeships and training programmes, as the examination boards were governed by committees of employers, trade unions and teachers. As previously indicated (see section on apprenticeships), this co-operation was not always fruitful, but because the examination bodies had the power to enforce their syllabuses, the partnership functioned effectively.

In 1885 Finchley Technical College was inaugurated, offering for the first time the study of technical subjects during the day. This was the beginning proper of the present day-release system. However, even with the passing of the 1889 Technical Instruction Act, empowering county councils to raise a penny rate to found schools for technical and manual instruction, changing the responsibility for FE from a national to a local base, the emphasis in teaching remained on theory, and workshop practice related to a specific trade or industry was expressly excluded. This was in direct contrast to the attitude on the continent, where the importance of workshop practice in similar schools was emphasized.

The 1890s were a period of expansion for technical education. Surplus funds from the Custom and Excise Duties provided for the establishment of technical colleges like Finchley all over the country and the 1902 Education Act called for the expansion of evening continuation schools, which had grown rapidly during the previous decade.

The establishment of senior and junior technical schools was to complement the evening schools. Junior schools were intended to provide boys, leaving school at 14 and waiting to become apprentices at 16 with a narrow technical curriculum. Although they were never very numerous, they did provide a very important service for local industry. Most of these boys attended evening classes after they had started their apprenticeship and often became skilled craftsmen, foremen and works managers.

Day-release also became more acceptable to employers, but full-time courses at technical schools and colleges continued to attract relatively few students. The 1918 Education Act called for the raising of the school leaving age to 15 and for compulsory attendance at continuation school for one day a week for all young people between the ages of 14 and 18. The Act, however, had an amendment attached making the implementation voluntary. This led to these clauses never being put into effect in contrast to West Germany.

Until after the Second World War the only real opportunity for technical education for ambitious boys in engineering and building was through evening classes ('night school'). The introduction, in 1921, of the national certificate system at ordinary level - three to five years of three evenings a week - and at higher level - another two years of evening study consolidated this pattern. For 40 years this was the only way a young man could reach professional status in the engineering industry, the other industries mostly offering similar but less explicit options.

After 1945

The 1944 Education Act was the first landmark in the post-war development of FE. For the first time it imposed a statutory duty on Local Education Authorities:

"It shall be the duty of every Local Education Authority to secure the provision for their area of adequate facilities for further education, that is to say, full-time and part-time education for

persons over compulsory school age." (1944 Education Act:Section 41)

However, Section 8 of the same Act stated another duty for Local Education Authorities:

"to secure that there shall be available for their area sufficient schools for providing secondary education, that is to say full-time education suitable to the requirements of senior pupils, other than such full-time education as may be provided for senior pupils in pursuance of a scheme made under the provision of this Act relating to further education."

Although both sections seem clear, the wording is vague enough for local authorities to regard provision for those presenting themselves for post-16 education in secondary schools as mandatory, whereas they have exercised discretion in providing FE in colleges. The problems this has raised in the last decade will be discussed later.

The Act further called for all school leavers to attend County Colleges for one whole day or two half days in each of 44 weeks a year, or for the equivalent time in continuous periods, their employers being obliged to release them. County Colleges were supposed to be established within three years of 1 April 1945, but because the means were lacking, this never happened just as compulsory day-release to the age of 18 as in the Federal Republic of Germany was never implemented.

The immediate results of the 1944 Act were not necessarily those intended. Although student numbers rose noticeably in the following decade (see the table below), due to a lack of major regional or national planning and with restraints on finance a very varied pattern of FE establishments developed.

Student Numbers in Further Education, 1946-70 (in Thousands)

Year	1946-7	1956	1963	1970
Full-time(incl. sandwich)	45	76	184	274
Part-time, day	196	469	613	749
Evening only	527	724	779	736
Evening Institutes	827	980	1075	1415
Totals	1595	2249	2651	3174

Without concentrating in detail on higher technological education within the sphere of influence of FE three main types of technical colleges had developed in the decade after the Second World War: Regional Colleges, Area Colleges and Local Colleges. Regional Colleges, of which there were 22, offered mainly high-level, full-time and sandwich courses of university first degree and post-graduate standard. In 1963 ten of these were designated Colleges of Advanced Technology and a further 25 remained as Regional Colleges. By 1970 they had nearly all been given a new status, that of a 'Polytechnic', whereby their function was to be the main centre for the future development of full-time higher education within the FE system.

The Area Colleges offered varying amounts of advanced work, mainly on a part-time basis, but some did offer full-time or sandwich courses.

Local Colleges provided mainly vocational part-time courses of a non-advanced standard. Finally there were the Evening Institutes, offering as their name implies part-time courses in the evening of mainly a recreational nature, but in some areas they provided advanced vocational courses.

As FE provision expanded after the war in this non-uniform manner, with individual Local Education Authorities offering whatever they felt was needed within their area, the government became aware of pressing national needs, expressed in the 1956 White Paper 'Technical Education'. The point, emphasized by the Percy Report in 1945, that unless Britain quickly geared its technical education to the scientific developments of modern industry she would not be able to compete successfully in world markets was reiterated. The government saw this need as so urgent that it declared itself ready to provide the necessary finance to expand FE immediately.

Although the 1956 White Paper was concerned primarily with the higher levels of FE two reports on the lower levels of FE led to the 1961 White Paper (Better Opportunities in Technical Education, 1961). These were the Carr Report, 'Training for skill: recruitment and training young workers in industry' published in 1958 and mainly concerned with the training of apprentices and the Crowther Report, '15 to 18' of 1959, which had a much greater influence on the subsequent development of FE. It was concerned about the lack of education the 15 to 18 year-olds received once they had left compulsory full-time education and it suggested that FE should expand to offer a viable alternative route for those young people not following the grammar school and higher education path. This route, was to offer a broad, humane education with a 'practical' bias. It again recommended compulsory day-release for 16 and 17 year olds at County Colleges. The 1961 White Paper attempted to implement some of the recommendations by introducing technician courses, revising the Ordinary National Certificate and calling for new craft courses for operatives and craftsmen. These reforms were to relate FE more closely to the needs of industry and intended removing the 'night school' (Evening Institutes did decline from over 9,000 in 1956 to about 7,500 in 1963). Although the total number of students in FE did not increase markedly, the number of full-time students more than doubled and part-time student numbers increased by roughly one third between 1956 and 1963.

MSC/DE PROGRAMMES FOR UNEMPLOYED YOUNG PEOPLE (aged 16-18)

MEASURE	MAIN ACTIVITY	THROUGHPUT		CHARACTERISTICS OF YOUNG PEOPLE	LENGTH OF SCHEME	PAYMENT TO EMPLOYERS	COSTS (gross) FOR PLACES APPROVED IN 1976/77	ALLOWANCES PER WEEK
		1976/77	1977/78 (provisionally earmarked prior to Young People Working Party)					
INCENTIVE TRAINING GRANTS Premium grant (including Premium grant with supplements)	Training in permanent employment	19,980	All measures = 41,500 Allocation between schemes still to be decided	Potential craft	One-off grant for training lasting minimum of 1 year (2 years if grant for off the job training) and permanent employment Maximum 26 weeks 'thin' Maximum 52 weeks 'thick'	Off the job training maximum grant £2000 (+ supplement of £750 per trainee for 5 trainees). On the job training maximum grant £850 per head	£23.6m	Normal employer wage
Sandwich course training	Training in temporary employment	3,364	"	Technician HND/OND student	Maximum 26 weeks 'thin' Maximum 52 weeks 'thick'	Up to £30 per week	£3.1m. Up to £30 per week maximum (exceptionally up to £40)	Normal employer wage
Training awards	Training with Industrial Training Boards	5,350	"	Potential craft	12 months maximum	—	£7.9m. £1,473 per head. £28 per week	£17
Clerical/computer awards	Training with Industrial Training Boards	3,350 (Sept-March)	"	Potential craft	12 months	—	£5.7m. £1,702 per head. £33 per week	£17
Engineering Industry Training Board young operator training	Training with Industrial Training Boards	2,000	"	Semi-skilled	4 months	—	£1.4m. £700 per head. £42 per week	£17
Construction Industry Training Board supplementary grants	—	7,075 grants	"	Potential craft	Normal apprenticeship	£325 per grant	£2.3m.	Normal employer wage
Measures to safeguard the continuity of individuals' training (mainly trainees on above schemes)								
Recruitment grant	Training in permanent employment	1,100	"	Former Training Award holders — potential craft	Available to the end of the 2nd year of training to secure full training with employer	£1,500 per head maximum	£2.4m.	Normal employer wage
Continued training with Industrial Training Board for Training Award holders	Training with Industrial Training Board	650	"	Potential craft 1st year Training Award holders	Available to the end of the 2nd year of training (but not permanent employment)	£36 per week	£0.5m. £63 per head	£20
Adoption grant or continued training for redundant apprentices	Training in permanent employment	As required	As required	Redundant apprentices	To within 6 months of end of apprenticeship (average apprenticeship lasts 3 years) and permanent employment	£850 in 1st 2 years of apprenticeship. £500 thereafter	£0.5m. £63 per head	Normal employer wage
DIRECT TRAINING/REHABILITATION BY TSA/ESA TSA Preparatory Courses	Remedial education	100-150	100-150	Literacy/numeracy problems	1-3 College of Further Education terms	—	Approximately £128,000 Approximately £850 per head. £29 per week and allowances	£13.65+ meals/travel

*In this section calendar years, not financial years, are used.

APPENDIX II Continued

MEASURE	MAIN ACTIVITY	THROUGHPUT	CHARACTERISTICS OF YOUNG PEOPLE	LENGTH OF SCHEME	PAYMENT TO EMPLOYERS	COSTS (gross) FOR PLACES APPROVED IN 1976/7	ALLOWANCES PER WEEK
		1976/77					
DIRECT TRAINING/REHABILITATION BY TSA*/ESA	Wider Opportunities Courses	200	Lacking motivation, confidence, interest	3 months	—	£192,000 £960 per head £74 per week	£13.65 + meals/travel
	Occupational Selection Courses	2,000	Needing occupation assessment, life/social and basic skills	15 weeks	—	£2m. £1,000 per head £67 per week	£13.65 + meals/travel
	Short Industrial Courses	11,000	Needing basic skill training (approximately semi-skilled level)	13 weeks	—	£9.6m. £880 per head £67 per week	£13.65 + meals/travel
TEMPORARY EMPLOYMENT	Employment Rehabilitation Centre	approximately 1,500	Mentally and physically disabled	Average 7-9 weeks maximum 26 weeks	—	£1.55m.	£13.15 + meals/travel
	Young People's Work Preparation Courses (ESA)	550-600	School leavers with physical/mental handicaps and difficulty in entering, settling into employment	1 school term	—	£587,000 £1,067 per head	£13.15 + meals/travel
TEMPORARY EMPLOYMENT	Community Industry	4,000	Educational/social disadvantaged; delinquent; handicapped	Average 10 months maximum 36 months	—	£5.8m. £1,800 per head per year. £35 per head per week	£22.50 at 16 £29.10 at 18
	Job Creation Programme **	17,000 †	Unemployed	Average 30 weeks maximum 12 months	Wages of employees and 10 per cent of wages bill for costs	Approximately £20m. £1,050 per head. £35 per week	Rate for the job
WORK EXPERIENCE	Work Experience Programme **	8,000	Unemployed	6 months	Allowances for trainee	£5.5m. (£19m. for 30,000) £423 per head. £16.3 per week	£16
	EMPLOYMENT SUBSIDIES	Youth Employment Subsidy	14,000 (Oct-March)	6 months unemployed	6 months + permanent employment	£10 per person per week	£3.3m. (Oct-Mar) £240 per head
Recruitment Subsidy for School Leavers		approximately 5,000 (April-Sep '76)	Unemployed school leavers	6 months + permanent employment	£5 per person per week	£500,000 £100 per head	Normal employer wage
Job Release Scheme		Estimated 300 (Jan-Mar '77)	Unemployed	Permanent employment	—	£90,000 £1,400 per head £10m. £20 per week	Normal employer wage
Temporary Employment Subsidy	estimated 11,000	Employed — about to become redundant	Maximum 12 months and an additional 6 months from April '77 under the Temporary Employment Subsidy Scheme	£20 per person per week. £10 per person per week after April 1977 under the Temporary Employment Subsidy Scheme	—	—	Normal employer wage

* In this section calendar years, not financial years, are used.

** Funded to take applications up to 31st August 1977.

† Places

MEASURE	MAIN ACTIVITY	THROUGHPUT		CHARACTERISTICS OF YOUNG PEOPLE	LENGTH OF SCHEME	PAYMENT TO EMPLOYERS	COSTS (gross) FOR PLACES APPROVED IN 1976/77	ALLOWANCES PER WEEK
		1976/77	1977/78 (provisionally earmarked prior to Young People Working Party)					
OTHER MSC SCHEMES								
Job Introduction Scheme (to start Summer 1977)	Trial period of employment (hopefully for permanent employment)	—	Maximum 2,000 (all ages — very few young people)	Disabled and 6 months not in open employment	6 weeks	Subsidy of £30 per week per person	Estimated £40,000 1977/78	Normal employer wage
Training with employers	Training in permanent employment	Very few young people	Very few	Disabled	4-13 weeks (semi-skilled) up to 1 year (skilled)	Allowances per trainee + contribution to training with gradual decrease in contribution to trainee allowance and contribution to training	Not applicable	£13.65 + meals/travel

EXAMPLES OF SOME OTHER SCHEMES (SELF-SUPPORTING OR PARTIALLY GOVERNMENT FUNDED)

SCHEME	MAIN ACTIVITY	CHARACTERISTICS OF CLIENTS
Peter Bedford Trust	Permanent employment	ex-prisoners, ex-probationers, ex-psychiatric, homeless all ages
Bulldog	Permanent employment	ex-offenders, probationers, alcoholics, other 'high risk' all ages.
Nacro Onward Industries	Permanent employment	ex-offenders, other 'high risk' all ages.
Yateley Industries	Permanent employment	disabled girls up to 26 years.
Michaelmas Trust	Permanent employment	ESN, mentally handicapped all ages.
Camden Enterprises	Temporary employment	chronically unemployed all ages.
St. Mark's Centre	Temporary employment	mentally, socially, physically handicapped all ages.
Oakside Industrial Rehabilitation Centre	Temporary employment	ex-psychiatric, other 'high risk'.
Burnbake Trust	Temporary employment	ex-offenders all ages.
Melting Pot Education and Training Scheme	Temporary employment	West Indian school-leavers.
Fullemploy	Training	West Indian and Asian usually lacking qualifications.
Brixton Neighbourhood Community Association	Training	West Indian mainly school-leavers.

Source: MSC. 1977. Young People and Work, London: MSC, 59-61

APPENDIX 7

Occupational Training Families in YTS

1. Administration/Clerical
2. Agriculture
3. Craft/Design
4. Maintenance
5. Technical/Scientific
6. Manufacturing
7. Processing
8. Food Preparation
9. Sales/Personal Service
10. Community/Health
11. Transport

Training Occupation Classification for YTS-2

1. Administrative and Clerical
2. Construction and Engineering
3. Selling and Storage
4. Health, Community and Personnel Services
5. Mechanical Engineering and Metal Production and Processing
6. Motor Vehicle Repair and Maintenance
7. Electrical and Electronic Engineering
8. Agricultural and Related
9. Catering, Food Preparation and Processing
10. Clothing and Textiles Manufacturing
11. Creative, Educational and Recreational Services
12. Non-Metal Processing
13. Transport Operating
14. Printing
15. Scientific
16. Fishing
17. Mining, Oil Extraction and Quarrying
18. Security Service
19. Others

APPENDIX 8

Specialised Product Options

1. Grocery, Delicatessen
2. Tobacco Goods
3. Health and Diet Products
4. Fashion, Clothing
5. Underwear, Furs
6. Shoes
7. Leather and Fancy Goods
8. Watches and Jewellery
9. Ironmongery and Household Wares
10. Glass, China, Ceramics
11. Lighting, Electrical Goods
12. Paint and Enamel
13. Handicraft Goods
14. Furniture and Furnishings
15. Linoleum and Floor Coverings
16. Wallpaper
17. Cosmetics, Perfumes
18. Medical-technical Goods
19. Sport Goods
20. Arms and Hunting Goods
21. Toys, Hobbies
22. Prams, Basket-carriage
23. Stamps, Philatelic Requirements
24. Books
25. Newspapers, Magazines
26. Musical Instruments
27. Photo/Cinema/Optical Goods
28. Radio, Television, Records
29. Motor Trade Goods
30. Bicycles, Motorcycles
31. Plants
32. Zoological Articles and live animals
33. Paper, Stationery, Office Supplies
34. Office Machinery, Office Furniture

Source: translated from Kaufmann/Kauffrau im Einzelhandel,
HBV/HBS, n.d., 70.

APPENDIX 9

Training Regulation Framework (Ausbildungsrahmenplan) for the Training Occupation of Trained Sales Person in Retailing (Kaufmann/Kauffrau im Einzelhandel) (Valid from 1.8.1987)

1. **The Training Company**

- 1.1. Position of the retail trades in the economy as a whole
- 1.2. Structure of the retail trades
- 1.3. Position of the training company in the market place
- 1.4. Organisation of the training company
- 1.5. Vocational Training
- 1.6. Safety and Protection at work, environmental protection and the efficient use of energy
- 1.7. Product Management

Purchasing

- 2.1. Purchase Planning
- 2.2. Purchasing Procedures

Storage

- 3.1. Receipt of Goods
- 3.2. Storage of Goods
- 3.3. Stock Control

Sales

- 4.1. Sales Preparation
- 4.2. Advice and Selling
- 4.3. Statement of Sales
- 4.4. Advertising and Sales Promotion
- 4.5. Product Selection

5. **Personnel Management**

6. **Book-keeping**

Source: translated and adapted from Kaufmann/Kauffrau im Einzelhandel Verordnungstext, Rahmenlehrplan, Kommentar HBV and Hans-Böckler-Stiftung, n.d., 57-69.

A Note on the Grant Proposals of the Distributive Industry Training Board

In March, 1969 the D.I.T.B. published its interim grant proposals, which outlined the cases in which grant would be paid. These interim proposals will be supplemented and altered from time to time.

It is expected that grants will be paid towards the cost of:

- (a) Rent and equipment of premises used exclusively for training.
- (b) Salaries of training officers recognised as such by the Board (see definition below).
- (c) 'Apprentices' and management trainees pursuing a course of planned training with appropriate further education in working time.
- (d) Tuition and examination fees for courses relevant to occupations in the industry at colleges of further education, universities and business schools, and courses leading to professional qualifications.
- (e) Tuition and examination fees for courses relevant to occupations in the industry organised by trade associations subject to recognition by the Board. During the current grant period appropriate correspondence courses will be recognised by the Board but in future such courses will need to be complemented by time off for study during working hours.
- (f) Fees for training officer courses of six weeks' duration or more organised by colleges of further education, universities and other bodies approved by the Board.
- (g) Fees for training within industry courses and instructor courses organised by the Department of Employment and Productivity.
- (h) Fees for approved courses for established training officers provided by colleges of further education, universities trade associations and other bodies.
- (i) Fees for short courses or conferences relevant to occupations in the industry provided by bodies recognised by the Board.
- (j) Wages or salaries of those attending off-the-job courses lasting for a total of five days or more.
- (k) Fares necessarily incurred in attending courses for which grant has been allowed as above or other approved courses together with the cost of board and lodging where the time away exceeds one day.
- (l) Salaries of training development officers employed by non-profit making bodies e.g. trade associations, professional associations, etc., will be considered for grant on production of reports of their schemes or surveys and some indication of their value to the training objectives.
- (m) Group training schemes. All the foregoing provisions of training will be recognised whether arranged by individual firms or by groups of employers acting together in group training schemes, subject to the same conditions.

Source: Denny, Elizabeth: The Merchant Apprentices. A Guide to the Training and Administration of Staff in the Distributive Trades, Collins, London, 1970, 153

RECURRING TRAINING NEEDS IDENTIFIED IN SCAN

- *1 Working with Data Input Devices and Soft and Hard Data Output.
- *2 Employees having a better Product/Commodity Knowledge.
- *3 Organisations will have to be more flexible and more sophisticated in their relationships with Staff and Customers.
- *4 A greater amount of Data becomes available for Decision Making.
- *5 A greater amount of awareness of the importance of Money.
- *6 Improvements in Physical Distribution.
- *7 Health and Safety. Security. Legislation.
- *8 Continuing General Education of Employees.

Source: DITB Environmental Scan 1980 - 1995. A Survey of the Training Implications for the U.K. Distributive Industry. Appendix 5. page 2.

APPENDIX 12

A Framework for Action. Proposal for a YTS Training Scheme in the Distributive Trades

- a. Initial selection, assessment and induction into the scheme and workplace.
- b. Experience of work in a variety of settings.
- c. Acquisition of vocational distributive core skills*.
- d. Acquisition of transferable core skills+.
- e. Enhancement of educational achievements.
- f. Counselling and progress monitoring.
- g. Preparation for work after completion of the scheme.
- h. Final assessment and profile preparation.

It is obviously desirable to integrate on and off-the-job training.

A minimum of 13 weeks off-the-job training is planned with time allocated as follows:

Acquisition of inter-personal skills	10 days
Development of transferable skills with vocational skills and knowledge	33 days
Acquisition of vocational distributive and core skills in-company	15 days
Preparation for work after the scheme	5 days
Final assessment and profile preparation	2 days

Total	65 days

- * Vocational core skills in distribution are related to dealing with customers and potential customers and contributing to the efficient running of the organisation.
- + Transferable core skills linked with vocational core skills must be related to:
- a) communication with customers and members of the organisation.
 - b) reading and writing communications.
 - c) performing essential computations.
 - d) coping with interactions with other people.
 - e) making decisions and solving problems at appropriate levels.

Source: CDT/DTETC Conference Proceedings "Youth Training Scheme & Distribution 9.3.1983.

Retail Shops Working GroupTraining Information Base - Foundation ModuleCompetence Objective

Receive and direct:

- a. Customers
- b. Expected visitors
- c. Unexpected visitors

Knowledge to be Applied

- Company customer/visitor reception policy
- Company procedure for (a); (b); (c)
- Effect of legislation concerning customer rights
- Health and safety practices and procedures
- Members of staff and their responsibilities
- Official & unofficial visitors from external agencies/organisations
- Security procedures
- Store layout - facilities/services available

Methods/Techniques to be Utilised

- Information giving:
 - oral
 - written
- Information processing:
 - clarifying
 - identifying/recognising key points
- Information seeking:
 - listening
 - non-verbal signals observation
 - question formulation
 - questioning technique
 - visual observation
- Keeping a visitors register

Machines/Equipment/Tools to be Used

Address systems, index, intercom, telephone, register, writing materials.

SOURCE: The Training Information Base for the Industry Agreed Training Provision. MSC, Vocational, Education & Training Group. Retail Consortium Training Working Group, NRTC. Presentation Copy (pre/production edition) December 1986.

PERSONALBOGEN ZUR AUSWAHL AUSZUBILDENDER DS/WG

Name: Geburtsort:
 Vorname: Geburtsdatum:
 Wohnort: Strasse:
 Telefon: Konfession:
 Vorname des Vaters: der Mutter:

SCHULBESUCH von bis
 zuletzt in Name d. Schule:
 Hauptschule (Grundschule) von bis
 Realschule/Gymnasium von bis
 Handelsschule von bis
 Andere Schulen: in
 in
 Letzter Schulabgang mit welchem Abschluß?

BERUFSAUSBILDUNG (Eventuell bisherige) - welche?
 von bis
 in Abschluß:
 Ausbildungsstelle (Name):

Berufswunsch:
 Besondere berufliche Interessen:

 Angestrebte Prüfung:

UNTERLAGEN (ankreuzen)
 Bewerbungsschreiben
 Handschriftlicher Lebenslauf
 Passbild
 Letztes Schulzeugnis

BEURTEILUNG	PUNKTE
Vorstellungsgespräch
Diktat
Rechnen
Handschrift
Lückentest
Listenvergleich
Gedächtnisübung
Summe
ERGEBNIS
EINSTELLUNGSTERMIN

Name: _____

Datum: _____

LÜCKENTEXT

In dem folgenden Text fehlen einzelne Buchstaben und Wörter. Jeder ausgelassene Buchstabe wird durch einen Punkt dargestellt. Sie sollen die Auslassungen so ergänzen, daß ein sinnvolles Ganzes entsteht. Sie haben genau 5 Minuten Zeit.

W a r e n e i n k a u f

Wenn ein Kaufmann sich mit neuen eindecken will, muß er sich rechtzeitig nach neuen Bezugesquellen um.....
Denn im guten Ein.... liegt schon der halbe Gewinn.

Bevor er sich für ein Angebot ent....., muß der Kaufmann viele Faktoren bedenken: Er wird sich über die allgemeine Wirtschafts.... Gedanken machen, damit er die Kaufkraft der K..... richtig einschätzt. Er muß überlegen, welche Mode zur Zeit führend ist, was in Technik und Stil neu ist, was der Jahreszeit ent..... u.a.m.

Wirtschaftliches Ein..... setzt überlegtes Planen
Bestellt der Kaufmann zuwenig, kann er Mengenrabatte nicht ausn..... und muß wartende vertrösten.

..... der Kaufmann zuviel, bindet er unnötig sein Kapital in Waren, die er vielleicht lange la.... muß, wenn sie sich nur schleppend ver.....lassen.

Name: _____

Datum: _____

D I K T A T

A large rectangular area with a double-line border, containing approximately 25 horizontal lines for writing.

LISTENVERGLEICH

Name: _____

Datum: _____

Von den Listen der linken Spalte (der Urschriften) wurden Abschriften (rechts) gemacht. Leider unterliefen den Angestellten dabei einige Abschreibefehler. Diese sollen Sie herausfinden und deutlich anstreichen. Sie haben dazu genau 5 Minuten Zeit.

Zeile	Urschrift	Abschrift
	<u>Forderungen am 31.12.81</u>	
(1)	K 1096 Remmer & Schmidt Köln	K 1096 Remmer & Schmidt Köln
(2)	K 1432 Roesvarna AG Hamburg	K 1423 Roesvarna AG Hamburg
(3)	K 1433 Deutsche Diamant Calw	K 1433 Deutsche Diamant Calw
(4)	K 1028 Bügler, Schuster & Co. Neuss	K 1028 Bügler, Schuster & Co. Neuss
(5)	K 1505 Rodolin KG Budesheim	K 1505 Rodolin KG Rüdesheim
(6)	K 1418 Schäfer Freiburg	K 1418 Schäfer Freiburg
(7)	K 1492 Schlathers Söhne Gronau	K 1492 Schlathers Söhne Gronau
(8)	K 1488 Sortenversand Passau	K 1488 Sortenversand Passau
(9)	K 1531 Demmer Berlin	K 1531 Demmer Berlin
(10)	K 1604 Franz Frantzen Leer	K 1604 Franz Frantzen Leer
(11)	K 1112 Rotocopy Düsseldorf	K 1112 Rotocopy Düsseldorf
(12)	K 1108 Bildershop Westerbürg	K 1108 Bildershop Westerbürg
	<u>Verbindlichkeiten am 31.12.81</u>	
(13)	L 1809 Robert Roth & Sohn Trier	L 1809 Robert Roth & Sohn Trier
(14)	L 1710 Kantor GmbH Bad Ems	L 1710 Kantor GmbH Bad Ems
(15)	L 1721 Fritz Meier Groß-Gerau	L 1721 Fritz Meier Groß-Gerau
(16)	L 1738 Jochen Maier Göttingen	L 1738 Jochen Maier Göttingen
(17)	L 1811 Reuth und Partner München	L 1811 Reuth und Partner München
(18)	L 1789 Jung-Werke Siegen	L 1789 Jung-Werke Siegen
(19)	L 1812 Muth Nachf. Gütersloh	L 1812 Muth Nachf. Gütersloh
(20)	L 1870 Sofortdata KG Olpe	L 1870 Sofortdata KG Olpe

Name: _____

Datum: _____

RECHENAUFGABEN

Anmerkung: Vermerken Sie bitte auf diesem Blatt nur die Lösungen. Für Nebenrechnungen erhalten Sie ein Sonderblatt, das Sie nachher ebenfalls abgeben sollen. Sie haben für die nachfolgenden Aufgaben 30 Minuten Zeit.

<p>1 Eine Ware kostete bisher 1.812,- DM. Nun wird der Preis um 9% erhöht. Wieviel kostet die Ware jetzt?</p> <p>..... DM</p>	<p>6 100 kg einer Ware kosten 520,00 DM. Wieviel kosten 2,5 kg?</p> <p>..... DM</p>
<p>2 Wegen kleiner Fehler gewährt ein Kaufmann auf eine Ware 22% Preisnachlaß. Ursprünglich sollte die Ware 572,-DM kosten. Wieviel muß der Kunde jetzt bezahlen?</p> <p>..... DM</p>	<p>7 Eine Rechenaufgabe ergab folgenden Bruchstrich:</p> $\frac{8 \cdot 51 \cdot 0,125}{3 \cdot 17 \cdot 0,25}$ <p>Wie lautet das Ergebnis?</p> <p>.....</p>
<p>3 Für einen Überziehungskredit fordert die Bank 16% Jahreszinsen. Ein Kunde überzieht sein Konto für einen Monat um 880,- DM. Wieviel Zinsen muß er zahlen?</p> <p>..... DM</p>	<p>8 Ein Pkw-Fahrer benötigt für eine Strecke von 36 km 30 Minuten. Wie hoch war seine Durchschnittsgeschwindigkeit?</p> <p>..... km/h</p>
<p>4 Zählen Sie folgende Strecken zusammen:</p> $800 \text{ m} + 1/5 \text{ km} + 80 \text{ m} + 2,3 \text{ km}$ <p>..... km</p>	<p>9 Ein Kunde kauft:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">4 1/2 m Artikel A zu 2,30 DM/m2 Stück Artikel B zu je 2,85 DM4 Stück Artikel C zu je 0,98 DM3 Stück Artikel D zu je 39,90 DM <p>Wieviel muß er insgesamt bezahlen?</p> <p>..... DM</p>
<p>5 50 kg einer Ware kosten 9,30 DM. Ein Kunde benötigt 1120 kg. Wieviel muß er bezahlen?</p> <p>..... DM</p>	<p>10 Am Morgen wurden 125,- DM Wechselgeld in die Kasse gelegt. Im Laufe des Tages wurden 4.582,- DM eingenommen. Während des Tages wurden 102,40 DM für kleine Ausgaben aus der Kasse entnommen. Wie groß war dann am Abend der Kassenbestand?</p> <p>..... DM</p>

D I K T A T

Anmerkung: Das Diktat wird zunächst einmal ganz vorgelesen. Anschließend werden die einzelnen Teilsätze diktiert und nochmals wiederholt. Satzzeichen werden angesagt. Zum Schluß erhält der Bewerber Zeit, sein Diktat noch einmal zu überprüfen.

Die Verpackung ist das Kleid der Ware. Sie muß attraktiv und originell sein, damit der Verbraucher auf die Ware aufmerksam wird. Sie erfüllt damit eine Verkaufs- und Werbewirkung.

Die Verpackung muß auch informativ sein. Sie muß Hinweise enthalten über den Preis, die Menge, das Gewicht, den Inhalt, die Qualität sowie die Zubereitung, Anwendung oder Bedienung.

Der Verbraucher erwartet, daß die Packung zweckmäßig und praktisch ist. Der Inhalt muß gut geschützt sein vor Bruch und Verderb. Die Packung muß leicht zu öffnen, in vielen Fällen wieder verschließbar und manchmal wieder verwendbar sein.

Für Hersteller und Handel erfüllen Verpackungen noch andere Aufgaben. Eine wichtige Funktion ist der Schutz vor Verschmutzung und Beschädigung. Schließlich muß ein sicherer und kostensparender Transport gewährleistet sein.

Für den Einzelhändler ist es wichtig, daß die Lagerhaltung erleichtert und teurer Lagerraum optimal genutzt wird.

Nicht zuletzt erhebt auch der Gesetzgeber Forderungen. Verpackungen müssen ehrlich sein und dürfen nicht über den Inhalt täuschen.

Lösungen

Rechnen

$$1. \quad \begin{array}{l} 100\% = 1812 \text{ DM} \\ (100 + 9)\% = x \text{ DM} \end{array}$$

$$x = \frac{1812 \cdot 109}{100} = \underline{1975,08 \text{ DM}}$$

$$2. \quad \begin{array}{l} 100\% = 572 \text{ DM} \\ (100 - 22)\% = x \text{ DM} \end{array}$$

$$x = \frac{572 \cdot 78}{100} = \underline{446,16 \text{ DM}}$$

$$3. \quad \frac{880 \cdot 16 \cdot 1}{100 \cdot 12} = \underline{11,73 \text{ DM}}$$

$$4. \quad \begin{array}{l} 800 \text{ m} = 0,8 \text{ km}; \quad 1/5 \text{ km} = 0,2 \text{ km}; \quad 80 \text{ m} = 0,08 \text{ km (!)} \\ 0,8 \text{ km} + 0,2 \text{ km} + 0,08 \text{ km} + 2,3 \text{ km} = \underline{3,38 \text{ km}} \\ \text{oder:} \\ 800 \text{ m} + 200 \text{ m} + 80 \text{ m} + 2.300 \text{ m} = \underline{3.380 \text{ m}} \end{array}$$

$$5. \quad \begin{array}{l} 50 \text{ kg} = 9,30 \text{ DM} \\ 1.120 \text{ kg} = x \text{ DM} \end{array}$$

$$x = \frac{9,30 \cdot 1120}{50} = \underline{208,32 \text{ DM}}$$

$$6. \quad \begin{array}{l} 100 \text{ kg} = 520,00 \text{ DM} \\ 2,5 \text{ kg} = x \text{ DM} \end{array}$$

$$x = \frac{520 \cdot 2,5}{100} = \underline{13,00 \text{ DM}}$$

$$7. \quad \frac{8 \cdot 51 \cdot \frac{1}{8}}{3 \cdot 17 \cdot \frac{1}{4}} = \frac{8 \cdot 3 \cdot 4}{3 \cdot 1 \cdot 8} = \frac{1 \cdot 1 \cdot 4}{1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1} = \underline{4}$$

$$8. \quad \begin{array}{l} 30 \text{ min} = 36 \text{ km} \\ 60 \text{ min} = x \text{ km} \end{array}$$

$$x = \frac{36 \cdot 60}{30} = \underline{72 \text{ km/h}}$$

$$9. \quad \begin{array}{r} 4 \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2,30 = 10,35 \text{ DM} \\ 2 \cdot 2,85 = 5,70 \text{ DM} \\ 4 \cdot 0,98 = 3,92 \text{ DM} \\ 3 \cdot 39,90 = 119,70 \text{ DM} \\ \hline 139,67 \text{ DM} \end{array}$$

$$10. \quad \begin{array}{r} 125,00 \text{ DM} \\ + 4.582,00 \text{ DM} \\ = 4.707,00 \text{ DM} \\ - 102,40 \text{ DM} \\ \hline 4.604,60 \text{ DM} \end{array}$$

Lückentext

Wenn ein Kaufmann sich mit neuen Waren eindecken will, muß er sich rechtzeitig nach neuen Bezugsquellen umsehen. Denn im guten Einkauf liegt schon der halbe Gewinn. Bevor er sich für ein Angebot entscheidet (entschließt), muß der Kaufmann viele Faktoren bedenken: Er wird sich über die allgemeine Wirtschaftslage Gedanken machen, damit er die Kaufkraft der Kunden richtig einschätzt. Er muß überlegen, welche Mode zur Zeit führend ist, was in Technik und Stil neu ist, was der Jahreszeit entspricht u. a. m. Wirtschaftliches Einkaufen setzt überlegtes Planen voraus. Bestellt der Kaufmann zu wenig, kann er Mengenrabatte nicht ausnutzen und muß wartende Kunden verträsten. Bestellt der Kaufmann zuviel, bindet er unnötig sein Kapital in Waren, die er vielleicht lange lagern muß, wenn sie sich nur schleppend verkaufen lassen.

Listenvergleich

Zeile 02: Zahlendreher - K 1423 statt 1432
 Zeile 10: Zahl falsch - 1.633,16 statt 1.638,16
 Zeile 17: Zahlendreher - 1.009,89 statt 1.009,98

Zeile 05: Verschreiber - Rüdesheim statt Büdesheim
 Zeile 12: Rechtschreibfehler - schop statt shop

APPENDIX 15

DS/GB

TWO YEAR YOUTH TRAINING SCHEME

INITIAL ASSESSMENT TEST

NAME:

LITERACY

NAME:

One spelling out of the three given is correct. Place a tick after the correct spelling:

Buisness	Business	Bisness
Successful	Sucessful	Successful
Accesorries	Acessories	Accessories
Behaivour	Behavieor	Behaviour
Presise	Precise	Precice
Instalment	Installment	Instalement
Transferable	Transferrable	Transfarable
Finansial	Financial	Finansile
Parlament	Parlaiment	Parliament
Curicullum	Curriculum	Curriculem
Photography	Phottography	Photografy
Concientious	Conscientious	Consciensious
Opportunety	Opportinuty	Opportunity
Vocabulary	Vocabullary	Vocabalary
Receit	Receipt	Reseipt
Disapline	Discipline	Disipline
Propritor	Propriator	Proprietor
Settlement	Settllement	Settlement
Litrature	Litarature	Literature
Articulate	Articulite	Arteculate
Assestance	Assisstance	Assistance
Beggining	Begining	Beginning
Advantige	Advantege	Advantage
Excperience	Experiance	Experience
Procedure	Procidure	Procedire
Scedule	Scheduile	Schedule
Excecutive	Executive	Executeve
Definate	Definite	Definatte

NUMBERS

NAME:

put the answers in the space provided:

1. Add the following:

£ p	£ p	£ p	£ p
0.81	0.93	59.22	103.95
1.92	4.91	27.99	904.68
0.08	9.02	11.04	792.47
<u>7.89</u>	<u>1.10</u>	<u>97.78</u>	<u>586.64</u>
_____	_____	_____	_____

£47.56 + £58.97 =

£13.09 + £31.07 =

£12.92 + £0.91 =

2. Subtract the following:

£ p	£ p	£ p	£ p
12.19	42.00	108.17	923.04
<u>1.20</u>	<u>11.93</u>	<u>27.24</u>	<u>134.05</u>
_____	_____	_____	_____

£108.79 - £42.80 =

£972.90 - £583.73 =

£1008.01 - £909.74 =

3. Multiply the following:

£ p	£ p	£ p	£ p
2.39	27.92	87.99	104.64
<u>9</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>65</u>
_____	_____	_____	_____

£1.54 x 24 =

£17.19 x 62 =

£109.02 x 73 =

4. Divide the following:

£9.24 ÷ 6 =

£18.25 ÷ 12 =

£95.07 ÷ 15 =

£108.10 ÷ 45 =

12 $\overline{)750}$ =

78 $\overline{)900}$

55 $\overline{)635}$

COMMUNICATION

NAME:

You have just visited the Careers Centre where details of the Youth Training Scheme at are displayed. Write a letter of application to the Personnel Manager at the store, giving your reasons for wanting to join the Scheme and what you hope to gain from it. You may include any other information you feel is relevant, for example, details of your qualifications and hobbies.

PROBLEM SOLVING

NAME:

1. The average weight of three boys, John, David and Philip is 63 kg.

- i) What is the total weight of the three boys?
- ii) If John weighs 59 kg., what is the total weight of the other two boys?
- iii) If John weighs 59 kg. and David weighs 72 kg., what does Philip weigh?

GENERAL

1. My father is 28 years older than I am, and I am twice as old as I was five years before my 13th birthday.

- i) How old is my father now?
- ii) How old am I now?
- iii) In how many years time will my age be exactly half of my fathers age?

2. Here are the distances in kilometres of various towns from Bristol:

Southampton	120 km	York	342 km
Bath	21 km	Salisbury	83 km
Oxford	110 km	Nottingham	219 km
Dorchester	98 km	Penzance	294 km
Cardiff	69 km	Exeter	120 km

Suppose the single fare for travelling between these towns is 7p per 2 km.

- i) Which journey would cost least? Bristol to
- ii) Which journey would cost most? Bristol to
- iii) How much would the journey from Bristol to Nottingham cost?
- iv) Which journey costs £10.29?

3. Assume that you are walking through the local shopping centre with two friends, Paul and Joanne. You have no money. In front of you an old lady is obviously doing her weekly shopping. Suddenly, a youth snatches the old lady's handbag and runs off. The lady is knocked to the floor. What would you do?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

RECHENTEST

Blatt 1

NAME: _____

VORNAME: _____

GEB: _____

Zähle die beiden nachstehenden Posten zusammen:

1.318,94 DM	2.314,980 kg
1.635,37 DM	3.547,250 kg
1.555,87 DM	2.496,900 kg
2.401,98 DM	1.097,125 kg
1.714,33 DM	4.158,150 kg
<u>995,27 DM</u>	<u>3.633,150 kg</u>
_____ DM	_____ kg

Berechne die Beträge die eine Kassierererin dem Kunden zurückzahlt.

Preis der Ware	Kunde bezahlt mit	Kunde erhält zurück
DM 0,76	DM 1,00	DM _____
DM 1,95	DM 5,00	DM _____
DM 2,08	DM 10,00	DM _____
DM 3,68	DM 20,00	DM _____
DM 14,33	DM 50,00	DM _____
DM 38,60	DM 100,00	DM _____

Von einer Ware wurden die untenstehenden Mengen ein- und verkauft. Ermittle den Bestand.

Einkauf	14.169,5 kg	Einkauf	22.257,9 kg
Verkauf	3.787,0 kg	Verkauf	11.359,5 kg
_____ kg		_____ kg	
Bestand	_____ kg	Bestand	_____ kg

Wieviel ergibt:

$0,4 \times 8 =$ _____
 $1,75 \times 8 =$ _____
 $1,05 \times 4 =$ _____

Errechne den Verkaufspreis:

1 kg Fleisch kostet DM 13,68

Wieviel kosten a) $3,1/4$ kg = _____ DM

b) 0,125 kg = _____ DM

Ein Vertreter erhält für den Verkauf einer Ware einen Umsatzanteil. Der Verkaufswert der Ware beträgt DM 18.500,--.

Wieviel DM Umsatzanteil erhält er bei

- a) $1/4$ % von DM 18.500,-- = DM _____
b) 7 % von DM 18.500,-- = DM _____
c) 33 % von DM 18.500,-- = DM _____

Ein Eimer Marmelade enthält 18 kg. Die Marmelade soll in Gläser von 450 g Inhalt umgefüllt werden.

Wieviel Gläser ergibt es? _____ Gläser

Ein Faß mit 630 Ltr. Wein soll in 0,7 Ltr. Flaschen abgefüllt werden. Wieviel Flaschen werden gefüllt?

_____ Stück

Eine Kundin kauft folgende Artikel in unserem Laden ein.

750 g Weintrauben	1 kg kostet DM 2,00	_____
250 g Fleischwurst	1 kg kostet DM 9,80	_____
18 frische Brötchen	10 St kosten DM 1,50	_____
250 g Butter	1 kg kostet DM 8,80	_____

An der Kasse bezahlt die Kundin mit einem Hundertmarkschein.

- a) Wieviel beträgt die Rechnung? DM _____
b) Wieviel Geld erhält die Kundin zurück? DM _____

Wieviel ergibt:

124409 : 27 =

1. Wechselgeldbestand der Kasse morgens vor Geschäftsöffnung: DM 320,60
Einnahmen aus Warenverkäufen während des Tages: DM 9745,15
Entnommen wurden während des Tages aus der Kasse:
1. für private Zwecke des Geschäftinhabers: DM 170,-
2. für die Bezahlung von angelieferter Ware: DM 865,43

Wieviel DM beträgt der Kassenbestand nach Geschäftsschluß?

LösungDM

2. Ein Lottogewinn von DM 120.000,-- soll unter 3 Mitspielern verteilt werden. Mitspieler A erhält die Hälfte, Mitspieler B $\frac{1}{3}$ und Mitspieler C den Rest des Gewinns.

Wieviel DM des Gewinns werden dem Mitspieler C ausbezahlt?

LösungDM

3. In einer Stadt leben 146.400 Einwohner, von denen 20 % unter 18 Jahre alt und 35 % über 60 Jahre alt sind.

Wieviel Einwohner im Alter von 18 bis 60 Jahren haben ihren Wohnsitz in dieser Stadt?

LösungEinwohner

4. Nach einer Lohnerhöhung von 4 % verdient eine Verkäuferin DM 1.724.--.

Wieviel DM beträgt die Lohnerhöhung?

LösungDM

5. Von einer Kartoffellieferung sind $8\frac{1}{2}$ % der gelieferten Kartoffeln faul, das sind 13,6 kg.

Wieviel Kartoffeln können als einwandfreie Ware verkauft werden?

Lösungkg

Ausrechnungen bitte auf der Rückseite vornehmen.

DEUTSCHTEST

NAME: _____ VORNAME: _____ GEB.: _____

Wähle ein Thema und schreibe mindestens 1 Seite davon.

1. Was erwarte ich von meinem Beruf?
 2. Mein Hobby.
 3. Ein Erlebnis, an das ich mich gerne erinnere.
 4. Warum ich gerne Bücher lese.
 5. Meine liebste Fernsehsendung.
-

SCHADE ENTRANCE TEST ANSWERS AND MARKING SCHEME

ENTRANCE TEST ANSWERS

	<u>Answers</u>	<u>Points</u>
PAGE 1		
1)	9.621,76 DM	2
	17.247.555 kg	2
2)	0,24 DM	1
	3,05 DM	1
	7,92 DM	1
	16,32 DM	1
	35,67 DM	1
	61,40 DM	1
3)	10.382,50 kg	1
	10.898,40 kg	1
4)	3,2	1
	14,0	1
	4,2	1
5)	44,46 DM	2
	1,71 DM	2
PAGE 2		
1)a)	46,25 DM	2
b)	1.295.00 DM	2
c)	6.105,00 DM	2
2)	40 glasses	2
3)	900 bottles	2
4)	1,50	1
	2,45	1
	2,70	1
	2,20	1

	8,85	1
	91,15 DM	1
5)	4.607,7407	1

1)	9.030,32 DM	2
2)	20.000 DM	3
3)	65.880 inhabitants	3
4)	66,31 DM	3
5)	146,40 kg	3
	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>50</u>

MARKING SCHEME

Berufschule

50-44 = 1
43-39 = 2
38-32 = 3
31-25 = 4
24-15 = 5
15- 0 = 6

IHK

50-47 = 1
46-42 = 2
41-34 = 3
33-26 = 4
25-16 = 5
15- 0 = 6



ARITHMETIC EXERCISE

This exercise contains the same kinds of arithmetic computations a Cashier uses on a daily basis. These problems simulate calculating change, determining the price of an item which is multiple priced, and calculating the price of items sold by weight.

NAME _____

DATE _____ SCORE _____

SAFEWAY ARITHMETIC COMPUTATION

This is a test of your skill to perform the arithmetic computations frequently encountered in a supermarket. All answers are to be rounded to the next highest number (for example, if the exact answer is 13.3, it is rounded to 14. If the exact answer is 12.6, it is rounded to 13).

In a sequence of operations, start with the left hand operation and work to the right completing each operation before going on to the next.

For example: $3 \times 2 - 4 =$ _____ 6 (2) 3 4 1

Multiply 3×2 which gives you 6, then subtract, $6 - 4 = 2$. The correct answer is (2).

Each problem has five possible answers next to it. Circle the correct answer.

You may use the calculation sheets in this booklet in computing your answers.

You will have five minutes to work on the test. You are not expected to finish the test but work as rapidly and accurately as you can. Do not start until the administrator tells you to.

DO NOT TURN THE PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO!

	£	£	£	£	£
1. 99p divide by 3 =	.23	.22	.33	.34	.29 -
2. 2 x 17p =	.34	.29	.30	.35	.24 -
3. 87p divide by 5 =	.16	.18	.17	.20	.15 ✓
4. 3 x 18p =	.44	.52	.41	.34	.54 ✓
5. £4.71 + £4.18 =	9.89	8.98	9.29	8.89	8.49 ✓
6. £20.00 - £15.98 =	4.02	5.02	4.12	4.22	3.98 ✓
7. £5.00 - 38p =	4.72	4.52	4.68	4.62	5.62 ✓
8. 50p + 50p + (?) = £1.89	.99	.89	.79	1.00	1.09 ✓
9. 99p + (?) = £1.98	.99	.89	.79	1.00	1.01 ✓
10. £1.00 divide by 6 =	.16	.15	.17	.18	.14 ✓
11. £1.00 divide by 5 =	.25	.50	.40	.35	.20 ✓
12. £1.00 divide by 8 =	.12	.13	.14	.15	.16 ✓
13. £1.37 + £1.98 =	2.35	2.25	3.25	3.35	2.39 ✓
14. 4 x £1.25 =	4.00	4.25	5.00	4.75	5.25 ✓
15. 3 x 35p =	1.05	.95	.90	1.15	1.00 ✓
16. 86p + £1.93 + £2.03 =	4.72	4.62	3.82	3.72	4.82 ✓
17. £10.00 - £7.28 =	2.92	2.82	2.72	3.72	3.82 ✓
18. 99p + (?) = £1.79	.90	.60	.70	.80	1.00 ✓
19. 89p divide by 6 =	.14	.15	.16	.17	.13 ✓
20. 5 x 20p =	.90	1.03	.95	1.00	1.20 ✓
21. 18 x 10p =	1.80	1.90	2.00	1.18	1.88 ✓
22. £1.80 + £1.00 - 80p =	1.00	1.80	2.00	.80	2.20 ✓
23. £5.00 - £1.27 =	3.83	3.73	4.83	4.73	4.03 ✓
24. £1.98 + £12.95 =	14.95	13.93	14.83	14.93	13.83 ✓
25. £100.00 - £86.63 =	14.37	13.47	12.97	15.27	13.37 ✓

		£	£	£	£	£
26.	$99p + (?) = \text{£}1.49$.45	.49	.51	.50	.60
27.	$89p + (?) = \text{£}1.98$.99	1.09	.89	.98	1.01
28.	$97p \text{ divide by } 3 =$.31	.32	.33	.34	.35
29.	$\text{£}1.00 \text{ divide by } 3 =$.31	.32	.33	.34	.35
30.	$\text{£}50.00 - \text{£}18.42 =$	32.68	31.68	32.58	32.48	31.58
31.	$80p \times 5 + 40p =$	4.40	4.00	3.60	4.80	4.20
32.	$87p \text{ divide by } 3 =$.30	.22	.29	.28	.32
33.	$96p \text{ divide by } 6 =$.15	.16	.17	.18	.19
34.	$\text{£}45.00 - \text{£}24.16 =$	21.84	21.64	22.84	20.84	20.94
35.	$\text{£}3.96 + \text{£}2.92 + \text{£}1.59 =$	6.47	8.47	7.47	8.37	8.67
36.	$50p + 50p + 50p + 50p + (?) = \text{£}2.49$.59	.39	.49	.50	.69
37.	$4 \times (?) + 72p = \text{£}2.72$.60	.39	.49	.40	.50
38.	$\text{£}87.93 - \text{£}42.29 =$	45.74	45.64	44.74	44.64	45.54
39.	$\text{£}1.42 \text{ divide by } 5 =$.34	.30	.28	.29	.27
40.	$\text{£}2.86 \text{ divide by } 7 =$.40	.41	.42	.43	.39
41.	$\text{£}75.00 - \text{£}71.58 =$	3.42	3.52	3.62	4.02	4.42
42.	$\text{£}11.98 + \text{£}63.54 =$	75.42	76.42	76.52	74.52	75.52
43.	$\text{£}3.98 + \text{£}4.15 + \text{£}2.29 =$	9.42	8.42	10.42	10.32	9.52
44.	$69p \text{ divide by } 2 =$.30	.34	.33	.35	.36
45.	$2 \times 99p + 50p + 50p =$	2.88	2.98	1.99	1.98	2.99
46.	$99p + 99p - (?) = \text{£}1.79$.20	.21	.18	.17	.19
47.	$4 \times 50p - 29p =$	1.71	1.81	1.82	1.79	2.29
48.	$5 \times \text{£}1.20 - 20p =$	6.00	5.80	5.20	6.20	6.80
49.	$5 \times 50p - (?) = \text{£}2.25$	2.50	.75	.50	.25	2.00
50.	$3 \times (?) = \text{£}1.02$.35	.33	.36	.32	.34

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SAFEWAY

NAME _____

DATE 23-5-1986

SCORE _____

NUMBER CHECKING

This exercise is made up of pairs of numbers. In some cases, the two numbers are the SAME; in some cases, they are DIFFERENT. You are to examine the numbers and circle the S if they are the SAME. Circle the D if they are DIFFERENT.

Look at these examples:

173	<input checked="" type="radio"/> S	D	173
3821	S	<input checked="" type="radio"/> D	3812
26974	S	<input checked="" type="radio"/> D	26975

In the first pair, the numbers are the SAME, so a circle has been drawn around the S. In the second and third pairs, the numbers are DIFFERENT, so the D has been circled.

Now work the sample problems below. Circle the letter S if both numbers in a pair are the SAME, the letter D if the numbers in a pair are DIFFERENT.

936	<input checked="" type="radio"/> S	D	936
795	S	<input checked="" type="radio"/> D	793
854	S	<input checked="" type="radio"/> D	845
5972	<input checked="" type="radio"/> S	D	5972
2540	S	<input checked="" type="radio"/> D	2450
3656	S	<input checked="" type="radio"/> D	3665
87438	S	<input checked="" type="radio"/> D	87348
82761	<input checked="" type="radio"/> S	D	82761
49950	<input checked="" type="radio"/> S	D	49950

You should have circled S, D, D, S, D, D, D, S and S. If you have made a mistake, erase it and circle the correct answer.

Be sure you understand how to work these problems. When the administrator gives the signal, you are to work more problems like these.

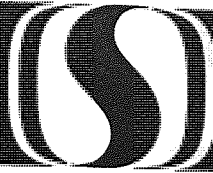
Work quickly, but try not to make mistakes. Do not skip any, because skips will be scored as wrong. You will have three minutes, but you are not expected to finish in this time.

DO NOT TURN THIS PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO

278	(S)	D	278	-	473663	S	(D)	476363	-
940	(S)	D	940	-	821797	(S)	D	821797	-
723	(S)	(D)	732	-	820287	(S)	D	820287	-
254	(S)	D	254	-	760223	S	(D)	760222	-
691	S	(D)	681	-	295692	(S)	D	296592	x
837	(S)	(D)	837	-	857216	(S)	D	857216	-
596	S	(D)	569	-	845779	(S)	D	845779	-
418	S	(D)	428	-	732518	(S)	D	732518	-
648	S	(D)	643	-	325023	S	(D)	325033	-
815	(S)	D	815	-	539748	(S)	(D)	538748	-
438	(S)	D	438	-	894156	S	(D)	849156	-
294	S	(D)	249	-	172284	(S)	D	172284	-
340	S	(D)	304	-	315810	(S)	D	315810	-
829	S	(D)	289	-	694259	(S)	D	294259	x
563	(S)	(D)	583	-	274344	(S)	D	274344	-
237	(S)	D	237	-	535492	S	(D)	535992	-
2260	S	(D)	2269	-	8724605	S	D	8742605	-
4177	(S)	D	4177	-	5804478	S	D	5804587	-
3873	S	(D)	3876	-	2571989	S	D	2571989	-
6791	(S)	D	6791	-	3519895	S	D	3518995	-
9003	(S)	D	9003	-	1954152	S	D	1945152	-
8134	S	(D)	1834	-	6544187	S	D	6544187	-
7952	(S)	D	7952	-	7925197	S	D	7926197	-
3720	S	(D)	3721	-	2982559	S	D	2985259	-
2157	S	(D)	2152	-	6859135	S	D	6859135	-
3655	S	(D)	3355	-	2138903	S	D	2139803	-
4578	S	(D)	4579	-	5253413	S	D	5253413	-
6640	(S)	D	6640	-	4960363	S	D	4960363	-
6145	(S)	D	6145	-	6043817	S	D	6043817	-
9251	S	(D)	9221	-	2475441	S	D	2475541	-
1190	(S)	(D)	1590	-	8976133	S	D	9976133	-
8479	(S)	D	8479	-	5525920	S	D	5525920	-
91663	(S)	D	91663	-	74751576	S	D	74751576	-
94910	(S)	D	94910	-	14749872	S	D	14746872	-
51522	(S)	D	51522	-	65038112	S	D	65038112	-
59275	S	(D)	59375	-	65726789	S	D	65726799	-
65065	(S)	D	65056	-	10708938	S	D	10709838	-
60329	(S)	D	60329	x	88572134	S	D	88572134	-
54921	S	(D)	54621	-	66121556	S	D	66112556	-
48570	S	(D)	48560	-	13937814	S	D	13737814	-
11392	S	(D)	11932	-	97626773	S	D	97662773	-
93454	(S)	(D)	93454	-	58243308	S	D	58243308	-
98361	(S)	(D)	98561	-	43495036	S	D	43495036	-
53457	(S)	D	53457	-	11984806	S	D	11984808	-
15676	(S)	D	15676	-	68448593	S	D	68448953	-
89036	(S)	(D)	89086	-	46697546	S	D	46697546	-
29283	(S)	D	29283	-	37377314	S	D	37377314	-
24616	(S)	D	24616	-	96081795	S	D	69081795	-

.61

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SAFEGWAY

NAME _____

DATE 23.5.86 SCORE _____PICTURE CODING

This exercise measures your skill to see details quickly, and to recognise likeness and differences. The problems in this test simulate the activity a Cashier must perform when looking up or memorising the prices or code number of unmarked items.

In this exercise, you will be given a KEY which consists of pictures paired with names and numbers. Then, you will be given certain of the named pictures followed by several numbers. Your task will be to circle the number that goes with each named picture.

Be sure you understand how to work these problems.

Look at the examples on page 1:

According to the KEY the number that goes with Soup is 66, so this number has been circled.

The number that goes with Flour is 71; with Tea, 1; with Bread, 86; and so on. In each problem the number that goes with the named picture in the KEY has been circled.

Now work the problems on page 2. If you make a mistake, erase it and mark the correct answer.

You should have circled 15, 38, 1, 66, 71, 86, 15 and 38.

















When you are given the signal, you are to work more problems like these using the key which extends across the top of the two pages.

Work quickly, but try not to make mistakes. You will have five minutes, but do not worry if you do not complete the exercise in the time allowed.

THE PROBLEMS IN THIS EXERCISE SIMULATE THE ACTIVITY A CASHIER MUST PERFORM WHEN LOOKING UP OR MEMORISING THE PRICES OR CODE NUMBERS OF UNMARKED ITEMS.

















EXAMPLES

KEY

											
86	74	1	30	38	98	2	71				
	74	64	84	62		62	(38)	74	17	30	
	86	45	64	74		98	30	64	45	(1)	
	66	71	(1)	62	84		98	66	86	(15)	45
	45	(86)	62	15	71		62	84	(71)	30	86

PROBLEMS

























KEY

							
17	9	84	15	45	64	66	62
	9	(15)	71	17	86		
	(38)	30	98	62	45		86 64 (71) 17 84
	2	(1)	9	30	98		64 (86) 30 84 71
	45	(66)	38	86	1		74 45 84 (15) 38
							17 74 (38) 30 45

STOP HERE

DO NOT TURN THE PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO!

KEY

























											
86	74	1	30	38	98	2	71				
	15	86	(1)	38	2		15	74	38	71	45
	45	38	62	66	(17)		71	86	1	45	98
	(71)	64	98	30	84		98	30	86	38	84
	2	45	(15)	17	71		71	38	30	86	84
	64	(74)	62	9	86		2	62	45	86	30
	(17)	38	71	86	66		64	2	1	17	15
	74	45	84	(15)	38		62	38	66	30	64
	98	84	2	86	(64)		66	71	84	9	45

KEY

17	9	84	15	45	64	66	62				
	9	1	66	62	(2)		1	30	(2)	45	38
	74	38	(71)	86	64		98	(2)	71	17	9
	(84)	30	62	38	66		74	45	86	(98)	15
	45	38	2	71	(66)		62	(38)	74	17	30
	74	86	38	(45)	66		(64)	71	98	30	84
	86	(98)	71	1	2		2	17	30	(9)	15
	(86)	64	17	62	84		(2)	71	9	38	30
	17	74	(38)	30	45		17	71	(84)	86	98

KEY

KEY




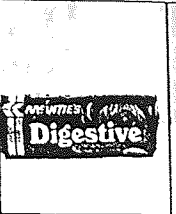
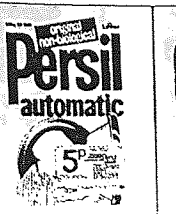




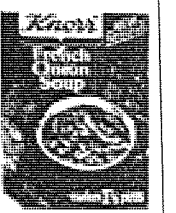


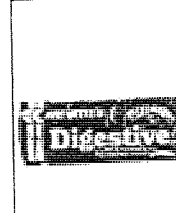


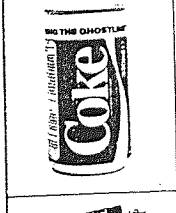



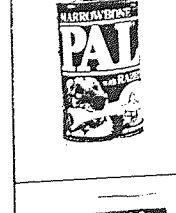


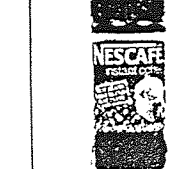
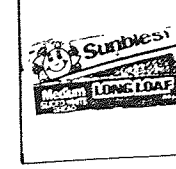
											
86	74	1	30	38	98	2	71				
	9	30	(45)	64	1		45	(86)	62	15	71
	15	84	38	62	(86)		86	15	(74)	64	38
	(2)	62	98	15	71		45	(30)	84	74	15
	74	62	(1)	45	71		74	64	17	98	(2)
	15	(9)	30	86	64		38	64	15	(9)	17
	(66)	86	62	45	64		9	38	15	(64)	66
	17	15	30	(38)	98		(1)	66	45	30	2
	15	86	62	84	(2)		30	45	(66)	74	71

KEY







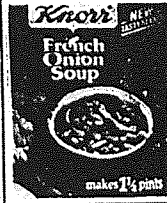

















17	9	84	15	45	64	66	62				
	1	45	30	15	<u>9</u>		15	2	<u>45</u>	30	38
	62	66	<u>64</u>	2	74		15	<u>17</u>	30	2	64
	<u>74</u>	66	62	2	64		84	74	38	<u>80</u>	17
	62	86	98	45	<u>64</u>		66	<u>1</u>	71	62	84
	71	84	30	<u>74</u>	45		<u>98</u>	64	38	45	62
	2	<u>86</u>	38	45	84		98	45	38	<u>64</u>	30
	<u>98</u>	86	66	62	74		<u>9</u>	86	71	2	38
	2	15	<u>1</u>	9	17		98	17	<u>2</u>	38	86

GO ON TO NEXT PAGE!

KEY

											
86	74	1	30	38	98	2	71				
	17	15	2	9	1		45	66	38	86	1
	84	64	71	38	74		2	9	1	30	98
	30	98	38	45	66		64	86	30	84	71
	98	86	9	64	38		38	85	98	15	45
	98	2	45	30	62		62	30	98	38	45
	71	64	86	17	84		98	66	86	15	45
	71	30	86	64	9		71	84	62	30	86
	15	9	1	2	84		9	2	86	84	38

KEY

											
17	9	84	15	45	64	66	62				
	15	84	2	9	<u>1</u>		2	17	<u>9</u>	86	15
	2	98	<u>86</u>	45	64		84	<u>64</u>	98	71	62
	<u>9</u>	38	45	30	62		84	86	62	<u>74</u>	98
	86	38	74	17	<u>30</u>		98	<u>1</u>	64	45	30
	38	66	30	<u>71</u>	74		<u>84</u>	86	66	64	38
	1	<u>62</u>	2	98	86		15	2	9	<u>1</u>	17
	<u>2</u>	1	66	64	86		<u>38</u>	2	9	30	1
	30	86	<u>74</u>	98	45		86	62	<u>98</u>	64	38

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KEY

17	9	84	15	45	64	66	62				
	74	84	38	30	71		74	64	66	62	84
	15	9	84	86	98		62	64	30	17	74
	62	15	2	64	71		30	38	45	62	86
	2	38	74	62	71		15	45	98	2	38
	2	62	45	30	38		15	9	71	17	86
	15	62	45	98	74		38	74	15	17	2
	66	86	62	30	64		98	2	15	17	86

STOP HERE

APPENDIX 18

List of Training Materials

A. German Common Training Material

1. Final VK Examination Summer 1985 Hessen
 - a) Commercial Mathematics
 - b) Commercial Knowledge
 - c) Answers to both papers
2. Stoffkatalog - List of topics for final VK examination
3. Berufsausbildungsvertrag - Training Contract
4. Berufsbild - Training Plan listing main topics
Berufsbildungsplan - detailed content of training plan with an indication of timing
Prüfungsanforderungen - Examination Requirements
5. Rahmenlehrplan - Berufsschulesyllabus
6. Training Plan as used by DS/WG and Schade for VK.

B. British Common Training Material

1. Scheme Design & Content
2. Work-Based Learning For YTS
3. Practitioner's Guide 2 "Learning"
4. MSC/IMS Occupational Training Family 9: Personal Services and Sales
5. The Core Skills
6. Core Skills in YTS Part 1
7. YTS Safety Leaflet "Mind How You Go"
8. Weekly Record Sheet
9. Record of Review
10. Log Book Guidance For Young People and Managing Agents
11. YTS Certification Guidance for Managing Agents and Young People.

C. DS/WG Training Material

1. DS/WG Training Plan for Sales Assistants (English version)
2. Verkaufsbezogene Warenkunde - Framework Plan for product knowledge instruction in the women's outerwear department at the DS/WG
3. Training Card 1. Do I know my products
4. Training Card 2. Replying appropriately to customers
5. Trainer's material for "Giving Information" (7) and "Alternative Suggestions" (11)

DS/WG "AKTIV VERKAUFEN"

Process in the shop products department.
type of kollekt

Main Topics

1. Welcome to the Store
 2. Replying appropriately about the products
 3. Sales Preparation
 4. Additional Sales
 5. Addressing Customers
 6. Behaviour in Pre-selection
 7. Giving Information
 8. Consultative Selling
 9. Making Exchanges Pleasant
 10. Turning Complaints to advantage
 11. Alternative Suggestions
 12. Emphasizing Own Brands - EHK only
 13. Late Customers are the best
 14. Glossary of DS/WG terms
-
100. Preventing Inventory Discrepancies: Stock
 101. Preventing Inventory Discrepancies: Sales
 102. Preventing Shoplifting
 103. Practising the Prevention of Stock Taking Discrepancies when stock taking.
-
6. Trainer's material for the prevention of stock discrepancies (103)
 7. Verkaufen im ... - Trainee document accompanying the audio-visual selling programme
 8. Trainee Material for audio-visual programme on glass ware
 9. Konkurrenzbesuch - Internal company seminar material on how to conduct competition analysis
 10. Ausbildungsnachweis - Example of log book entry
 11. Beurteilung der Abteilung - Assessment sheet used by the departmental manager

D. Schade Training Material

1. Trainee's Welcome Pack, including
 - a) Training Plan registered with IHK
 - b) Youth Work Protection Act
 - c) Probationary Period Details
 - d) Induction Check List
 - e) Checklist for the Prevention of Accidents
 - f) Detailed Training Plan for each Department
 - g) Promotion Structure
 - h) Basic Training Guidelines
 - i) Schade's Behaviour Guidelines for the Berufsschule
 - j) Record of Class Tests at the Berufsschule
 - k) Berufsschule timetable
 - l) Training Record per subject area for each week
 - m) Internal company seminar participation record

2. The particular accident sources in the meat products department, including the use and storage of knives
3. "Kennwort Lebensmittel" - A consumer's Guide to Food Purchasing
4. "Unsere Ernährung" - Seminar Training Material
5. Four detailed booklets on the prevention of accidents in Grocery retailing: two learning programmes for trainees and two retail trade association produced booklet covering the responsibilities of the company and the employee.
6. "Obst" - Example of the product information received regularly by trainees through a compulsory subscription.

E. DS/GB Training Material

1. Outline of YTS Programme
2. Part of 1985-86 Training Proposal at the DS/GB
3. "Selling is Our Business" - Training Cards for "The Approach", "Establishing Customer Needs", "Presenting the Merchandise" and "The Related Sale"
4. Trainer's Material for The Approach and The Related Sale

DS/GB "SELLING IS OUR BUSINESS"

Main Topics

1. Welcome to Our Store
 2. The Approach
 3. Establishing Customer Needs
 4. Presenting the Merchandise
 5. Selling the Benefits
 6. Handling Objections
 7. Closing the Sale
 8. The Related Sale
5. The Related Sale Assessment Form
 6. Product Knowledge Checklist
 7. Training Notes for Departmental Managers for Refresher training on "Selling is Our Business"
 8. Mentor Training Scheme - Check List
 9. Examples of off-the-job training material designed by In-house trainers, including mathematics, interview selection criteria, advertising, competition analysis.

F. Safeway Training Material

1. Consumer Information: Healthy Living 1-5
 - a) Additives: Why do we need them?
 - b) Additives: What are they?
 - c) Nutritional Labelling
 - d) Proposed Nutritional Guidelines for a Healthier Diet - Made Simple
 - e) Energy

2. "Ambition" 2-Year Retail Training Programme for School leavers.
The one-year programme is a condensed version of this.

APPENDIX 19

QUESTIONS TO THE TRAINEES

1. Why did you choose to train in retailing and why on YTS?

2. Why this company?

3. Did you also consider other careers? Which ones?

4. Are you enjoying your training? Why?

5. Could you do your work without the training? Why?

6. Do you think you need the lessons at college? Why?

7. And the lessons in the company? Why?

8. What do you think of the lessons at college? Why?

9. What kind of qualification will you get at the end of your training?

APPENDIX 20

FRAGEN AN DIE AUSZUBILDENDEN

1. Warum hast Du eine Ausbildung im Einzelhandel gewählt?
2. Warum diese Firma?
3. Hast Du Dir auch andere Berufe überlegt? Welche?
4. Macht Dir die Ausbildung Spass? Warum?
5. Könntest Du Deine Arbeit auch ohne Ausbildung ausführen?
6. Meinst Du, dass Du den Unterricht in der Berufsschule brauchst? Warum?
7. Und den Unterricht in der Firma? Warum?
8. Wie findest Du den Unterricht an der Berufsschule?
9. Was für eine Qualifikation erhältst Du am Ende Deiner Lehre?

10. Wie schätzt Du diese Qualifikation ein?

11. Siehst Du den Einzelhandel als einen Beruf für immer an?

12. Warum machst Du überhaupt eine Lehre?

13. Wie werden Dein Wissen und Deine Fähigkeiten geprüft?

14. Was für einen Schulabschluss hast Du?

15. Name Alter Geschlecht

16. Firma Ausbildungsjahr

17. Weitere Bemerkungen.

FRAGEN AN DIE FERTIG AUSGEBILDETEN VERKÄUFER/INNEN

1. Welche Teile der Ausbildung fanden Sie am nützlichsten?

2. Welche Teile brauchen Sie nicht in Ihrer Arbeit, aber sind für das Leben allgemein nützlich?

3. Gibt es Teile der Ausbildung, die überflüssig waren?

4. Gibt es Aspekte, die Sie gerne gelernt hätten, um Ihre jetzige Arbeit zu erleichtern?

5. Name Alter Geschlecht
6. Firma Jahre der Tätigkeit
7. Weitere Bemerkungen

APPENDIX 23

QUESTIONS TO THE PERSONNEL/TRAINING MANAGER

1. Who carries out the training and what qualifications do they have?
2. How long have you been a trainer?
3. How long have you been working for this company?
4. How long is the training for a sales assistant?
5. How exactly is the training structured?
6. In which order are the various tasks/skills learned?
7. Who takes this decision?
8. Does the order change from year to year?

9. How are the learning at the place of work and the off-the-job lessons coordinated?

10. Are there any problems here? of a legal or a personality nature?

11. Why are you carrying out training at all?

12. Are there any reasons which would make you stop? Which ones?

13. How many young people are trained as sales assistants and how many receive further training after that each year?

sales assistants	M	F	further training	M	F
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14. How many trainees are taken on as employees each year?

Sales assistants M F

15. Who takes this decision and on what basis?

16. What paths of promotion are there for the trainees?

17. What are the school qualifications of the trainees when they start YTS?

CSE CSE/O-levels O-levels

18. How has the number of trainees developed over the last 10 years?

19. How long has the company been training its own sales force? Where did they come from before?

A K. May 1986

APPENDIX 24

FRAGEN AN DIE PERSONALLEITER

1. Wer führt die Ausbildung durch, und was für eine Qualifikation haben die Ausbilder?

2. Wie lange sind sie schon Ausbilder?

3. Wie lange arbeiten sie schon in der Firma?

4. Wie lange ist die Ausbildung für ein(e) Verkäufer(in)?

5. Wie genau ist die Ausbildung strukturiert?

6. In welcher Reihenfolge werden die verschiedenen Aufgaben/Fähigkeiten gelernt?

7. Wer trifft diese Entscheidung?

8. Ändert sich die Reihenfolge von Jahr zu Jahr?

9. Wie wird das Lernen am Arbeitsplatz mit dem Unterricht in der Berufsschule abgestimmt?

10. Gibt es hier Probleme? gesetzlicher oder persönlicher Art?

11. Warum bilden Sie überhaupt aus?

12. Gibt es Gründe, die sie veranlassen würden damit aufzuhören?
Welche?

13. Wieviele Jugendliche werden pro Jahr als Verkäufer(in) und
wieviele als EHK ausgebildet?

Verkäufer	M	W	EHK	M	W
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14. Wieviele Lehrlinge werden pro Jahr als Angestellte übernommen?

Verkäufer	M	W	EHK	M	W
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15. Wer trifft diese Entscheidung und auf welcher Basis?

16. Was für Beförderungsmöglichkeiten gibt es für die Azubis?

17. Welche schulischen Qualifikationen haben die Azubis zu Beginn der Lehre?

Hauptschule

Realschule

Abitur

18. Wie hat sich die Zahl der Azubis über die letzten 10 Jahre entwickelt?

19. Wie lange bildet die Firma schon eigene Verkaufskräfte aus?
Wo kamen sie vorher her?