A PROPOSED PLAN OF INSTRUCTION IN BUSINESS EDUCATION FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES

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A B S T R A C T

Part I of this study includes four periods of development, the period of colonial development, the period of the struggle for national, commercial, and economic independence, the period of economic integration and industrial organization, and the period of rapid growth following World War I which characterize the evolution of business education in the United States.

Part II takes into account (1) the physical setting for the business education which includes rooms, furniture, equipment, and supplies, (2) factors considered in curriculum building, involving the people to be trained, the conditions under which instructions are given, and the program itself, (3) business-teacher preparation which includes academic and professional training, in-service training, practical experience either in teaching business subjects or in working in the business world, and teacher personality, (4) the presentation of subject matter, involving the best methods according to research and actual experiences of those actively engaged in the field, and (5) as a supplement to the classroom work

of the business education department is the business education club for students studying business courses.

Methods of Procedure. The plan for carrying out the investigation involves two steps. First, an attempt is made to show the development of business education in the United States. Second, a plan is presented by which systematic organization and instruction may be offered in business education on the secondary level. Data obtained through questionnaires sent to more than one hundred secondary schools in the United States, library facilities, and many years of experience in teaching in the field furnish the information for the study.

Findings. Tabulated data reveal the following:

1. Traditional practices in the courses offered in business education are still maintained in the majority of the schools.

2. Course enrollments amount to approximately 70 percent of the total school enrollment.

3. Of the teachers of business education 81.8 percent of them have majors in their field.

4. The number of teachers having had business-teacher training courses amounts to 72 percent.

5. Only 15 percent of the one hundred schools have in-service training for the teachers.

6. Only 32 percent of the schools operate distributive programs.

7. Visual aids are used in the teaching of business education by 76 percent of the schools.

8. Of the one hundred schools, 48 percent of them have organized business education clubs.

9. The schools expressing a desire for a broader

offering in the pre-vocational years of the students total 76 percent.

Conclusions. Since, in the light of the findings of this study, business education has been principally on a traditional basis, the following conclusions are reached: (1) a revision of the present business curriculum is necessary to adequately train the students for their places in the business world, (2) the demand is not only for a rich program of courses but also for properly trained teachers for offering such work, (3) the installation of distributive programs and vocational courses with a placement service for students enhances the business education departments, (4) visual aids are needed assets for the best results in teaching all courses of business education, and (5) business education clubs are a valuable supplement to the business education program.

Recommendations. Based on the outcome of the study also are the following recommendations which seem justified:

1. That a flexible program of instruction such as set up in this study be made available to all schools.

2. That unless teacher-training institutions offer sufficient work to properly fit teachers for the job of teaching business education courses, in-service training be offered in the secondary schools.

3. That the use of visual aids in teaching the various business courses be given serious consideration by all schools that are able to provide equipment necessary to carry it forward.

4. That distributive and vocational education with pupil-placement service in the field be an area for further investigation.

A C K N O W L E D G M E N T S

To the preparation of this piece of work, many people have contributed their time, effort, and helpful suggestions.

Recognition is due the librarians at The University of Houston, the Houston City Library, East Texas State Teachers College, and The University of Texas for their untiring efforts in locating materials bearing on the problem. Grateful acknowledgment is also made to the many school principals and superintendents over the United States, whose returned questionnaires furnished information for the basis of the study.

Gratitude is extended to each member of the Committee whose corrections and suggestions have made the completion of this study possible.

Special acknowledgment is made to Dr. Arvin N. Donner for his patient, loyal, and co-operative spirit in the general advisement, direction, and supervision of the study.

Charles Olin Mitchell
Commerce, Texas
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DEVELOPMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of Study. The purpose of this study is to discover the trends and the variations that exist in the instruction of business education in secondary schools of the United States, and to offer a plan for its improvement. The plan involves not only the best curricula according to the present-day practices but also the art of instruction for the several courses to prepare pupils for their entrance into various business activities or for further study in the field of business education in institutions of higher learning. The problem was chosen because of interest growing out of an attempt to organize a special course for the purpose of training prospective teachers of business education at the East Texas State Teachers College.

Plan of Procedure. The plan for carrying out the purpose of this investigation comprises two steps. First, an effort is made to show the development of business education in the United States from its beginning in 1732, to the present status. From 1732 to the present time business education has come through four distinct periods; namely, the periods of colonial development; struggle for national, commercial, and

economic independence; economic integration and industrial organization; and the rapid growth following World War I. Business education in the secondary schools today involves the meaning of business education, its importance, its present status, and the need for its revision. Second, a plan is presented by which systematic organization and instruction may be offered in business education on the secondary school level. The plan aims at (1) the construction and methodization of the business education department, (2) a desirable goal of bringing the curricula more nearly in line with the best procedures of the day, (3) a determination of the consensus regarding courses to be added for further broadening the business education of youth, and (4) the presentation of valid criteria for improving the instruction in the various courses in the field.

Materials Used. The materials used in formulating the study were procured through questionnaires sent to more than one hundred secondary schools in both rural and urban communities scattered over the United States, the library facilities at both The University of Houston and the city of Houston, and many years of teaching experience in the area of business education.

CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

Economic and social changes in the United States have vitally influenced the progress of business education. The three periods of economic history reveal the beginning and the evolution of the efforts toward business training.

Period of Colonial Development. During this period the economic progress was characterized by home industry, agriculture, and some trade with the mother country and with the Indians. So far as vocational training was concerned, the homes were economically and educationally self-sufficient. Since business of the time was of a simple type and unorganized, very little formal training was necessary for those who wished to enter the business world.

Newspaper advertisements of the eighteenth century reveal the fact that all during the century opportunities were available for the study of penmanship, business arithmetic, and bookkeeping through instruction given by private teachers.[1]

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[1]Jesse Graham, The Evolution of Business Education in the United States and Its Implications for Business-Teacher Education, Southern California Education Monographs, University of Southern California Press, Los Angeles, California, 1933-1934, pp. 21-22.

Some private teachers continued to conduct summer classes in penmanship in the Texas public schools as late as 1906.

A very few business courses were offered in the grammar schools of colonial times. For instance, bookkeeping was in the program of the grammar schools of Alexander Malcolm in New York in 1732, and of David James Dove in Philadelphia in 1759.[2]

After their formal, general education was finished, some young men served apprenticeships under business men in order to learn the office routine and the management of business. Under such a system the manager of a business could oversee all details and give time to the training of the young apprentices.

Although private instruction provided a means of some training in reading, writing, and various forms of arithmetic, the chief means of instruction in the practical methods of business during the first two centuries of the history of this country was the apprenticeship system. Joseph F. Johnson, in an article on "Commercial Education," has this to say:

> The beginning of commercial education in the United States was characteristically American. It was a growth, not an institution--a growth of private enterprise in response to public need. It was spontaneous, and several early forms were almost simultaneous. All were in answer to definitely voiced demands. In the early part of the last century there

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[2]I. L. Kandel, History of Secondary Education, Houghton-Mifflin Company, Boston, 1930, p. 169.

> was practically nothing in the way of instruction to prepare for business life. Boys who looked forward to business careers left school early and entered stores or offices, where they served apprenticeships of greater or less duration. Here they learned such bookkeeping and business methods as were then in vogue.[3]

As the importance and complexity of business and commerce increased, however, a need for more men than could be trained in this manner was evident.

The colonial evening school was another forerunner of the modern type of institutions engaged in business education. In many cases the apprenticeship system failed in its efforts. The students were improperly trained in bookkeeping by the methods of apprenticeships, and the evening schools arose for the purpose of supplying this deficiency. These schools were in existence as early as 1668.[4]

As further evidence of the inadequacy of the apprenticeship system, textbooks on business subjects were published by the private teachers in the field.[5]

In colonial times very little is known about the training and qualifications of teachers of business education or

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[3]Joseph F. Johnson, "Commercial Education," A Cyclopedia of Education, Volume II, The Macmillan Company, 1911, p. 143.

[4]F. R. Seyboldt, "The Evening Schools in Colonial America," University of Illinois Bulletin No. 24, Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, 1925, pp. 9-21.

[5]Charles G. Reigner, "Beginnings of the Commercial School," Education, Volume 42, No. 3, November, 1921, pp. 133-134.

of the writers of textbooks in use at that time, beyond their own claim. Probably they, like their pupils, depended on private instruction, elementary textbooks, apprenticeship training, and actual experience for learning the simple business procedure of that time. As facilities for the growth and dissemination of knowledge improved, likely the qualifications of teachers improved, thus laying the foundation for better instruction in business subjects during the future eras of our national progress.[6]

Period of Struggle for National Commercial and Economic Independence. This period is characterized by an abundance of rich, natural resources, the westward movement, individualism in business, and the laissez faire policy of the government toward business.

During this period two more agencies for business training, the academy and the business college, were inaugurated. The old Latin grammar school which grew out of the Renaissance of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries was considered a failure as to its meeting the needs of business in an expanding society. In recognition of a need for training in simple office work of the time, bookkeeping was added to the curriculum of the academy; and the business college, definitely established for specialization in business, came into prominence. These business colleges did much toward curriculum expansion.

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[6]Graham, op. cit., pp. 23-24.

Uhl gives the following information concerning the business curriculum of Franklin's Academy in 1751: arithmetic; accounts; French, German, and Spanish for merchants; history of commerce; rise of manufactures; and progress of trade and change of its seats, with reasons and causes were offered.[7]

Since the original object of the academies was to provide a practical education for those who would never go to college, nearly all the curricula included arithmetic, bookkeeping, and other business subjects similar to those offered in Franklin's Academy. As the Latin grammar schools declined, the academies began to train students for entering college, with a consequent loss of interest in business courses.

The first business college was operated as strictly a business venture by its owners, and usually with no other requirements for entrance than the payment of the tuition fee. The commercial or business college "is peculiarly American; nothing like it is known in other countries. It embodies the defects and excellencies of the American character and typifies in itself a certain stage of the national development."[8]

The first business college in America was the Benjamin F. Foster's Commercial School which opened in Boston in 1827.

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[7]Willis L. Uhl, Secondary School Curricula, The Macmillan Company, New York City, 1927, pp. 156-160.

[8]Edmund J. James, "Commercial Education," Monographs in Education in the United States, Volume II, No. 13, J. B. Lyon Company, Albany, New York, 1900, pp. 5, 657.

Many other schools of a similar nature were opened during the ensuing years. In 1853, Bryant and Stratton began their famous chain of schools which extended into several cities in the East and Middle West by 1867. In these schools a rather extensive program was taught, with the purpose of rapid training in clerkship, penmanship, bookkeeping, business law, and business arithmetic.[9]

According to Haynes and Jackson, much credit is due the first business schools for the contributions they made to the development of business training in the United States.

> The first private business schools filled a specific need. No other agencies were giving the clerical training which young men needed in order to procure employment. The formal training replaced the slow, uncertain, and sometimes haphazard training of the apprenticeship systems. It demonstrated that the knowledge and skill required for clerical work could be reduced to a system and taught more quickly and economically in a school than in a business establishment.[10]

The early business schools did have some very serious defects; but consideration should be given to the conditions, pointed out by Jackson and Haynes, under which they sprang to the status they held during the national period.

> The private business school was narrowly conceived. Its only object was to give instruction in a few clerical skills. It made little effort to give an understanding of business as a whole or to offer instruction

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[9]Graham, op. cit., p. 24.

[10]Benjamin R. Haynes and Harry P. Jackson, A History of Business Education in the United States, South-Western Publishing Company, Chicago, 1935, p. 25.

> in the broader underlying subjects necessary for the advancement to positions of responsibility. The private business college was organized in order to make a profit for its owner, and was liable to exploitation and abuse.[11]

Even in the national period, prospective teachers of business subjects were unable to procure systematic instruction or to find any specially designed training course in any of the secondary schools or the private business colleges. Academy and early high school teachers have been traditionally recruited from the colleges and universities, where little or no business-teacher training was provided until 1881.[12]

Period of Economic Integration and Industrial Organization. A remarkable expansion of business training followed the Civil War. Private business schools multiplied rapidly, not only in numbers of schools but also in numbers of students enrolled. This occurred long before our public educational system provided for the unprecedented demand for business education.[13]

At this time the effects of the Industrial Revolution were being felt in the United States. Considering the problems of mechanical civilization today, the Industrial Revolution is not yet a closed issue. This very movement toward a business

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[11] Loc. cit.

[12] James H. H. Bossard and J. Frederic Dewhurst, University Education for Business, University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1931, p. 251.

[13] Graham, op. cit., p. 24.

organization designed to create and satisfy human desires has been gaining momentum all through the years.[14]

Business has grown during the last half century from the very simple beginnings to the intricate structure which America has today. In like manner, business education has gone through a process of development from the first private teachers of a few simple business subjects to the wide and varied programs of the departments and schools of business education found in most of the great institutions of learning of today.[15]

During this period of development six different types of institutions were engaging in the work of training students for the business world.

Having inherited some of the philosophy of business training from the pioneering institutions in the field, the public high school began to allow practical training to be a part of the pupil's general education. The states of Massachusetts in 1827, New York in 1829, and California in 1851, had added bookkeeping to their curricula; but strictly commercial curricula did not appear until 1880.[16]

The development of business education in the public high schools since 1900, is shown in the curricula recommended

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[14] Ibid., p. 25.

[15] Loc. cit.

[16] Ibid., p. 26.

by three committees appointed by the National Education association. Their report of 1903, presented the traditional college-preparatory curriculum with electives in business courses added.[17] In 1915, their proposed program included two curricula--one for stenographers and one for bookkeepers--both of which were predominantly technical.[18] To their proposal of 1919, was added a third curriculum--for salesmen--which was also technical in its nature.[19]

Interest in business education had increased to the point that high schools of commerce were opened in 1890, as part of the public school system.[20]

The business education program in the junior high school has undergone three stages of development. At first shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping were brought down to the junior high school with no change. Following this stage, the training was thought of as prevocational. Later their program included a three-fold purpose: (1) to prepare potential drop-outs to hold minor clerical jobs, (2) to help those who were preparing for a business life later on, and (3) to give in a business course general business information to all pupils.[21]

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[17] Ibid., p. 27.

[18] Loc. cit.

[19] Loc. cit.

[20] Leveritt S. Lyon, Education for Business, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1931, pp. 385-399.

[21] Graham, op. cit., p. 28.

With further expansion of business activities in the United States came the corporation schools in which the employees were trained. This training was somewhat supplementary to the public school education. The corporation was in no way competing with public school education.

Business education in the junior college is comparatively new. In some junior colleges emphasis is placed on preparing students for university business education, and in others the students are prepared for business occupations. The level on which this instruction is offered is about the same as that of the high schools.

The first school of business in the United States was the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce established by the University of Pennsylvania in 1881. In 1899, the College of Commerce and Politics was established by the University of Chicago. A great wave of interest in business education followed, and by 1911, twenty-one such schools of business had been established.[22]

Business colleges have kept pace with other institutions in that several notable schools of this type were established in this period. Among these were the Eastman schools at Rochester, Oswego, and Poughkeepsie, New York, which were opened in 1853 to 1859. Something of the ability of Eastman

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[22]Ibid., p. 29.

and the progress of his schools is shown in the following quotation from Haynes and Jackson:

> H. G. Eastman met the intense competition of that time through advertising. He was one of the most daring advertisers of all the early managers. It was reported that at times he would buy whole pages in the New York papers at a cost of fifteen hundred to three thousand dollars. He organized a brass band, which he used to gather crowds to listen to stump speeches and receive advertising material. The display he made in the procession of Lincoln's second inaugural and the distribution of what was claimed to be a million circulars to the Civil War soldiers still in the field, were considered his greatest strokes. His business college was a pronounced success.[23]

Another business college of outstanding reputation in America today is the Packard School in New York City. This school was established by Silas S. Packard in 1867. Packard moved his school four times before his death in 1898. At this time the school occupied a floor space of about fifteen thousand square feet. Stenography was introduced in the school in 1872, and typewriting in 1873. The Packard School was the first institution to have typewriting taught in connection with shorthand.[24]

The popularity of this school is shown in the following quotation:

> The history and purpose of this school is written in the hearts of twenty thousand men and women, who, during the past forty years, have been of its household.

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[23]Haynes and Jackson, op. cit., pp. 28-29.

[24]Ibid., pp. 29-30.

> Of this number, at least fifteen thousand have been residents in the city of New York. Many of them are now important business men in the city, whose sons and daughters have also been pupils in the school.[25]

The Packard School is now located in New York City at Lexington and Thirty-Fifth Streets. At present, the school is under the direction of President L. A. Rice. The building which now houses the school has four floors with well-equipped offices and classrooms for faculty and students. The two years of college work offered by an excellent corps of teachers prepare students to enter either the business world or to continue their study for a degree in a college or university without any loss of time or credit. The annual enrollment of the Packard School is about fifteen hundred.

At the beginning of the period of economic integration and industrial organization, business-teacher training was as simple and unorganized as the American business of the time. The school officials employed teachers out of offices and business colleges. In many cases the academically-trained teachers who were employed in the schools, acquired knowledge and skills of the business subjects as best they could.

The first course definitely established for the training of teachers of business subjects was given by Drexel Institute of Philadelphia in 1898. By 1929, a total of 138 institutions provided courses in business-teacher training.[26]

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[25]Loc. cit.

[26]Graham, op. cit., p. 29.

Period of Rapid Growth Following World War I. In terms of enrollment in the various courses, business education became one of the most popular and one of the most important areas of training offered during the period of rapid growth following World War I.[27]

The enrollment in business courses is considered by some to be greater than can be absorbed satisfactorily by industry and business. Even shorthand has been bitterly attacked though it remains the best specific training likely to serve as a basis for job placement for most young women. To meet these criticisms a greater emphasis has been placed upon such subjects as junior business training, economic geography, business law, economics, and other social subjects. Attempts are being made to integrate these subjects into a well organized subject matter sequence and to broaden the job opportunities.[28]

The rapid growth of business education may have been caused in part by the many opportunities available to high school graduates in clerical positions, and in part by the need for subject matter better fitted for the ever increasing secondary school population since World War I and during the World War II.

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[27]Harry N. Rivlin and Herbert Schueler, Encyclopedia of Modern Education, F. Hubner & Company, New York City, 1943, p. 99.

[28]Loc. cit.

The private business schools have held their own with difficulty during this period, and those which have kept themselves up to modern business standards and which have dealt with mature, post-high school students are rendering a useful service.[29]

Strong points out an interesting phase of the work offered in the private business schools as they were operating in 1944, in the following quotation.

> The main function of the private business schools is to offer occupational training on the skill level. While some private schools offer basic business training, the majority of them do not attempt to give such work. The private business schools have built their reputation on their ability to offer skill courses in short periods of time and upon their ability to place their students upon the conception of their courses.[30]

Even some manufacturers of business machines have found it not only profitable but also necessary to maintain their own business schools in order to train operators for their machines. "In many instances, a machine is sold and an operator is 'sold' with it."[31] Such training as this is purely skill in its nature and also very intensive. Public schools, colleges, and universities have been overlooking a vital phase of business training just here. The school systems of the country should be able to meet the demand of business in supplying

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[29] Ibid., pp. 99-100.

[30] Earl P. Strong, The Organization, Administration, and Supervision of Business Administration, The Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, 1944, pp. 120-121.

[31] Loc. cit.

trained operators for all types of machines which will be encountered in their work after graduation.

Corporations such as the J. C. Penney Company operate schools within their own organization to provide specific training for the employees in order to better fit them for the job.

In the average secondary or public school during the period a slight excess of course enrollments in English over business education was shown. Enrollments in business subjects have shown a phenomenal increase throughout the nineteenth century.[32]

Data taken from a study made by R. G. Wolters in 1942, of 125 secondary schools in towns and cities ranging in population from 1,000 to 1,000,000 in the United States are shown in tabulated form in Table I.

The data in Table I show that typewriting, shorthand, and bookkeeping took the lead in course offerings in all the 125 schools except 7 which omitted shorthand altogether.

Of these 125 schools 62.4 percent offered business law, 43.2 percent consumer education, and 42.4 percent office practice. Some very practical and important subjects like business English and penmanship were offered in only 9.6 percent and 3.2 percent respectively of schools studied up to 1942.

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[32]*Loc. cit.*

TABLE I

Courses Offered in 1942, in 125 Schools Located in Towns and Cities Ranging in Population from 1,000 to 1,000,000 in the United States

Courses	Number of Schools Offering	Percentage of Schools Offering
Typewriting	125	100.0
Bookkeeping	125	100.0
Shorthand	118	94.4
Business Law	78	62.4
General Business	77	61.6
Business Mathematics	65	52.0
Salesmanship	62	49.6
Consumer Education	54	43.2
Office Practice	43	42.4
Spelling	38	32.0
Commercial Geography	37	29.0
Economics	14	11.2
Business English	12	9.6
Part-Time Store Work	12	9.6
Business Organization	9	7.2
Advertising	8	6.4
Marketing	5	4.0
Penmanship	4	3.2
Store Management	4	3.2
Business Behavior	2	1.6
Filing	2	1.6[33]

Apparently tradition has influenced the course offerings of the secondary schools up to this comparatively recent date, because in this study only 9.6 percent of the schools were offering part-time store work. Distributive education has been heralded by some as a field better fitted to meet the needs of more students than other available areas.[34]

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[33]R. G. Wolters, The Business Curriculum, Monograph 55, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, 1942, pp. 14-16.

[34]Strong, op. cit., p. 119.

In 1944, the junior college came into prominence with regard to its offerings in business education. The field as applied to the junior college had as its main function that of offering terminal business courses on a semi-professional level. Although some students enrolled in junior colleges took such courses as were preparatory to those taken in the training was of a terminal type. The junior colleges have grown greatly in numbers and up until 1944, had enrolled more business students than in all the other fields of education combined within the junior college curricula.[35]

Many teachers colleges have been offering business education training. The courses have been primarily for the purpose of training teachers for the public and private schools. In recent years, however, the teachers colleges have been training students for office positions and store workers. Some educators deplore this fact, but teachers colleges are rapidly dropping the word "teachers" from their name because of their conforming to the great demand for training in vocational lines as well. The fact is, practically every college and university of the country engage to a greater or less degree in the training of teachers. A verification of this fact is shown in the following quotation from Strong.

> The collegiate schools of business are organized to offer technical business subjects, such as money

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[35] Loc. cit.

> and banking, accounting, economics, marketing, and statistics, as well as to prepare students for executive positions. Some collegiate schools of business offer technical business education subjects in the field of secretarial training and business-teacher training. This is particularly true in the state Universities.[36]

Strong also says that such dual objectives as training teachers and people for business occupations in the same classes result in confusion and weaken both programs.[37] This, however, is not necessarily true, for the one who is expected to teach business courses should be as well equipped in them as the one who is to use them in business--at any rate the student who is training for an expert court reporter need not be hindered in his progress because his classmate is prepar- to teach stenography.

Colleges and universities have had as the core of their services the training for professional accountancy, but just now they are rendering some service as higher institutions of learning for the development of professional managership. The fact that such institutions have begun the training of students for vocations other than the field of teaching, need not be any reason for their being criticised severely. As a general rule, students prefer to attend the college nearest to their homes. Some go to the college or university where they are offered an opportunity to work in order to defray expenses.

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[36] Loc. cit.

[37] Loc. cit.

For these reasons the colleges have had to reorganize their offerings to suit the demands of the students--all who go to teachers colleges do not want to become teachers, and some who go to technilogical colleges and universities are seeking training for the teaching profession.

During the period of rapid growth following World War I, business-teacher training has shown marvelous improvement--particularly in the teacher-training institutions in the United States. To a somewhat less degree, however, the same thing is true for many of the universities.

Data procured from a recent study of 94 accredited teachers colleges in the United States made by J. Marvin Sipe, show some startling facts. Table II reveals the range of the semester hours of credit in the various courses required of the business education teachers in secondary schools.

Perhaps tradition is the primary force which pushed accounting into the lead both as to the number of semester hours of credit required and as to the number of schools requiring it. One extreme is the fact that 15 accredited teachers colleges don't require any accounting for certification of teachers of business education. Of the 94 colleges 79, or 84 percent of them, require from 4 to 18 semester hours in accounting to qualify the teacher for certified public accounting, representing the other extreme. Teacher training should be more nearly equalized among the several colleges.

TABLE II

Semester Hours of Credit in Business Subjects Required in 94 Accredited Teachers Colleges in the United States for Prospective Teachers of Business Education in Secondary Schools

Subject	Ranges of credit hours	Number of schools requiring	Per-cent	Number of schools not requiring	Per-cent
Accounting	4 to 18	79	84.0	15	16.0
Shorthand	3 to 18	76	80.8	18	19.2
Commercial Law	3 to 9	67	71.3	27	28.7
Typewriting	2 to 14	64	68.0	30	32.0
Business Mathematics	3 to 14	44	46.8	50	53.2
Office Practice	2 to 10	40	42.5	54	57.5
Salesmanship	2 to 12	36	38.3	58	61.7
Commercial Geography	3 to 9	35	37.2	59	62.8
Business Organization	3 to 9	32	34.0	62	66.0
Finance	3 to 12	26	27.6	68	72.4
Marketing	2 to 6	24	25.5	70	74.5
General Business	3 to 4	18	19.1	76	80.9
Penmanship	0 to 3	17	18.1	77	81.9
Advertising	3 to 6	13	13.8	81	86.2
Consumer Education	2 to 6	7	7.4	87	92.6
Insurance	0 to 3	4	4.2	90	95.8[38]

Business English is required by only 38 of the 94 colleges. Although business English is not a mysterious type of English which could'nt be learned through regular English courses, it can be justified on the grounds of fusion with typewriting and certain mechanical devices necessary to good business training. Business English emphasizes logic, style, and manuscript writing more than does the regular English.

[38] John Marvin Sipe, "Commercial Teacher Training Curricula in 94 Accredited Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools in 1938," Doctor's Dissertation, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, 1943, p. 54.

Of these colleges 50 percent require no business mathematics, and a few require 14 semester hours of it. A close study of Table II definitely reveals the degree of variation in the offerings as well as the number of semester hours in the subjects required of teachers in the different institutions.

According to Sipe's study, the teachers colleges of America do not require such subjects as filing, office machines, business correspondence, and business behavior for teacher-training. Another amazing aspect of the business-teacher training institutions is that regardless of whether courses in the methods of teaching business subjects are offered or not, they aren't required of the teachers who are being let out to work in the public schools.

New York University offers a methods course for each of the basic business subjects. Out of necessity most teachers colleges can offer only one course in methods for the combined lot of basic courses because of the lack of enough students and instructors to offer them separately. Apparently, however, even the minimum training is not being given by these institutions, at least not required of the prospective teachers in the secondary schools.

This resume of historical progress of business education in America reveals a few significant facts. Training has made colossal strides in keeping pace with economic changes,

and educators have been mindful of the demands which are always just ahead. The popularity of the field revealed by student enrollment in business courses of public schools and all other institutions of learning through the years from 1732, to 1944, bespeaks for the country an upward trend in the future outlook for business education.

Since very little data are available on business education for the last years of the World War II, the following chapter deals with the secondary status of the field in the United States for 1946, the current year.

CHAPTER III

BUSINESS EDUCATION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS TODAY

Meaning of Secondary Business Education. Little real progress can be made in the consideration of any educational area until a common understanding of the terminology used is held by all who participate in it. Hence, a definition for business education is necessary at this time.

Many and varied attempts to define the term "business education," which is synonymous with "commercial education," have been advanced, but the conception which seems to take into account the changing education for a changing world; the one which is specific yet broad; and the one which has breadth yet clarity is given in the following quotation:

> Commercial education is a type of training which, while playing its part in the achievement of general aims of education on any given level, has for its primary objective the preparation of people to enter upon a business career, or having entered upon such a career, to render more efficient service therein and to advance from their present levels of employment to higher levels.[1]

By "business education" is meant a whole field or area of vocational education rather than specific subjects such as

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[1]Frederick G. Nichols, Commercial Education in the High School, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York City, 1933, p. 51.

typewriting, shorthand, and bookkeeping. Secondary business education, therefore, covers that part which is most appropriate for boys and girls between the ages of fourteen and twenty.

For fully equipped business men and women further training beyond the secondary level will be necessary, but those who get such preliminary training as the high schools may offer will have a greater chance to succeed either in the business world or in colleges and universities than most of those who miss such secondary school work.

Business education plays an important part in early educational guidance in the junior high schools. All boys and girls of junior high school age should have a chance to explore the field during their pre-vocational period. On the upper secondary level business education becomes an important part of the vocational program. In the junior college a fertile field of curricula is represented by business education. The field of business education is being opened on the senior college and university levels very rapidly today. In some university graduate departments business education is coming to be recognized as professional training of high rank.

The scope of business education, however, extends even to evening, corporation, correspondence, and various other types of extension schools. Because of this fact, formal business training may always be considered incomplete.

The purpose of business education has for a rather long time been two-fold. The earliest conception of its purpose was largely vocational. Later educators were awakened to a broader concept--the cultural aspect as indicated in the following quotation from Strong.

> Commercial education should have a much wider purpose than the training of stenographers and bookkeepers. Already the broadened commercial education has addressed itself to the task of training for service in the community, for participation in social life, and for knowledge of, and ability to adapt one's self to, business as a whole. Such subjects as economics, business organization, advertising, salesmanship, and store practice are relatively new, and yet in their entirety they make a new purpose of business education comparable with, if not more important than, stenography or bookkeeping.[2]

The purposes of cultural or mental discipline have had a great deal of influence in the development of business education through the years, and these purposes continue to have their effect with respect to well-defined objectives. In order to gain respect and academic recognition for business subjects, traditional or cultural aims have been stressed more than vocational purposes.

On the secondary level, however, some marked changes in business education are evident. Secondary business education should be dual in its nature--prevocational and vocational. Strong aptly justifies this statement in the following:

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[2]Earl P. Strong, The Organization, Administration, and Supervision of Business Education, The Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, 1944, pp. 58-59.

1. It contains elements that motivate certain forms of general education.

2. It contains elements of real value from a personal-use point of view.

3. It contains elements that afford exploratory contacts in the field of commercial training.

4. It contains elements that build a basis for and stimulate an interest in further study in the field of commerce if special aptitudes for this kind of work appear.

5. It contains elements that are to some extent vocationally useful to those who leave school to go to work before reaching the point where specialization in commerce should really begin.

6. It contributes to social understanding through an elementary study of that great socially important economic activity called "business."[3]

One of the great lessons being learned today is that the need for vocational objectives in the business-skill subjects that will match the production requirements in offices is increasing. For this reason the present purposes may be said to include prevocational, vocational, personal-use, and social-economic education.

A broader curriculum offered to the pupils in their prevocational years provides an opportunity for their making important decisions concerning their likes or dislikes for business or business education early in their school life. With proper guidance the student may be able to settle this matter before senior high school training begins.

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[3]Ibid., pp. 69-70.

Importance of Business Education. The popularity of any subject can be judged to a great extent by the enrollments. "The fact that there are over a million and a quarter course enrollments for commercial courses in public and private secondary schools is extremely significant."[4]

Commercial pupils usually study from three to ten subjects in the field while they are in high school. In terms of the actual number enrolled, the commercial department outstrips all other departments with the possible exception of English. A study of 18,000 high schools offering typewriting, shorthand, bookkeeping, and elementary business training shows that the enrollments in these courses in 1934, practically doubled those of 1928. The same study showed that enrollments for typewriting took the lead in the United States.[5]

These basic courses give pupils a working knowledge, and through these alone the commercial departments serve as an aid to many civic organizations; programs, tickets, menus, and school papers are a few of the aids to the school and the other organizations.

Since World War I, superintendents and boards of education have realized the importance of business training in

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[4]Ibid., p. 3.

[5]Carl A. Jessen, "National Enrollment Data in Commercial Subjects," Journal of Business Education, Trethaway Publishing Company, East Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania, Volume VIII, No. 1, September, 1937, pp. 15-16.

many of the public schools. Many leading educators consider that the commercial department is one of the best agencies for the development of leadership in students. Some of the noticeable traits which students attain from the study of business courses are courtesy, reliability, trustworthiness, judgment, tact, business-like conduct, loyalty, neatness, good memory, alertness, punctuality, sincerity, cheerfulness, and self-control.[6]

Not only was the importance of business training revealed in the studies made ten or fifteen years ago, but also business education occupies a place in private and public education today comparable to that of any other phase of education. Business courses are offered in all of the major educational divisions such as secondary, special, vocational, adult, public, private, and parochial schools at the present time.[7]

High School enrollments have continued to increase rapidly to date, especially because of a greater percentage of the population to continue education. The increase lessened somewhat in 1940 to 1941, however, particularly because pupils of high school age left school to enter wartime work

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[6]Oscar C. Schnicker, "The Role of the Commercial Department in Modern Education," The Journal of Business Education, Volume XIX, No. 3, November, 1943, p. 13.

[7]Effective Business Education, Ninth Yearbook, National Business Teachers Association, Somerset Press, Inc., Somerville, New Jersey, 1943, pp. 20-21.

or industry of one phase or another.[8] In many cases boys went into the armed services of the country before they were graduated from the high schools.

Not only is business education important from the standpoint of vocational efficiency and the adaptability to occupational changes but also it is important from a personal-use point of view. No longer is business education intended wholly for those who wish to enter the business world. Many students today are selecting business subjects for their own personal benefit and satisfaction.

Because the ability to operate a typewriter is of value to everyone, typewriting has become the most popular course in the business education realm. Everybody writes letters, both personal and business; students have to write papers in almost all courses they study; people type recipes, menus, and programs; and professional men type papers to read before medical, legal, and educational meetings. "In fact, typewriting has so many personal uses that it is a question whether it can long be considered as a strictly business subject."[9]

What is true of typewriting is also true of bookkeeping, salesmanship, business law, and many other courses to a

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[8]David T. Blose, Statistics of State School Systems, 1940-1941, Office of Education, Washington, D. C., November, 1942, p. 2.

[9]R. G. Walters, The Business Curriculum, Monograph 55, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, 1942, p. 7.

great extent. Students who are secretaries or treasurers to school organizations find bookkeeping of great personal use. To secretaries and treasurers of clubs, churches, and other organizations, bookkeeping serves an important personal use. Today it is of use to every adult in keeping records from which they can prepare income tax reports.

Those who sell subscriptions to student publications, advertising space in these publications, and tickets to all the school activities find salesmanship a distinct personal help. The farmer who has to sell his produce, the man who wants to sell his old car, and the citizen who sponsors a drive for civic support will find a knowledge of salesmanship a distinct advantage. Above all, the student who has to sell himself when he seeks his first job, finds his learning about salesmanship a most helpful asset.

All consumers need business law. Every purchase made is a contract; every time a person rents a house, he makes a contract; and contracts are the essence of business law.

Should a similar analysis of other business subjects be made most of them would reveal personal uses as well as vocational uses.

The growth of public school business courses is all the more phenomenal when it is realized that many forces have worked against its growth, such as the academic point of view against vocational training, private school interests, poor

administration and supervision in some cases, poorly trained teachers with little background of experience, and lack of high standards. In spite of these retarding factors, business education has served and grown continuously for a century and promises to become of far greater service in the future.[10]

One of the major developments of secondary education has been the recent rapid growth of business education to lend it impetus. Up until 1944, approximately 20 percent of all secondary school pupils were enrolled in business education courses; in many of the cities of the United States the percentage was approximately 50 percent.[11] Colleges and universities are today experiencing a remarkable increase in class enrollments in the business education courses. In a recent bulletin put out by The University of Houston, the School of Business Administration showed course enrollments amounting to 2,597. This total exceeded the course enrollments in English by 39. Course enrollments in this field amounted to almost 50 percent of the total student enrollment of the University.[12] Other institutions show increased enrollments in business education, revealing the fact that secondary schools have been creating considerable interest in the field.

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[10]J. O. Mallot, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1928-1930, United States Office of Education, Bulletin, 1931, No. 20, p. 697.

[11]Strong, op. cit., pp. 58-59.

[12]"Class Enrollment by Subject-Matter Fields," The University of Houston, Houston, Texas, February, 1946, p. 1.

Many institutions of higher learning have merely tolerated business education in order to attract students. A certain degree of stigma seems to have been attached to an education that helps young people to make a living.

The lack of acceptability may be due to the inflexible traditions of deans and college-standardizing agencies. In this regard Mr. Lloyd L. Jones says:

> At any rate junior colleges have beckoned to business education and, in many instances, are developing business departments of outstanding merit. Some junior colleges have yet to experience economic necessity; when they do, they may find the business department to be a pupil-getter of considerable importance.[13]

The status of business education in the junior college seems to be very definitely established today. Business itself has indorsed the junior college as a terminal as well as a practical educational institution.[14]

Whatever the causes for hindrance in the development of business education in the higher institutions of learning may have been, the secondary schools, business colleges, and junior colleges are setting the pace today sufficiently to break down all tradition and prejudice to the field as a part of college curricula. Many higher institutions are now offering degrees of bachelor of business administration and master of business administration.

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[13]Lloyd L. Jones, "The Junior College and Business Education," The Business Education World, March, 1944, p. 365.

[14]Edward F. Mason, "Behind the Counter They Go to College," Nation's Business, May, 1941, p. 65.

The Present Status of Secondary Business Education. From the tabulated results of questionnaires returned by 100 accredited high schools in the United States in March, 1946, on which this study is based, some of the present-day practices and tendencies of the business-education phase of school procedure are shown. Of the 100 schools investigated, 50 of them show enrollments from 100 to 500 each and an average enrollment of 300 students. The total enrollment for these 50 secondary schools is approximately 15,000 students.

This group of schools was chosen from 36 different states in the Union so located as to represent a sampling of almost every section of the country. Schools located in the highly industrialized centers, agricultural areas, oil-producing sections, mining, and ranching areas occur in the same grouping.

Bookkeeping has long been the most sought course in the schools of America, but today it ranks third according to data shown in Table III. Typewriting and shorthand are offered in all of the 50 smaller schools, but bookkeeping is left out of the offerings of 7 of the schools in this group.

Business mathematics, general business, secretarial practice, economics, commercial geography, and business law seem to get enough support to justify the best possible means available for their presentation. In these schools office machines and occupations rank next in importance.

Revealed by Table III is the fact that a few schools are getting business English, spelling, filing, retailing, salesmanship, consumer education, and some merchandising in the curricula. Two schools in this group are offering advertising and business etiquette.

TABLE III

Courses Offered and Courses Desired in 50 Secondary Schools in the United States in 1946
(Average Enrollment of 300)
(Approximate Total Enrollment, 15,000)

Courses	Number of schools offering	Percent of total schools	Number of schools desiring	Percent of total schools
Typewriting	50	100		
Shorthand	50	100		
Bookkeeping	43	86	1	2
Business Mathematics	25	50	4	8
General Business	24	48	5	10
Secretarial Practice	23	46	4	8
Economics	18	36	8	16
Commercial Geography	16	32	5	10
Business Law	15	30	9	18
Office Machines	11	22	5	10
Occupations	10	20	4	8
Business English	9	18	5	10
Spelling	9	18	3	6
Filing	8	16	3	6
Retailing	6	12	7	14
Salesmanship	6	12	8	16
Consumer Education	3	6	1	2
Merchandising	3	6	3	6
Penmanship	3	6	5	10
Advertising	2	4	4	8
Business Etiquette	2	4	5	10
Business Correspondence	0	0	4	8
Cosmetology	0	0	7	14
Barbering	0	0	2	4
Cleaning and Pressing	0	0	2	4
Millinery	0	0	3	6
Photography	0	0	7	14

Many of the schools that do not offer the courses named expressed a desire to put them in. A few schools want business correspondence, cosmetology, barbering, cleaning and pressing, millinery, and photography. Evidently the several educators in these schools are looking forward to a program of distributive education.

TABLE IV

Enrollment in Business Education Courses in 50 Secondary Schools of the United States in 1946
(Average Enrollment of 300)
(Approximate Total Enrollment, 15,000)

Courses	Total number of course enrollments in all schools	Percentage of total course enrollments
Typewriting	3,322	27.4
Shorthand	1,573	12.9
Bookkeeping	1,127	9.3
Business Mathematics	947	7.8
Economics	870	7.2
General Business	694	5.7
Commercial Geography	690	5.7
Spelling	617	3.8
Occupations	455	3.7
Secretarial Practice	435	3.6
Business Law	382	3.2
Business English	368	3.1
Salesmanship	145	1.2
Filing	105	.9
Retailing	98	.8
Office Machines	97	.8
Merchandising	74	.6
Business Etiquette	53	.5
Consumer Education	44	.4
Advertising	44	.4
Total	12,140	100.0

Something more of the extent to which secondary business education has soared today is seen in Table IV. These

tabulated data on course enrollments show a greater percentage with reference to the entire course enrollment than any study made before.

In Delaware, Maine, Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska the data showed an average of two business education courses for each student enrolled in school during the two semesters of 1946. One reason for this high rate in the Missouri school was due to the fact that all high school students studied a course in spelling which was given in the business education department.

The fact that 3,322 or 27.4 percent of the entire enrollment in business education courses of these schools are studying typewriting makes a significant increase in the demand for typewriting over previous figures on this course. Shorthand, bookkeeping, business mathematics, economics, commercial geography, and spelling follow in the order of importance as to the course enrollments.

Table IV also shows that there were 12,140 course enrollments in business education for these 50 schools during the year 1946. This information should be sufficient justification for elaborate planning for future progress in this area.

Within these 50 schools chosen from 36 different states, 95 teachers of business education are employed. In 25 of the states 100 percent of the teachers have majors in their field, as can be seen in Table V.

TABLE V

Academic Training of Teachers of Business Education in 50 Secondary Schools of the United States in 1946 (Average Enrollment of 300)

States	Number of schools	Number of Teachers Reported in each state	Number of Teachers With majors in business education	Percent
Alabama	1	3	2	66.7
Arizona	1	2	2	100.0
Arkansas	1	1	1	100.0
Colorado	1	2	2	100.0
Delaware	1	3	3	100.0
Florida	2	3	3	100.0
Idaho	1	2	1	50.0
Illinois	2	4	4	100.0
Indiana	1	3	3	100.0
Kansas	2	4	4	100.0
Kentucky	3	6	6	100.0
Louisiana	2	4	4	100.0
Maine	1	2	2	100.0
Maryland	1	2	2	100.0
Massachusetts	1	2	1	50.0
Michigan	1	2	2	100.0
Minnesota	1	3	1	33.3
Missouri	2	3	3	100.0
Montana	2	3	2	66.7
Nebraska	1	3	2	66.7
New Jersey	1	2	2	100.0
New Mexico	2	3	3	100.0
New York	1	1	1	100.0
North Carolina	1	2	2	100.0
Ohio	1	2	2	100.0
Oklahoma	3	7	7	100.0
Oregon	2	3	3	100.0
Pennsylvania	1	2	2	100.0
Rhode Island	1	2	2	100.0
South Carolina	1	2	1	50.0
South Dakota	1	3	2	66.7
Tennessee	2	2	2	100.0
Texas	1	2	1	50.0
Utah	1	2	2	100.0
Virginia	1	1	1	100.0
Wyoming	1	2	2	100.0
Total	50	95	85	89.5

In Alabama, Montana, Nebraska, and South Dakota 66.7 percent of the teachers majored in business education; in 4 states only 50 percent, and in Minnesota only 33.3 percent of the teachers had such majors. With 89.5 percent of all the teachers having a major in the field indicates that the schools are mindful of the importance of teacher training for work in this area. The least that the teacher should expect is that he be fully equipped in the subject matter which he is called upon to direct.

Because a teacher fails to procure a major in business education before he begins his teaching career doesn't necessarily mean that he is a failure, but certainly his chances for success are greatly enhanced by having made such preparation. The fact that 89.5 percent of all business teachers included in this study either completed majors on their own initiative or were required to do so by their alma maters or their employers should speak for the importance of this teacher asset.

According to this investigation, teachers with majors in business education should further qualify by studying a special course in business-teacher training. Reasons for this belief come from Table VI on business-teacher qualifications.

Of the 95 teachers representing the 50 schools in 36 different states, 68 or 71.6 percent of them have had courses in business-teacher training.

TABLE VI

Business-Teacher Training of Instructors in 50 Secondary Schools of the United States in 1946
(Average Enrollment of 300)

States	Number of schools	Number of Teachers Reported in each state	Number of Teachers With Business-teacher training	Per-cent
Alabama	1	3	2	66.7
Arizona	1	2	2	100.0
Arkansas	1	1	1	100.0
Colorado	1	2	2	100.0
Delaware	1	3	3	100.0
Florida	2	3	3	100.0
Idaho	1	2	0	--- -
Illinois	2	4	4	100.0
Indiana	1	3	3	100.0
Kansas	2	4	1	25.0
Kentucky	3	6	6	100.0
Louisiana	2	4	3	75.0
Maine	1	2	2	100.0
Maryland	1	2	1	50.0
Massachusetts	1	2	2	100.0
Michigan	1	2	2	100.0
Minnesota	1	3	1	33.3
Missouri	2	3	1	33.3
Montana	2	3	1	33.3
Nebraska	1	3	0	--- -
New Jersey	1	2	2	100.0
New Mexico	2	3	3	100.0
New York	1	1	1	100.0
North Carolina	1	2	2	100.0
Ohio	1	2	0	--- -
Oklahoma	3	7	4	57.1
Oregon	2	3	3	100.0
Pennsylvania	1	2	2	100.0
Rhode Island	1	2	2	100.0
South Carolina	1	2	0	--- -
South Dakota	1	3	2	66.7
Tennessee	2	2	1	50.0
Texas	2	2	2	100.0
Utah	1	2	2	100.0
Virginia	1	1	1	100.0
Wyoming	1	2	1	50.0
Total	50	95	68	71.6

Of the 95 teachers representing the 50 schools in 36 states, 68 or 71.6 percent of them have had courses in business-teacher training.

None of the teachers in the schools reporting from Idaho, Nebraska, Ohio, and South Carolina studied courses in business-teacher training. Only 25 percent of the teachers in the Kansas schools have had a course in business-teacher training, and 33.3 percent of the teachers in Minnesota, Missouri, and Montana have had such a course.

TABLE VII

Other Trends in the Business Education Program of 50 Secondary Schools in the United States in 1946 (Average Enrollment of 300)

Items Considered	Number of schools	Percent of total
Conducting In-service Training for Teachers of Business Education . . .	3	6
Operating a Distributive Education Program	10	20
Using Visual Aids in Teaching the Business Education Courses	38	76
Organizing and Sponsoring Commercial Clubs	19	38
Desiring Broader Offerings in the Pre-vocational Years of Pupils . . .	39	78

In Table VII miscellaneous information pertinent to the business education program is shown. Only 3 or 6 percent of the 50 schools conduct an in-service training program for the teachers of business subjects. In-service training for

teachers is a comparatively new trend--some schools are now inaugurating programs of a general nature for the in-service training of new staff members at least.

Another timely trend of the secondary business department is that of organizing distributive education programs. In this study 10 or 20 percent of the 50 schools are conducting distributive programs. From the head of the department of business education in the Dover High School, Dover, Delaware, is this statement attached to the returned questionnaire:

> A very fine automobile mechanics department and a carpentry course in which students work on real projects and do co-operative work in the offices, shops, and the buildings are included in the business education department as a distributive education adventure. Many of these students are in the lower bracket academically; but all are working part-time for business concerns, not one has lost his job, and business people are calling for more.[15]

So then, the distributive program is one which promises to receive future development on the secondary school level.

Shown in Table VII is the fact that 38 or 76 percent of this group of schools use some form of visual aids in the presentation of business courses to secondary school students. A closer observation as to this means of teaching probably would prove advantageous to all schools.

Commercial clubs receive attention in 19 or 38 percent of the schools studied, and most schools could profit by such

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[15]Written statement from the head of the Department of Business Administration, Dover High School, Dover, Delaware, 1946.

organizations as a means of encouraging a higher standard of work along with the wholesome recreation which clubs afford.

Probably the most significant point revealed in Table VII is the fact that 39 of the 50 schools would urge a broader program of business training in the pre-vocational years of the pupils. Apparently 78 percent of these schools feel the lack of sufficiently broadened fields for youth's exploration before choosing a vocation. Cities which have junior high schools and the larger senior high schools have an excellent opportunity to enrich the course offerings for the purpose of meeting this challenge. Many of the smaller schools may enlarge their programs to an appreciable degree.

Whether state supervision of business education is of a distinct advantage to secondary schools or not is merely a matter of conjecture. Table VII shows that only 5 of the states reporting have state supervision for business education. Many beliefs are to the effect that such service for business education merely results in a political regime rather than a means of helpful supervision. Kibby and Blockler say that in a study which they conducted along this line, eighteen of the forty chief state school officers consulted stated there is no need of a state supervisor of business education. Others indicated that the present plan of supervision is satisfactory, and that the supervisors of business education on a statewide basis made no difference in the results obtained in the

field.[16] From this evidence states may as well save the expense of the supervision. The following, however, shows that this does not represent the consensus in all the United States:

> In view of the fact that business education has become one of the most important phases of educational procedure, a sad commentary on the status of the field in the United States is made. In most of the states business education is the only one of the occupational fields without the benefit of the supervision of a qualified representative of the state department of education. For the most part present-day supervision is left to directors of secondary education, high school supervisors, or directors of vocational education in charge of broad educational areas.[17]

The same type of investigation made for 50 secondary schools having enrollments above 500 shows a somewhat different set-up for course offerings, course enrollments, and business-teacher qualifications from that of the smaller schools. These 50 schools have an average enrollment of 1,140 students, and probably this accounts in part for the difference existing in the types of programs offered. The larger school has a much better opportunity for offering a broader field for several reasons--they have more money, more teachers, and a much larger student body from which to organize their classes than do the smaller schools.

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[16]Ira W. Kibby and William R. Blockler," In the State Department of Education," Problems and Issues in Business Education, Seventh Yearbook, National Business Teachers Association, 1942, p. 12.

[17]Effective Business Education, Ninth Yearbook, loc. cit.

The order of rankings of business courses offered and those desired in the larger schools, both based on the number of schools considered, can be seen in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII

Courses Offered and Courses Desired in 50 Secondary Schools in the United States in 1946
(Average Enrollment of 1,140)
(Approximate Total Enrollment, 57,000)

Courses	Number of schools offering	Percent of total schools	Number of schools desiring	Percent of total schools
Typewriting	50	100.0		
Shorthand	50	100.0		
Bookkeeping	45	90.0		
Business Law	43	86.0	3	6.0
Secretarial Practice	41	82.0	2	4.0
Business Mathematics	38	76.0	0	- -
General Business	27	54.0	1	2.0
Commercial Geography	24	48.0	4	8.0
Office Machines	24	48.0	3	6.0
Salesmanship	24	48.0	7	14.0
Economics	23	46.0	3	6.0
Business English	23	46.0	3	6.0
Retailing	21	42.0	5	10.0
Filing	13	26.0	2	4.0
Spelling	7	14.0	1	2.0
Consumer Education	7	14.0	10	20.0
Merchandising	6	12.0	4	8.0
Occupations	4	8.0	5	10.0
Cosmetology	3	6.0	1	2.0
Advertising	3	6.0	4	8.0
Business Etiquette	2	4.0	3	6.0
Photography	1	2.0	1	2.0

Of the 50 schools with average enrollment of 1,140 students, 100 percent of them are offering typewriting and shorthand, and 90 percent are offering bookkeeping. Business law is taught in 86 percent of the schools, and in 82 percent secretarial practice is offered. Business mathematics is in

38 or 76 percent of the schools. A fair percent of these schools are offering courses in general business, commercial geography, office machines, salesmanship, economics, business English, and retailing. To somewhat less extent these schools give filing, spelling, consumer education, and merchandising. To even a much less degree they are offering such courses as occupations, cosmetology, advertising, business etiquette, and photography.

Some of the courses which are pretty strongly desired by these schools that do not already offer them are salesmanship, retailing, consumer education, occupations; and to a less degree, commercial geography, merchandising, and advertising.

An incredible fact is noted in Table IX concerning the course enrollments for typewriting. The total number of students taking typewriting in these 50 schools is 12,329 which is about 33 percent of the total number of students enrolled in business courses. Shorthand, bookkeeping, business mathematics, general business, spelling, economics, business English, and commercial geography receive high enrollments in these larger schools. Typewriting, shorthand, and bookkeeping as well as several other subjects have shown a definite trend upward in this respect all through the years; however, in all probability the influence of post-war conditions have caused the demand for typewriting to be somewhat skewed upward in

comparison with any other period. As a matter of fact, all subjects show an increase in enrollments over the past studies that have been made, but in typewriting the increase has been most unusual.

TABLE IX

Enrollment in Business Education Courses in 50 Secondary Schools of the United States in 1946
(Average Enrollment of 1,140)
(Approximate Total Enrollment, 57,000)

Courses	Total number of course enrollments in all schools	Percentage of total course enrollments
Typewriting	12,329	33.0
Shorthand	4,668	12.5
Bookkeeping	4,320	11.5
Business Mathematics	2,510	6.7
General Business	1,900	5.0
Economics	1,814	4.9
Spelling	1,808	4.9
Business English	1,420	3.8
Commercial Geography	1,272	3.4
Business Law	992	2.7
Secretarial Practice	854	2.3
Office Machines	795	2.1
Retailing	791	2.1
Salesmanship	723	1.9
Filing	343	.9
Consumer Education	199	.5
Merchandising	138	.4
Cosmetology	125	.3
Occupations	125	.3
Advertising	98	.2
Photography	85	.2
Business Etiquette	50	.1
Total	37,337	100.0

Of 57,000 students in this grouping, course enrollments in business education amount to 37,337. One school reported classes in photography with 85 students enrolled in the course.

TABLE X

Academic Training of Teachers of Business Education in 50 Secondary Schools of the United States in 1946
(Average Enrollment of 1,140)

States	Number of schools	Number of Teachers Reported in each state	Number of Teachers With majors in business education	Percent
Alabama	1	5	3	60.0
Arizona	2	18	17	94.4
Arkansas	2	5	4	80.0
California	2	7	6	85.6
Colorado	2	10	7	70.0
Connecticut	1	5	5	100.0
Georgia	2	9	7	77.8
Idaho	1	2	1	50.0
Illinois	2	12	11	91.7
Indiana	1	3	2	66.7
Iowa	2	8	6	75.0
Louisiana	1	5	5	100.0
Maryland	1	5	5	100.0
Michigan	1	5	4	80.0
Mississippi	2	12	9	75.0
Missouri	1	4	4	100.0
Montana	1	6	4	66.7
Nebraska	1	10	9	90.0
Nevada	2	8	5	62.5
New Hampshire	1	4	4	100.0
New Mexico	1	2	2	100.0
New York	1	6	6	100.0
North Carolina	1	3	2	66.7
North Dakota	1	3	2	66.7
Ohio	2	9	9	100.0
Oklahoma	2	10	7	70.0
Pennsylvania	1	3	0	--- -
South Dakota	1	2	2	100.0
Tennessee	1	2	2	100.0
Texas	4	28	19	67.9
Utah	1	6	3	50.0
Vermont	2	12	10	83.3
Washington	1	6	4	66.7
West Virginia	1	2	1	50.0
Wisconsin	1	3	1	33.3
Wyoming	2	7	6	85.6
Total	50	247	184	74.1

In Table X the data show that for the 50 schools of greater enrollment in the study, a total of 247 teachers are employed in the departments of business education. Of these teachers only 184 or 74.1 percent have majors in business education. Only 10 of the larger schools show that 100 percent of all the teachers employed in this field have majors in business education.

The two schools in West Virginia showed that only 40 percent of the teachers had completed majors in the field of their interest, and this represents the lowest percentage in this respect of any state included in the group. While such a few teachers representing each state would hardly justify a conclusion that all teachers of the state considered would have similar qualifications for teaching business education, the fact does show that the teacher-training requirement is more rigidly carried through in some states than in others. Surely the departments of business education in any state would be greatly enhanced by a more extensive study on the part of teachers for work in that particular area.

Only 4 states in this grouping provide state supervision for business education in the secondary schools, but this likely is not just cause for the low academic rating of the teachers. The fact is, with a well trained department head to supervise the work the schools may receive efficient service even with some teachers who do not have majors in their field.

TABLE XI

Business-Teacher Training of Instructors in 50 Secondary Schools of the United States in 1946
(Average Enrollment of 1,140)

	Number of schools	Number of Teachers Reported in each state	Number of Teachers With business-teacher training	Percent
Alabama	1	5	5	100.0
Arizona	2	18	17	94.4
Arkansas	2	5	4	80.0
California	2	7	3	42.9
Colorado	2	10	6	60.0
Connecticut	1	5	5	100.0
Georgia	2	9	5	55.6
Idaho	1	2	2	100.0
Illinois	2	12	4	33.3
Indiana	1	3	3	100.0
Iowa	2	8	4	50.0
Louisiana	1	5	5	100.0
Maryland	1	5	5	100.0
Michigan	1	5	0	--- -
Mississippi	2	12	7	58.3
Missouri	1	4	4	100.0
Montana	1	6	4	66.7
Nebraska	1	10	9	90.0
Nevada	2	8	4	50.0
New Hampshire	1	4	4	100.0
New Mexico	1	2	2	100.0
New York	1	6	6	100.0
North Carolina	1	3	2	66.7
North Dakota	1	3	3	100.0
Ohio	2	9	2	22.2
Oklahoma	2	10	7	70.0
Pennsylvania	1	3	3	100.0
South Dakota	1	2	2	100.0
Tennessee	1	2	2	100.0
Texas	4	28	22	78.6
Utah	1	6	6	100.0
Vermont	2	12	6	50.0
Washington	1	6	4	66.7
West Virginia	1	3	3	100.0
Wisconsin	1	2	2	100.0
Wyoming	2	7	7	100.0
	50	247	179	72.5

According to Table XI only 72.5 percent of these 247 teachers have studied courses in business-teacher training. The table also shows that only 17 or about 7 percent of the schools had 100 percent of the teachers equipped with this business education teaching preparation. Ohio showed the lowest percentage in this respect of any of the states studied in this group.

The standard of teacher training in the larger schools appears a bit lower than it is for the smaller schools. This does not mean necessarily that less efficiency in the work prevails, because with larger schools a well-trained director of the department may effectively supervise his teachers and get as good or better results as are possible in the one- or two-teacher departments.

Table XII shows the trend of educators in 50 secondary schools with average enrollment of 1,140 students. Only 12 or 24 percent of these schools conduct an in-service training for teachers. This type of training is new, but gradually the administrators in public schools are instigating such a program. Doubtless this type of training has been started in order to supply the lack of teacher training of the instructors.

Distributive education programs are being operated in 22 or 44 percent of this group of schools; 38 or 76 percent are using various types of visual aids in the presentation of business subjects; 29 or 58 percent have active business

education clubs in operation; and 36 or 72 percent would like to see a broader course offering in the pre-vocational years of the pupils.

TABLE XII

Other Trends in the Business Education Program of 50 Secondary Schools in the United States in 1946 (Average Enrollment of 1,140)

Items Considered	Number of schools	Percent of total
Conducting In-service Training for Teachers of Business Education . . .	12	24
Operating a Distributive Education Program	22	44
Using Visual Aids in Teaching the Business Education Courses	38	76
Organizing and Sponsoring Business Education Clubs	29	58
Desiring Broader Offerings in the Prevocational Years of Pupils . . .	36	72

A comparison of data shown in the tables representing both the large and small schools reveals a striking similarity in trends for all the 100 schools.

Need for Revision of Business Education. The traditional curriculum no longer meets the demand in this changing age. Traditions that have grown up in the field of business education itself are exerting a much more powerful effect on secondary business training than are academic traditions. The theory that all must study shorthand and typewriting; that in the study of bookkeeping all lessons in business procedure can

be taught effectively; or that all who want to enter business must prepare for office work accounts for a few of the traditional views that have prevailed. Such training is undeniably usable, perhaps valuable, to any business person, but certainly not absolutely necessary in some business activities. Some business education directors have long been satisfied to perpetuate the original courses and to contend that they meet all the needs which secondary schools may have.

Naturally a full and well developed business educational program for the secondary schools has been retarded by those educators who held fast to the many traditional theories. Not all educators have kept pace with this program; they have developed a philosophy of their own, but they have failed largely to convince others to the same belief. Today the accepted principles of secondary education are favorable to business education, and adademic traditions need no longer interfere seriously with the progress in this field. At a meeting of the National Office Management Association in Detroit several years ago, its secretary was directed to inquire into the status of business education because members of the Association had complained about the inefficiency of office help. The office manager of a large insurance Company indicated that high school graduates who came to him weren't properly qualified.[18]

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[18]C. B. Atwater, "What's Wrong with Commercial Education," Journal of Business Education, March and April, 1930, p. 34.

Today the standard of requirements in business is even higher, and the same traditional manner of instruction still prevails to a great extent. Present-day educators should try to have discarded from business education practices which have no other foundation than tradition.

An enriched program of secondary business education that is well organized should appeal to students who plan to leave school by the end of the ninth year of high school. Nichols says approximately 35 percent of the students who enroll in the ninth grade leave school by the end of the year.[19]

Commercial education can't be relied upon to solve completely the secondary school mortality; but it can be expected to lengthen the average period of high school attendance and at the same time improve the services of those who drop out will render as wage-earners.

Kyker makes this criticism of business education:

> The high school business department has neglected largely the training for distributive occupations, ... A good guidance program can render valuable service to business, to business education, and particularly to students by making clear to them this range of opportunity and awards.[20]

An efficient guidance program today along with a distributive education offering probably would decrease materially the school mortality in the secondary schools.

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[19]Nichols, op. cit., p. 20.

[20]B. Frank Kyker, "Present and Post-War Adjustments in Business Education," The Business Education World, Volume 19, No. 10, 1944, p. 28.

In 1820 only one person in 40 of those gainfully occupied were primarily engaged in some form of business. A great majority of people at that time were following some type of agriculturial pursuits, but since then the occupational picture has changed amazingly. The machine age has made possible greater agricultural endeavors but with fewer workers, and much of this surplus of people are spread throughout the business world. In 1942, approximately 27 million persons were engaged in some phase of business.[21] In order to meet this ever changing condition, business must be constantly changing its status.

In recent years education has been placed on a scientific basis, and significant changes in theory have been noted. Present-day theories and principles of secondary education are favorable to business education.[22]

Considering this study of secondary schools in the United States in 1946, many reasons for revision are apparent. Of approximately 72,000 students attending 100 schools distributed over the United States, the business course enrollments total 49,477. With such an expression of interest in a field, educators should be inspired to render every possible

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[21]Herbert A. Tonne, Business Education, The Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, 1939, pp. 69-70.

[22]Statistical Abstract of the United States, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1942, pp. 64-65.

assistance to a program which will best meet the needs and demands of this throng of students.

In Part II some criteria for meeting the present demands of business are presented through a proposed plan of organization of the curricula and the art of presentation of subject matter.

P A R T T W O

PLAN OF PRESENTATION FOR SPECIFIC SUBJECT MATTER

CHAPTER IV

THE PHYSICAL SETTING FOR BUSINESS EDUCATION

Rooms. The physical set-up for the department of business education in any secondary school depends upon the size and wealth of the school, the physical plant, and the community which it is to serve. The number of courses offered and the number of students enrolled in each course will determine the number of classrooms and the amount of floor space needed to serve the department. Some schools are able to offer more courses to fewer students and with less floor space and equipment by allowing some courses to be offered on alternating years or semesters.

For even the smallest schools a well-lighted room for typewriting, a room for shorthand and bookkeeping, and a general classroom for business mathematics, general business, and other courses that the school may offer are absolutely necessary. In many cases the general classroom may be one that is shared with other departments throughout the day. In this way the school may go along with only two rooms. The old idea of having glass partitions between the typewriting room and the shorthand and bookkeeping room should be forever cast aside.

A class in typewriting requires the teacher's presence the entire period. Administrators should provide rooms and teachers sufficiently to supply each class with a teacher the full time the class is in session.

A small school need not give up entirely its business education program so long as it can afford one classroom with a few typewriters, for other classes can be conducted in the typing room if no other is available--this is not recommended, however, except in cases where better situations are impossible.

Even a small room that will accommodate only a dozen students in typewriting can be used effectively by scheduling more than one section for the course. This, however, will depend upon the availability of teacher personnel in the school.

In schools large enough to have from one to six full-time teachers in the business education department a more ideal situation may be experienced. Some schools in this study reported more than 500 students taking typewriting during the same semester. Allowing eight periods to the school day and two typewriting rooms accommodating more than 30 students each, sixteen sections would be required to handle the typewriting alone. If classes are to be kept at normal size, two large rooms would be required to take care of the shorthand and the bookkeeping, and perhaps one or two other general classrooms would suffice for other courses in schools of this size. If the school should offer office machines, an extra room would be

needed. Thus, an assumption that the business department must have from one to six rooms available--rooms which will seat at least 36 students each--in schools of this size is very much in line. High school classes larger than 36 students may be taught well, but for the best results each class should be kept below this number.

Department heads and teachers of business education must make the best of the situation which their school plant affords. Many school buildings have been constructed with no more in view than a shelter from the weather; others have been expensively built but with no thought of specific arrangement of departments of work in the school. Like individual homes, rarely is a public building constructed that seems to be just right.

For many directors of business education then, a bit of ingenuity in planning and arranging the interior equipment will be necessary in order to have a pleasant situation in most old buildings. Those who are fortunate enough to get in some suggestions before the plant is constructed will be able to provide a more ideal situation.

Since typewriting, business machines, and bookkeeping cause much eye strain, the most important requisite is that of good natural as well as artificial lighting. Other deficiencies regarding rooms can be remedied, but the natural lighting should be cared for from the outset.

Plenty of blackboard space is another requisite for the business education classrooms. Practically all business courses require board space for effective teaching.

Furniture. Usually an answer to the question, "How can the school best utilize all the room space?" is found in the type of furniture used. A typewriting room equipped with ordinary, upright tables, either movable or stationary, is of little use for other classes. With the two-purpose desk the machine is lowered into its encasement and a flat-top desk results. Not only is the machine covered and safely stored from tinkering fingers, but also an excellent desk or table is available for bookkeeping, shorthand, or many other classes. In this way the room may be used every period that a class of typewriting is not in session. These desks are beautifully designed, massive in appearance, and the sliding baseboards operate in nickel-plated metal guides. The drop head mechanism locks automatically without need of an auxiliary lock.

According to the beliefs of manufacturing companies, the trend is away from stationary furniture. Many types of typewriting tables are available to meet the price range of any school. Good adjustable tables of smaller size and a much less price will serve adequately enough. The light weight tables have a tendency to walk forward and to the right as the typist continually throws the carriage so that constant replacement of tables is necessary in the classroom if an orderly

arrangement is maintained. For this reason probably the massive, movable tables or desks or the stationary, light-weight tables would be more desirable.

Julian R. Thompson says "the small drawer and the sliding panel found in most typewriter tables have no practical value in the typing room."[1] A little carpenter work and some patience will improve even the most ordinary sort of table for typists. Much of the center section of the front rail of the table can be cut away to provide knee space for the larger students, allowing them to sit up to the machine in the proper position for typing.

Many have agreed that loose equipment has no place in the typing room. Tables can be made fast to the floor by the use of angle braces attached to the floor and to the two posts nearest the operator. By such an arrangement tables may be moved easily when the need arises.

The top of the typewriter table should have a strip of hardboard or masonite about 11 inches long, 2 1/4 inches wide, and 3/16 inch in thickness attached about 8 inches from the left end. Two holes of the exact size of the typewriter feet should be cut in the strip so that the two left feet of the machine will fit into them. This arrangement should allow the front edge of the frame of the machine to sit one inch

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[1]Julian R. Thompson, "Providing a Desirable Typing Situation," The Journal of Business Education, March, 1946, p. 18.

back of the front edge of the table in order to give balance to the table and to reduce vibration. This plan will give a rigid position to the machine, yet it actually can be lifted out for moving, cleaning, or repairs.

Since the purpose of the business education department is to train for work in offices and various types of businesses, all classrooms should appear businesslike. The desks, tables, teacher's desk, students' desks, and other furniture in the department should be of plain lines, sanitary design, and of substantial construction to stand long and heavy use.

Posture chairs should be used in the business department as a protection to physical health of the students and for the most effective working conditions. Chairs that are adjustable as to height as well as those that have adjustable backs can be made to fit the students' stature--an all-important item.

Some provision should be made for students' luggage. The typing, shorthand, and bookkeeping tables have no place for textbooks, notebooks, brief cases, and the like that students must carry with them. The logical solution to this problem is to build a shelf under the chair seat if it is not already provided by the manufacurers.

Arrangement of classroom furniture has much to do with the effectiveness of classroom procedure in business education. Aisles are necessary for both teachers and students because

much of the work consists of laboratory activity. Provision should be made for the teacher's passing through the room to reach all students' desks with ease.

A demonstration typewriter stand for the instructor is necessary. The stand should be adjustable to the standing height of the instructor and mounted on roller coasters for ease in movement from one position to another. A demonstration stand is beneficial only when it can be placed so that the teacher's demonstration is in plain view of all members of the class.

The business education room should be provided with dictionary stands which take up little room, but which can be placed in a convenient location for all the class members.

Ample filing space for the department materials, for the separate teachers, and for students' work should be provided.

At least one room in the department--preferably the typing room--should have a means of shutting out the natural light so that visual aids might be used effectively.

Tables are considered best for shorthand and bookkeeping classes--the same room may be used for both. These and also the two-purpose typewriter desks may be used for the office machines class. One of the best types of tables available now is the American Universal Table with Envoy Posture Chairs. In this furniture, the manufacturers have taken into

account every factor which contributes to the welfare of the student, as well as the attractiveness of the school room.

For ordinary classroom seating, the American Universal Lifting-Lid Desk or the American Envoy Desk would be an improvement over the usual school seating equipment. One equipment company has the following to say about seating:

> Proper school seating is the right of every American pupil. For that desk, which is really his daytime home for five days a week, he deserves one that merits his pride and protects his health.[2]

The type and quality of furniture, like room space, depends largely upon the size and wealth of the school. In all cases, however, the buyer of furniture should take usefulness, attractiveness, durability, sanitation, flexibility, movability, expansion, and the cost into account before the final decision is made for setting in the completed outfit.

Equipment. The first and most nearly universally used bit of equipment for the business education department is the typewriter. A course in typewriting can be taught with good effect by use of almost any types or models of machines, but the school that is awake and willing to provide the best of training available should seek to know the answer to the problem of properly equipping the typing room.

Old typewriters can't be thrown away, but unless it is profitable to keep them repaired to render efficient use

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[2]The Texas Outlook, Volume 30, Number 4, Texas State Teachers Association, Inc., Fort Worth, Texas, April, 1946, pp. 3-4.

a trade-in should be executed to provide new, modern machines of the same make. The Underwood, Royal, Remington Rand, L. C. Smith, Woodstock, and other makes of machines serve the purpose of typewriting instruction, but the director should strive to get his classroom for beginners equipped with one make of machines instead of a general mixture of all. Classroom instruction is hindered too much by the teacher's having to teach machine parts and the manner of operation of five or six different types of machines in one class. Each room, therefore, should be equipped with only one make of machines, particularly in the case of several typing rooms in the same school. Even in the smaller schools where only one room is equipped for typing, a few machines of other makes should be provided for advanced typewriting in order that each student may learn the mechanism of other types of machines.

Representatives of the International Business Machines Corporation say that business colleges are installing the 1946 Electromatic typewriter which produces letters of distinguished appearance, with the minimum of physical effort on the part of the operator. Such a machine is thought to be entirely too expensive for public schools, at least for the beginning class work of students. The electric typewriter is specially designed for the well-trained typist or the expert.

An entirely new development in the field of typewriting equipment has recently been announced by The Underwood Elliot Fisher Company.

> Draftsmen and engineers are required to spend many tedious hours of work in hand lettering plans, charts, schedules, and other miscellaneous engineering records, An office typist may now do this job at typing speed with the use of this new equipment. The machine uses a new standard typewriter keyboard with electrically controlled keys. The electrical control permits a varied density of lettering. Special blue-print carbon may also be used to give excellent blue-print results. The writing surface is flat like a drawing board, and it allows 396 square inches of drawing to be in full view and in lettering position. Lettering may be typed on a drawing with pinpoint accuracy at any location within this area.[3]

Since these are time and labor-saving devices, offices are installing them rather rapidly. Schools, however, should adhere to the manual typewriter for training purposes. In fact, even an expert typist loses his rhythm after using an electric machine for a time.

Whenever possible, schools should provide copyholders for the typewriting students. The copyholder places the copy up before the eyes of the student, relieving him of severe eye strain. Most instructional drill material can't be used in the Line-a time copyholder, but simple holders may be devised for use in this respect.

A multiple-copy attachment for typewriters, the Dupli-Typer, is an improvement designed to fit any standard typewriter, enabling the typist to use multi-copy, fan-fold forms. On the 1944 model a thin, strong ribbon is used, making it possible to put two ribbons on one frame. With only

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[3] The Balance Sheet, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, April, 1944, p. 377.

one frame the operator can make one original and two smudge-proof copies, and with two frames five copies may be made. The ribbons have a chemical coating on the back that prevents an off-set on every overlapping sheet and also adds to the wearing qualities.

Each department of business education should have a clearoscope--desk style--for office use in scoring typewritten work for correct mechanical form. The teacher finds this piece of equipment not only a time saver but also a relief for eye-strain.

The audio-visual equipment is one of the most essential tools of all for classroom teaching. The most complex of this equipment--the sound motion-picture projector--is in reality no more complicated than a sewing machine. Certainly it is no match for an automobile. Neither men nor women, therefore, should have any fear about the successful operation of this bit of equipment.

The blackboard, bulletin board, flash cards, manuals, posters, charts, graphs, maps, diagrams, objects, specimens, models, field trips, still pictures, photographs, opaque projectors, slides, stripfilm, and slidefilm are some of the other visual aids that should be considered and used extensively in the business education classes.

The office machines classroom should be equipped with a sufficient number of machines to make possible worth-while

class instruction. By a rotating plan of class procedure, a few machines may be used quite effectively in large schools as well as in small ones.

The trend in business offices is expressed in the following quotation:

> One of the most impressive developments in the business offices in recent years has been the rapidly growing use of machines. Formerly only the typewriter was in general use. Then listing, calculating, and other machines were adapted for certain clerical jobs. Now machines are used on all types of work including the accounting records and statistical reports which are vital to the management of business.[4]

According to most studies made of office practice, courses should be determined largely by the nature of the office work of those businesses in which graduates enter upon employment. Since all students don't seek employment in their immediate locality, arrangements should be made to provide them with training by which they can meet the requirements any place.

For small schools which can do no better, Uhl has made this statement:

> Teach only such machines as are shown by local surveys to be extensively used in the community for which sufficient positions are open each year to absorb the supply of students trained.[5]

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[4]Instruction Projects in Office Machines, A Manual in Curriculum Construction, Burroughs Adding Machine Company, Detroit, 1940, p. 3.

[5]W. L. Uhl, Supervision of Secondary Subjects, D. Appleton, Company, New York City, 1929, p. 370.

Using desk models so far as possible, schools equip the office machines classroom with 4 key-driven calculators, 4 crank-driven calculators, 2 full keyboard electric adding machines, 1 ten-key manual adding machine, 1 computing-billing machine, 1 adding-subtracting machine, 1 ediphone, 1 transcribing machine, 1 electric typewriter, 1 mimeograph duplicator, 1 ditto duplicator, 1 comtometer, 1 varityper, 1 long-carriage typewriter, and 1 bookkeeping machine.

Should a school find it impossible to equip the department at one time with all the machines named, a few might be added year by year until a good number are installed.

Miniature filing sets (alphabetic, geographic, and numeric) should be put in for use in the office practice course. Some schools give separate courses in filing instead of including it in the office practice course. In either case, a set for each student in the class should be provided.

Paper cutters should be made available to each room in the business education department. Also an illuminated drawing board will enhance the office practice course--one board should be sufficient to serve the needs of the class.

Schools attempting to offer courses in vocational business education must provide adequate training equipment. The proper number of office machines, supplementary equipment, and library facilities are absolutely necessary for each of the pupils to attain a reasonable degree of skill.

In general, no research or study has been made by any competent agency for the purpose of establishing standards for equipment.[6] Doubtless the opinion of one individual or group could be designated as standard as well as that of another.

In order that business education can meet its new responsibilities in establishing standards of equipment, Strong has given in the following list several suggested types of equipment from which standards might be set up:

> 1. That which requires a relatively long period of training for its mastery, such as the typewriter, the key-driven calculator, and the dictating machine.
>
> 2. That which requires but a relatively short period of training and a modest amount of practice, such as the many duplicators now on the market.
>
> 3. That which requires only basic instruction and relatively little practice, such as the adding machine and various calculators.
>
> 4. That which requires only demonstration and almost no practice, such as check writers, daters, and numbering machines.[7]

To Strong's last suggestion might be added the addressograph which is much too expensive and which requires no more than a mere demonstration for the students to become familiar with its use.

Since many types of machines are too expensive for use in training students, only the inexpensive, and most

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[6] W. S. Barnhart, "Equipment Standards," The Business Education World, March, 1945, p. 352.

[7] Earl P. Strong, The Organization, Administration, and Supervision of Business Education, The Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, 1944, pp. 235-236.

commonly used types should be installed. Many schools can afford a minimum number of these, and students should be well instructed in the proper operating techniques--all are too expensive to be carelessly abused.

Supplies. If a business department in the secondary school is to be provided with ample supplies, the department head and the teachers should make a careful study of necessary supplies and keep a close watch on the present stock so that an accurate requisition may be made to the supervisor of finance. The stocks should include the following:

Typewriter ribbons	Mimeograph ink
Carbon paper	Staplers, large and small
Gauze for cleaning	Staples, large and small
Eyelet machine	Adding-machine paper
Type cleaning materials	Numbering machine
Waste paper baskets	Scissors
Minor tools	Used stencil files
Desk trays	Machine oil
Stencils	Correction fluid
Mimeograph paper	Styli

Today a process of reinking typewriter ribbons is being practiced. One equipment company has developed a process of coating typewriter ribbons that is reported to double the life of the ribbon. The ribbon is drawn through a fountain-fed saturated pad and is then passed through pressure rollers. The final step is a rewinding on an empty spool. The cost is low, and the company claims that the amount saved by reinking the first 25 ribbons will pay for the machine.[8]

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[8]The Balance Sheet, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, December, 1943, p. 185.

Only with adequate supplies can the teacher provide his classes with effective instruction in the various business courses. To both student and teacher the work in the business education department becomes a pleasure when provision is made for ample equipment and supplies.

CHAPTER V

FACTORS IN CURRICULUM BUILDING

To organize the curriculum for business education training, the educator first takes a broad overview of the area, tries to discover the goals, and plans the curriculum accordingly. If business instruction is to be effective, the specifications for it must be in the curriculum.

Changing curricula is easy; but Bobbitt says merely shifting positions with reference to curriculum building is not necessarily making progress, that it must find guiding principles which will lead it with all the certainty that is possible in the right direction.[1] Morrison says "it involves the content of the general education of the common man."[2] The term common man includes all people in their nonvocational, nonphilosophical, nonspecialized, human nature.[3]

The People to Be Trained. If business education is to be truly vocational, it must be organized with certain people in mind. The needs and capacities of these definite

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[1]Franklin Bobbitt, How to Make a Curriculum, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York City, 1924, p. 7.

[2]Henry C. Morrison, The Curriculum of the Common Schools, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1940, p. 6.

[3]Loc. cit.

people must be clearly understood. Certainly the program should be suited to ages of those whom it is to serve. Vocational business training below secondary school age should be considered purely pre-vocational in its nature. Nichols substantiates this by saying:

> No research is necessary to establish the perfectly apparent fact that neither typewriting nor shorthand can have any real vocational significance when taught to children of grade-school age.[4]

Such early offering of business education may prove helpful as an exploratory adventure. The age factor should be given careful consideration in organizing a functioning program of business education for any school. The age under primary consideration in this study is around fourteen to twenty-one.

Another factor is sex. Most secondary schools are co-educational, and the business education curriculum should meet the requirements of both boys and girls. More girls than boys are interested in clerical work, and for this reason a provision for courses in which more boys may find interest is advisable. Until the sex factor has been given due thought in the planning of the programs, no really satisfactory business education program will be possible.

Some few schools must consider nationalities in the building of curricula. Pupils who have not mastered the English language would find most of the commercial program of

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[4]Frederick G. Nichols, Commercial Education in the High School, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1933, p. 105.

little or no avail. In schools where native-born pupils without language difficulties attend the business curriculum is quite satisfactory and beneficial.

The mental factor of the pupil must be considered also, because all students, brilliant or dull, have to be cared for. Unfortunately, the business education department has long been thought of as the dumping ground for students below average in academic rating. This does not mean necessarily that the student is not sound mentally--it may be that he has less interest in academic subjects. True enough, some dull students in academic work do well in office-skill courses. The curriculum maker, therefore, must consider the mental equipment of the students.

Business ability is yet another factor entering into curriculum making. If vocational aptitudes and business ability are taken into consideration, the programs of business education in widely scattered high schools still differ far more than they do now, more originality and less imitation will be displayed in setting up the type of curriculum that will be most effective.[5]

Personal traits of students have something to do with choices of vocations. Physical appearance, including weight, height, and other features has much to do with occupational decisions. Physical defects as well as general health, energy,

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[5]Ibid., p. 115.

and nervousness should not be ignored. Such business traits as initiative, courtesy, loyalty, dependability, and ambition must be given attention in counseling.

Knowledge of the people to be trained is extremely important in setting up the curriculum in business education for any particular school. A general curriculum may serve all schools well, but each school will have to modify any program to have it best fit its needs.

Statements made by Kitson twenty years ago are no less true today. He says that in building a practical business education curriculum for the individual school, four steps are absolutely necessary:

> 1. Ascertaining the occupations in which the graduates of the school are likely to engage.
>
> 2. Analyzing these occupations to discover the tasks to be performed, which, of course, includes listing the facts on which the person who engages in the particular occupation should be informed and the difficulties which he is likely to encounter.
>
> 3. Obtaining material which will provide the information needed, and arranging this material in usable form.
>
> 4. Providing opportunities for practice on the job.[6]

Conditions of Instruction. Unless a careful study of local conditions is made and due weight given to such conditions by those who organize the business education curriculum,

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[6]Harry D. Kitson, Commercial Education in Secondary Schools, Ginn and Company, Dallas, Texas, 1929, p. 15.

the instruction is likely to be ineffective. Educational conditions differ widely among the various schools. The kind and size of school; the amount of equipment on hand or that can be bought; community needs for certain types of training; and attitudes of the school authorities all have some bearing on what can be done in any particular school.

Where business education is in the curriculum of a school, the instruction differs from that of schools which do not have such a program. For instance, the schools that sponsor part-time employment for students must necessarily adjust the general curriculum to this activity.

Surely the size of any school will limit to some degree the types of training that can be offered with success. The type of curriculum that fits the need of large high schools is impractical for the small high schools. Pre-vocational courses may be offered in the large systems, but few if any can be added to the offerings of many of the small schools. Another disadvantage of the small school in building a curriculum is the fact that ability grouping is almost impossible. For this reason, dull and brilliant and the vocational and the non-vocational students must be instructed in the same classes.

The students of the large schools have the advantage of teacher specialization because with many teachers each one can be assigned work in his particular field or subjects. In many of the small schools is found only one teacher of business

education, and he has to teach a wide spread of subjects. The large schools may have the advantage over small schools in procuring teachers with actual business experience. Thus the small schools must be content to offer a limited program in business education regardless of the desire to equalize the vocational education processes for their students.

The location of the school need not hinder the possibilities for the business education schedule except in cases of distributive programs. The closer the school is to the business center the better will be the possibility for the part-time students to carry on their program. Too, some consideration must be given to setting up a program which allows the students who do selling in the down-town stores to be on duty during the busy hours of the day. For this reason the school probably should not offer retail selling unless it can provide the store experience which is profitable to the business involved.

The size and arrangement of the physical plant will restrict the program of business education. No skill training can be offered without adequate and up-to-date equipment. Many other and perhaps less useful courses are placed in the curriculum because of the lack of equipment for installing the business courses; for one thing is sure, no clerical work can be given without good equipment. A school may begin with a small amount of equipment and add to it as money will permit.

In business communities of comparable size, very few differences are noted in the type of business workers needed. In these cases the curriculum of instruction may be the same for all such localities. Business communities which vary in size require different curriculum construction; however, Nichols has the following to say in this regard.

> To a greater extent than in any of the other fields of vocational education, a universality of aims and content in business education exists. . . . the fundamental principles of business organization and the detail practices that are essential to sound management, as far as they affect programs of business training are much the same throughout the entire country.[7]

Many other conditions might be cited, but these are enough to indicate that it is safe to give consideration to immediate local conditions as well as to what other schools are doing when organizing the business education curriculum.

The Program. The major part of the criteria for curriculum building in business education as suggested in this study comes from the data obtained from 100 secondary schools in the United States for this purpose.

Table XIII reveals the fact that 100 percent of the schools studied offer typewriting and shorthand in their business education curricula. Of these schools 88 percent offer bookkeeping, 64 percent give secretarial practice, 63 percent business mathematics, 58 percent business law, 51 percent general business, and 41 percent economics. These eight subjects

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[7]Loc. cit.

get more attention than the numerous other courses taught in the several schools. Commercial geography, office machines, business English, and salesmanship rank next in order of this sequence.

TABLE XIII

Courses Offered and Courses Desired in 100 Secondary Schools in the United States in 1946

Courses	Number of schools offering	Percent of total schools	Number of schools desiring	Percent of total schools
Typewriting	100	100.0		
Shorthand	100	100.0		
Bookkeeping	88	88.0	1	1.0
Secretarial Practice	64	64.0	6	6.0
Business Mathematics	63	63.0	4	4.0
Business Law	58	58.0	12	12.0
General Business	51	51.0	6	6.0
Economics	41	41.0	11	11.0
Commercial Geography	40	40.0	9	9.0
Office Machines	35	35.0	8	8.0
Business English	32	32.0	8	8.0
Salesmanship	30	30.0	15	15.0
Retailing	27	27.0	12	12.0
Filing	21	21.0	5	5.0
Spelling	16	16.0	4	4.0
Occupations	14	14.0	9	9.0
Consumer Education	10	10.0	11	11.0
Merchandising	9	9.0	7	7.0
Advertising	5	5.0	8	8.0
Business Etiquette	4	4.0	8	8.0
Penmanship	3	3.0	5	5.0
Cosmetology	3	3.0	8	8.0
Photography	1	1.0	8	8.0
Millinery			3	3.0
Cleaning and Pressing			2	2.0
Barbering			2	2.0

Besides the 30 schools which offer salesmanship, 15 percent more of the schools would like to include it. Other

than the schools which now teach business law, retailing, economics, and consumer education, 11 to 12 percent of them would like to see the courses put in their curriculum. Of the ones which do not now have commercial geography and occupations, 9 percent of them would like these courses. Office machines, business English, advertising, business etiquette, cosmetology, and photography are wanted in 8 percent of the schools which do not now offer them. Millinery, cleaning and pressing, and barbering are wanted in a few of the schools.

In Table XIV some interesting data concerning course enrollments are shown for the 100 schools in the study. Of the 50,499 course enrollments in business education, 15,657 students or 30.9 percent are enrolled in typewriting; 12.4 percent are in shorthand, 10.8 percent in bookkeeping, and 6.8 percent in business mathematics. The percentage ranges from 2.6 percent to 5.9 percent for such courses as secretarial practice, business law, business English, commercial geography, general business, and economics.

Other courses which seem to get favorable consideration are consumer education, salesmanship, filing, retailing, and office machines. A very few of these schools offer merchandinsing, advertising, cosmetology, business etiquette, and photography. Schools located in towns and cities where these can be offered as distributive courses would permit their study without furnishing the school with the necessary equipment.

TABLE XIV

Enrollment in Business Education in 100 Secondary Schools in the United States in 1946 (Total Enrollment 72,000)

Courses	Total number of course enrollments in all schools	Percentage of total course enrollments
Typewriting	15,657	30.0
Shorthand	6,241	12.4
Bookkeeping	5,447	10.8
Business Mathematics	3,457	6.8
Commercial Geography	2,962	5.9
Economics	2,684	5.3
General Business	2,594	5.2
Spelling	2,425	4.8
Business English	1,788	3.5
Business Law	1,374	2.7
Secretarial Practice	1,289	2.6
Office Machines	892	1.8
Retailing	889	1.7
Salesmanship	868	1.7
Occupations	580	1.1
Filing	448	.9
Consumer Education	243	.5
Merchandising	212	.4
Advertising	142	.3
Cosmetology	125	.3
Business Etiquette	103	.2
Photography	85	.2
Total	50,499	100.0

A few other trends in the business education departments of these schools are shown in Table XV. In-service training for teachers of business education is conducted in 15 percent of these schools. Although the number of schools giving this special training for teachers is small, the trend toward including such training seems to be worthy of notice. If the teacher-training institutions would elaborate on this phase

of their training, secondary schools would be relieved of the responsibility of in-service work for teachers.

TABLE XV

Other Trends in the Business Education Program of 100 Secondary Schools in the United States in 1946

Items Considered	Number of schools	Percent of total
Conducting In-Service Training for Teachers of Business Education	15	15.0
Operating a Distributive Education Program	32	32.0
Using Visual Aids in Teaching the Business Education Courses	76	76.0
Organizing and Sponsoring Commercial Clubs	48	48.0
Desiring Broader Offerings in the Pre-Vocational Years of pupils	75	75.0

Since 32 percent of the schools operate a distributive education program in their communities, this factor should be taken into consideration in forming a curriculum for the secondary schools.

An exceptionally high percentage of 76 in these schools use some form of visual aids in the presentation of courses, and this certainly should be kept in mind as the courses to be placed in the curriculum are selected.

Because of the fact that 75 percent of the schools studied desire broader course offerings in the pre-vocational years of the pupils than they now have,curriculum building

should proceed with this point as a guide. Even the small towns may have businesses that will co-operate in this respect.

The first section to be considered in offering a program of business education training in secondary schools is that of secretarial courses. Based on the fact that all the schools in this study offer typewriting and shorthand, then no question should arise against their heading the list to be placed in this grouping with perhaps 36 weeks of training in each. Also, since a fair percentage of these schools now offer secretarial training, office machines, filing, and business etiquette as separate courses; and since many more schools would like to have them in their program, a combined course called office practice, which would give 9 weeks of training in each of the four phases, is believed justifiable. Many of the larger schools as well as the smaller ones might profit by this arrangement.

About one-third of these schools give courses in business English, some offer spelling, and several more want these subjects taught. A few schools expressed a desire for business correspondence. To suggest that all schools allow the course to be presented in 18 weeks is to present one possibility which many writers of business English textbooks advocate. The course might be made a full 36-weeks' course if necessary.

None of these high schools gives attention to penmanship today, and only five of the 100 schools included in this

study expressed any desire to teach it. Because of the fact that the typewriter has come to be of universal use, is no reason for disregarding the art of handwriting. Good writing is worth the effort to attain it if for no other reason than the legibility of signatures, and each individual is expected to sign his name to negotiable instruments and letters as long as he lives--the typewriter cannot be substituted for this purpose.

Frailey has given a long list of signatures which he calls "cock-eyed signatures." They are absolutely impossible so far as legibility is concerned.[8] A requirement of stenographers on all letters today is to type the name of the dictator for fear that his penwritten signature cannot be read.

Business men, particularly bankers, want employees who can write legibly and speedily. From a prominent Houston, Texas, banker comes this statement:

> Because of a statutory requirement that all bound ledgers, journals, and minutes of banks be penwritten and retained for 10 years, the employees of banks must be trained in penmanship. Legibility and speed in the matter of minutes is necessary because the minutes serve as instruction and guidance to the board of directors; furthermore, they must be kept in their original form--the penwritten copy.[9]

Surely penmanship has a place in the curricula, and

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[8]L. E. Frailey, Smooth Sailing Letters, Prentice-Hall New York City, 1928, p. 29.

[9]R. M. McKee, President, Galena Park State Bank, Houston, Texas, (Personal Interview), April, 1946.

business education teachers should prepare themselves to give effective courses in the art.

A second section of the program is the general business courses. A glance at Table XIII reveals the fact that such courses as general business to include occupations, business mathematics, and bookkeeping merit a place on the program. Periods of 36 weeks for bookkeeping, and 18 weeks each for general business training and business mathematics are recommended.

The third section comes under the heading of social courses. A further check on Table XIII shows that more than 50 percent of the schools are giving courses in business law, and exactly 40 percent are offering commercial geography, and that many more would prefer to include them. Economics is another prominent course among these schools. Consumer education is given in a few schools, and many more are wanting to give it. The better plan here would be to combine the two into a course which could be labeled as consumer economics. These three courses, business law, commercial geography, and consumer economics, should be given 18 weeks of study each. The subject of buymanship may be treated in connection with the course in consumer economics.

For the fourth section, the distributive courses are considered. According to these 100 schools salesmanship and retailing each get considerable attention, but merchandising

and advertising are of little consequence as such. Most of the high schools should find it helpful to include at least 9 weeks of study for each of the two phases of merchandising, salesmanship and advertising.

A last group to mention for the secondary school curriculum may be named the vocational courses. A few schools in this study are now giving attention to photography and cosmetology, and several others favor such offerings. A very few expressed a desire to try barbering, millinery, and cleaning and pressing in connection with the business education program. Should schools be financially unable to set up the necessary equipment and procure trained teachers for such courses, probably the part-time work in businesses of this type in town could be arranged. With 36-weeks' study in photography, 18 weeks to each of cosmetology and barbering, and 9 weeks to each of millinery and cleaning and pressing, a few credits would be available to students who want to learn a trade while in high school and at the same time get the benefit of the academic training that the school affords. Possibly school mortality could be greatly reduced by such a program.

Since this group of subjects is just now coming into notice, no attempt will be made to give the method of presenting them. Should they be made exploratory and tried sufficiently, doubtless they would soon come into their own as a part of the average school curriculum with effective techniques

for their presentation. Certainly trained teachers could not be procured for these courses until they have been offered several years in the secondary schools.

Teachers are being procured for such courses as millinery, photography, and cosmetology, but in many cases the teachers have not had college training--some have not even had the equivalent of high school preparation, yet they are doing an efficient job of teaching these vocational courses. Such a status can easily be changed after a few years of offerings in these courses, for soon the students thus trained will study in college to become teachers of these very courses.

The Curriculum

Secretarial Courses:

- Typewriting
- Shorthand
- Office Practice
  - Secretarial Training
  - Office Machines
  - Filing
  - Business Etiquette
- Business English
  - Spelling
  - Penmanship
  - Business Correspondence

General Courses:

- General Business
  - Occupations
- Business Mathematics
- Bookkeeping

Social Courses:

- Business Law
- Commercial Geography
- Consumer Economics
  - Buymanship

Distributive Courses:

- Merchandising
  - Salesmanship
  - Advertising

Vocational Courses:

- Photography
- Cosmetology
- Barbering
- Millinery
- Cleaning and Pressing

The whole business education curriculum as set up here would allow 16 courses representing 10 credits that high schools could offer the students. Many large systems could

expand sufficiently to include the whole of this suggested program, and smaller schools could draw from it the most useful courses according to their immediate community needs, the school wealth, teaching staff, and student demand. Only a program which is sufficiently flexible to suit all schools seems justifiable.

Since no one set of curricula could possibly fit the needs of all schools of the country, only a general type of organization can be submitted. The scope in any school should be broad enough to allow the program to fit into the general educative processes rather than to be fenced off as a separate entity. The curriculum should include all of the student's educative experiences under control of the school--it is not limited to the classroom. The teacher in co-operation with the students is really the curriculum maker.

The formal curriculum, with its required courses, restricted electives, and few opportunities of free choice is in direct opposition to a functional curriculum. The pattern for a functional curriculum will be found in connection with the life of youth.[10] For this reason, if the business education is to function properly, the various schools will have to ferret out the needs and make the proper adjustment to any offered curriculum which may be in existence.

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[10]National Business Education Outlook, Eighth Yearbook, The Ann Arbor Press, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1942, p. 130.

A study of the occupational adjustments of beginning workers or a study of bewildered youth trying to find their occupational opportunities, will reveal evidence as to the failure of the formal type of curriculum to meet youth needs.[11]

Schools should be willing to break precedent, free themselves from traditional practices, and attempt to solve the curriculum problem in their immediate localities. In regard to this point the following quotation gives some important information:

> The law gives the state board of education authority to determine, in broad outline, the scope of the educational program to be provided in local communities. The board has consistently used its authority to define only the minimum essentials of the curriculum. Every district enjoys wide latitude to exceed the prescribed condition, and to experiment with new fields and methods of instruction.[12]

Learning in the field of business education will be more effective and more closely connected with the imperative needs of life if schools are kept aware of interrelations which formal or conventional subject-matter lines fail to take into account.[13] The presentation of this proposed program is made with the hope that it may be of some assistance to schools in fitting a program to their own needs in business education.

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[11] Loc. cit.

[12] Education for All American Youth, National Educational Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D. C., 1944, pp. 370-371.

[13] Loc. cit.

CHAPTER VI

TEACHER PREPARATION

After the school plant is built and equipped properly for a department of business education, the teacher is the next consideration. Business education, like any other field, in any community can be only as good as its teacher. Failure to recognize this fact has interfered with real progress in many high schools. Before World War II administrators were refusing to accept applications of teachers who had reached the age of forty-five, but at the same time most school men admitted that teachers were at their peak of efficiency at that age. During the war this idea was discarded, and many persons, with or without teaching certificates, were paid rather well to teach in the secondary schools.

Professional Training. Because of municipal poverty, politics, low standards, or official friendships, many schools suffer from business education teachers whose academic rating is below standard. This study of 100 secondary schools in the United States shows that teachers of this type are rapidly decreasing, but not as fast as they probably should. Teacher-training institutions may be able to help this situation, if more rigid requirements are made.

In Table XVI is shown the academic training of 337 teachers who are employed in the 100 secondary schools under consideration in this study.

TABLE XVI

Academic Training of Teachers of Business Education in 100 Secondary Schools in the United States in 1946

States	Number of schools	Number of Teachers Reported in each state	Number of Teachers With majors in business education	Percent with majors
Alabama	2	8	5	62.5
Arizona	3	20	19	95.0
Arkansas	3	6	5	83.3
California	2	7	6	85.7
Colorado	3	12	9	75.0
Connecticut	1	5	5	100.0
Delaware	1	3	3	100.0
Florida	2	3	3	100.0
Georgia	2	9	7	77.8
Idaho	2	4	2	50.0
Illinois	4	16	15	93.8
Indiana	2	6	5	83.3
Iowa	2	8	6	75.0
Kansas	2	4	4	100.0
Kentucky	3	6	6	100.0
Louisiana	3	9	9	100.0
Maine	1	2	2	100.0
Massachusetts	1	2	1	50.0
Maryland	2	7	7	100.0
Michigan	2	7	6	85.7
Minnesota	1	3	1	33.3
Mississippi	2	12	9	75.0
Missouri	3	9	6	66.7
Montana	3	7	7	100.0
Nebraska	2	13	11	84.6
Nevada	2	8	5	62.5
New Hampshire	1	4	4	100.0
New Jersey	1	2	2	100.0
New Mexico	3	5	5	100.0
New York	2	7	7	100.0
North Carolina	2	5	4	80.0
North Dakota	1	3	2	66.7
Ohio	3	3	3	100.0

TABLE XVI (Continued)

Academic Training of Teachers of Business Education in 100 Secondary Schools in the United States in 1946

States	Number of schools	Number of Teachers Reported in each state	Number of Teachers With majors in business education	Percent with majors
Oklahoma	5	17	14	82.4
Oregon	2	3	3	100.0
Pennsylvania	2	5	2	40.0
Rhode Island	1	2	2	100.0
South Carolina	1	2	1	50.0
Tennessee	3	4	4	100.0
Texas	6	30	20	66.7
Utah	2	8	5	62.5
Vermont	2	12	10	83.3
Virginia	1	1	1	100.0
Washington	1	6	4	66.7
West Virginia	1	2	1	50.0
Wisconsin	1	3	2	66.7
Wyoming	3	9	8	88.9
Total	100	337	276	81.9

Only 18 of the 48 states show that all the teachers of business education have majors in the field in which they are teaching. The sampling from Minnesota shows that only 33 1/3 percent of the teachers have majors in business education. Pennsylvania is next lowest in this respect, with only 40 percent of the teachers having majors in business education. Massachusetts, South Carolina, and West Virginia rank third from lowest, having only 50 percent of the teachers with business education majors.

These 100 schools employ 337 teachers, 276 or 81.9 percent of whom have acquired majors in business education.

TABLE XVII

Business-Teacher Training of Instructors in 100 Secondary Schools of the United States in 1946

States	Number of schools	Number of Teachers Reported in each state	Number of Teachers With Business teacher training	Percent teacher training
Alabama	2	8	5	62.5
Arizona	3	20	19	95.0
Arkansas	3	6	5	82.3
California	2	7	3	42.9
Colorado	3	12	8	66.7
Connecticut	1	5	5	100.0
Delaware	1	3	3	100.0
Florida	2	3	3	100.0
Georgia	2	9	5	55.6
Idaho	2	4	2	50.0
Illinois	4	16	8	50.0
Indiana	2	6	6	100.0
Iowa	2	8	4	50.0
Kansas	2	4	1	25.0
Kentucky	3	6	6	100.0
Louisiana	3	9	8	88.9
Maine	1	2	2	100.0
Massachusetts	1	2	2	100.0
Maryland	2	7	6	85.7
Michigan	2	7	2	28.6
Minnesota	1	3	1	33.3
Mississippi	2	12	7	58.3
Missouri	3	7	5	71.4
Montana	3	9	5	55.6
Nebraska	2	13	9	69.2
Nevada	2	8	4	50.0
New Hampshire	1	4	4	100.0
New Jersey	1	2	2	100.0
New Mexico	3	5	5	100.0
New York	2	7	7	100.0
North Carolina	2	7	7	100.0
North Dakota	1	3	3	100.0
Ohio	3	11	2	18.2
Oklahoma	5	17	11	64.8
Oregon	2	3	3	100.0
Pennsylvania	2	5	5	100.0
Rhode Island	1	2	2	100.0
South Carolina	1	2	0	--- -
Tennessee	3	4	3	75.0

TABLE XVII (Continued)

Business-Teacher Training of Instructors in 100 Secondary Schools of the United States in 1946

States	Number of schools	Number of Teachers Reported in each state	Number of Teachers With business-teacher training	Percent teacher training
Texas	6	30	24	80.0
Utah	2	8	8	100.0
Vermont	2	12	6	50.0
Virginia	1	1	1	100.0
Washington	1	6	4	66.7
West Virginia	1	3	3	100.0
Wyoming	3	9	8	88.9
Total	100	337	241	71.5

As shown in Table XVII only 19 of the 48 states show that all teachers of business education in the schools reporting have studied special courses in business-teacher training. The schools reporting from South Carolina show that none of the teachers have had such training.

In more than 50 percent of the states reporting in this study, one important factor of teacher preparation is being overlooked. In-service training which is being given for the business teachers in 15 percent of the 100 schools as shown in Tables VII and XVII is a step forward in remedying this defect of the instruction.

With only 71.5 percent of the 337 teachers of business education in this study having had a special training course in the teaching of subjects in their field, the instruction is suffering to a great extent. The teacher-training institutions

should not only provide wholesome special courses in the field for teachers, but they should also require the prospective teachers to study them sometime during their training period in college.

All the blame for this lack of preparation cannot be placed either on the teacher or the school administrators--some of it must be assumed by the colleges and universities which train the teachers for various fields of work.

An office-machines clerical curriculum, for instance, requires teachers who are skilled, not only in operating the machines involved, but also in presenting this type of training. The same may be said of courses in business organization and management, economics, or salesmanship--they fair badly in the hands of teachers who have had no training in teaching them. Besides the teacher-training in these courses, actual business experience is considered of great importance in the preparation for teaching them.

Ordinarily the preparation of business education teachers requires more time than is normally devoted to the preparation of teachers in general. Business education teachers must have adequate preparation for basic economic understandings, professional education, and occupational experiences and proficiency, as well as a good general education.

Evenden has this to say about the business education teachers' qualifications:

> The teacher should be a well-informed, cultured person: he should have a scholarly mastery of the subject matter he is to teach, and he should have an understanding of the educative process and mastery of the necessary teaching skills appropriate to his field of work and to the age of the students taught.[1]

The business-teacher training program should be designed for professional purposes only, and should not include students who are planning for occupations other than teaching.

In connection with the teacher-training processes, is the following information:

> Many university schools of business and teachers colleges have organized business-teacher training curricula in the belief that it is desirable and possible to train students for teaching and business positions at the same time. Statistics supplied by many institutions show that seldom have such policies been successful in producing many business teachers. In university schools of business graduating hundreds of students a year only a handful of candidates emerge with a desire to teach business subjects.[2]

Seldom is it possible to meet the needs of both interests in the same class, but rarely is it possible to segregate the students who are interested in teaching from those who believe business to be their future work. Some have always thought that these two objectives cannot be achieved side by side, but a special course in methods of teaching the

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[1]E. S. Evenden, "National Survey of Education of Teachers," United States Office of Education Bulletin, No. 10, Volume VI, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1935, p. 75.

[2]The Principles of Business Education, Eighth Yearbook, National Business Teachers Association, The Ann Arbor Press, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1942, p. 93.

several business courses should fit the teachers for their work despite the fact that the subject matter was learned along with students who were interested primarily in fitting themselves for work in the business world.

Another belief is that the schools of education in the colleges and universities do a better job in training the teachers of business education than do specialists in the immediate field. The fact is, neither do a good job, for one knows only the general methods of teaching, and the other knows only the subject matter in the field. The ideal situation is to have an instructor who is qualified in both the field of educational methods of instruction and the specialized field of business education to give the teacher-training course.

Many students, however, study business education with about three things in view: to enter the business world for themselves, to accept a position with a business firm, or to teach courses in the field of business. Here is a place for careful guidance on the part of the institution so that students might center their interests in one channel or direction. Certainly the student who expects to teach should make preparation worthy of the job.

The responsibility of the states is to provide good teacher-training for business education in either state-controlled institutions that now exist, or through the early

establishment of new schools. The business-teacher program should be disigned for professional purposes only, and the selection of candidates for teacher-training should be made on the basis of intelligence, interest, willingness to render service, and a personality and enthusiasm for directing the learning of the students.[3]

Prospective teachers should study a special college course designed for teaching methods in the various business education courses. Lessons should be planned and presented to the other students in the class who pose as the class which he assumes that he is teaching. Each student should be given a copy of the rating sheet shown in Figure 1, and from this the instructor may get the idea of the effectiveness of the teaching as viewed from the students who fill the blanks as the teacher proceeds with the lesson. The rating sheets may be collected at the close of the teaching period and given to the practice teacher that he may know how he was rated in the eyes of those taught; they may then be passed to the instructor who uses them in preparing marks to be given to the student teacher.

The instructor should explain the use of the rating sheet before the lesson is taught. Since the teacher is more accurately judged by those whom he teaches than any other

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[3]Earl P. Strong, The Organization, Administration, and Supervision of Business Education, The Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, 1944, p. 228.

RATING SHEET FOR PRACTICE TEACHING

Name of Instructor_____Final Rating_____

Class_____Subject_____

The instructor is to be rated on each of the factors listed on the form below. The following key is to be used:

5. Excellent (Perfect score--25)
4. Above Average (Score--20)
3. Average (Score--15)
2. Below Average (Score--10)
1. Poor (Score-- 5)

Factors	5	4	3	2	1
1. Appearance a. Poise b. Grooming					
2. Presentation a. Motivation b. Method c. Devices d. Points clinched					
3. Content a. Knowledge of b. Organization c. Aims					
4. Attitudes a. Teacher to class-- sincerity, enthusiasm b. Class to teacher-- attentiveness, interest					
5. Class Atmosphere					
Total Score					

Comments: _____

_____[4]

Figure 1

[4]School of Retailing, New York University, New York City, 1946.

group or individual, the importance of the rating sheet as a means of constructive criticism during the learning processes is paramount.

Another way to insure better teachers is for the state departments of public instruction to modify their certification requirements from time to time. In some schools where a one-teacher department is maintained, the business teacher is expected to have both a broad knowledge of business in general and the necessary training and ability to teach the various subjects. In the larger systems, the teachers may pursue particular lines of specialization, which permits them to teach in only one or two subjects.

Through the George-Dean Act, Federal subsidy has provided salaries and travel expenses for teachers of distributive education--part-time and evening classes for workers employed in distributive occupations. In such cases the state board for vocational education may employ qualified teacher-trainers to conduct classes for such teachers in any part of the state. Teacher-training institutions designated by the state board supervise teacher-training classes on full-time residential basis for employed teachers.[5]

The lawyer pursues a definite course of instruction, gets a diploma certifying his intellectual equipment, and satisfies the requirements of the bar association before he can

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[5]Kenneth B. Haas, Distributive Education, The Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, 1941, p. 206.

practice law. The doctor must qualify under similarly rigid requirements before he is allowed to practice medicine. The term teacher does not signify necessarily any specific or uniform preparation for the work of instructing. The teacher should be no exception to the rule so far as preparation for his life work is concerned.

Since all agree that a college degree is essential to the teacher's qualifications, at least a bachelor's degree in business education should be required of each teacher of business education in the secondary schools. Many excellent teachers, however, do not have degrees of any sort. The efficiency of the teacher is not always comparable to the degree held. Tonne has the following to say in this respect:

> Perhaps most of the criticism of graduate studies is aimed at the type of work required for obtaining higher degrees, not the degrees themselves. A progressive teacher should strive to procure advanced degrees. As long as the doctorate is the highest academic honor, standing, he should attempt to attain it. Administrators should aid their teachers to fulfill such ambitions.[6]

Along with the academic preparation necessary for the teachers of business education should be an effort to become acquainted with the business community which is served. The business community of any school contains a wealth of teaching materials available to the personnel of the business education department of the high school. These materials can be obtained

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[6]Herbert A. Tonne, Business Education, The Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, 1939, p. 316.

easily by a survey of the business community. Business men usually are glad to co-operate in this respect.

In-Service Training. In the event that previous good training has not been available for teachers of business education, an in-service training program may prove helpful.

With no argument against tenure, many teachers have become complacent about their work and fallen into the proverbial "rut" because of it. Many schools are solving this problem of having teachers become self-satisfied about their work by organizing in-service training for them. While in this study only 15 percent of the 100 schools investigated offer an in-service training program, a definite trend seems to be established in that direction. For example, in the Houston Public Schools, Houston, Texas, a program of this sort has been in operation for a few years. The Houston teachers are becoming enthusiastic about meeting their classes of in-service training, and administrators say that noticeable results have come from it. Such a program should be stimulating to teachers who have had ever so much training in teaching methods.

Practical Experience. "In all other fields of vocational education only people who have had successful occupational experience . . . are employed to give certain courses.[7]

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[7]Frederick G. Nichols, Commercial Education in the High School, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York City, 1933, pp. 126-127.

This plan should be adopted for the field of business education, for otherwise it will lag behind other fields of vocational training in its effectiveness. Any teacher who has had some practical experience in the business world can better train those who plan to enter the same type of work.

Not only should teachers obtain practical business experience before entering the profession of business teaching, but also they should have some experience in teaching the several business courses. This requirement, however, must be held only to practice teaching through college and university training courses; this is the only way a teacher can get experience unless some school system is willing to accept him as he is. School boards should be willing to accept their share of the responsibility in giving the new teachers a chance for experience.

Teacher Personality. All the academic training and all the experience that the teacher of business education may accumulate are of little significance unless he has a pleasing personality to accompany them. A study of 92 schools with 927 teachers was made in 1945 in regard to the relative importance of certain factors constituting the employability of college graduates as beginning teachers in the secondary schools. Personality got the highest rating, activities came second, general courses were third, and high marks came last.[8]

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[8]Albert C. Fries, "Employment Factors of Beginning Teachers," The Journal of Business Education, June, 1945, p. 17.

Certainly teacher personality deserves some attention. Students like to meet a teacher with a pleasant smile, a happy countenance, a twinkling eye, a sense of humor, a kind and gentle spirit, and a cheerful and sympathetic attitude. Each teacher should try to possess this all-important quality of human life.

Those who have made a study of personalities have agreed that the intangible characteristics belonging to a person are the chief aspects of his personality. Of the thousands of definitions given for personality in the past few years all are differently constructed. Hoopingarner says personality is "the sum-total of all the person's qualities and characteristics as they act to affect some other people."[9]

The following quotation represents still another definition of personality:

> Personality is our characteristic way of getting those things in life which we feel we need to make us secure and happy. Personality is what we are, what we want to be and can be, and what others believe we are. Personality is made up of all our traits and tendencies, their balance and relations, their expressions, and their reaction of others. Personality is an everyday characteristic. The working together of body, mind, and the soul is what makes the personality.[10]

Dr. L. S. Shaffer defines personality as an individual's habitual tendencies to make certain kinds of adjustments

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[9]Wartime Problems in Business Education, Sixteenth Yearbook, Eastern Commercial Teachers Association, The Norwood Press, 1943, pp. 355-357.

[10]Ruby I. Barham, "Personality in Business," Master's Thesis, The University of Texas, 1940, pp. 16-17.

to life situations.[11] Still another definition of the term is given by Johnson who describes it as of the mind.[12] A broader and deeper definition takes account of the person's whole inner organization, including habits, abilities, attitudes, and ambitions.[13]

Originally, the word personality was derived from the Latin word persona and had reference to the individual's speaking through a false face or mask.[14] Personality must have traits, habits, actions, and appearance, all of which taken together will make an attractive whole that is pleasing to those for whom and with whom the teacher is to work.[15]

A very important aspect of teacher personality is the health. In support of this thought, Reavis and Judd have the following to say:

> As society has become more and more aware of the influence of the teacher on the child, it has tended to increase its demands for higher personal and professional qualifications. The explanation of these increasing demands is the close association of the

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[11]Laurance F. Shaffer, "Educating Personality for Business," The Business Education World, May, 1937, p. 671.

[12]Dorothy M. Johnson, "Personality of Shoe Polish," The Business Education World, April, 1940, p. 684.

[13]Floyd L. Ruch, Psychology and Life, Scott, Foresman and Company, Dallas, Texas, 1941, pp. 451-468.

[14]Louis P. Thorpe, Psychological Foundations of Personality, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York City, 1938, p. 1.

[15]Joseph S. De Brum, "Personality Minus," The Journal of Business Education, April, 1937, p. 11.

> teacher with young people during the formative period of their lives. Whether the teacher wills it or not, he is often regarded as an ideal by his pupils. The influence of his example thus becomes an issue of great importance both to parents and to the social order. High standards of personal conduct are therefore expected of the teacher by the community in which he is employed. These standards are usually regarded not as impositions but as prerequisites of the teaching profession.[16]

The conduct of the teacher is not only a means of his maintaining good health, but it is also a means of lending a wholesome influence on the students for better morals and health. This point of view is aptly stated by Herbert Hoover in the following quotation:

> . . . . The public school teacher cannot live apart; he cannot separate his teaching from his daily walk and conversation. He lives among his pupils during school hours, and among them and their parents all the time. . . . His office, like that of a minister of religion, demands of him an exceptional standard of conduct.[17]

Helen Keller makes clear the fact that kindness and love are essentials in the teacher's personality.[18] So important are these and other phases of teacher personality that the Pratt Institute requires from each instructor for each student a personality impression with a list of weak points,

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[16]William C. Reavis and Charles H. Judd, The Teacher and Educational Administration, Houghton Mifflin Company, Dallas, Texas, 1942, pp. 530-532.

[17]Herbert Hoover, "Education as a National Asset," Proceedings of the National Education Association, Volume LXIV, 1926, pp. 729-730.

[18]Helen A. Keller, The Story of My Life, Grossett & Dunlap, Publishers, New York City, 1902, pp. 38-40.

strong points, and needs. This is done with the hope that each teacher's personality will be strengthened by his efforts to help students improve theirs. The president of Miami University keeps a character and personality record of each student, and a capacity analysis is an art at Carnegie Institute of Technology and the Cincinnati Engineering College. In Minnesota notes are made as to each instructor's aptitudes, kind of students attracted, reputation for teaching, and whether a high or low marker. This information was compiled by a former University student, who a few years later frankly tried to see these instructors as their own students were seeing them. In this study seventy-two instructors were observed at work in more than one hundred summer school classes.[19]

The old theory that teachers are born, not made, has long since been denied. Because of the fact that teachers are what they want to be and what they make themselves be, they are made. The important thing to be remembered, however, is the fact that teachers should move up to a higher standard in personality. Hall-Quest[20] of New York University says sixty percent of the failures in schools result from the teacher personality. Certainly this is a challenge to the teacher to change, refashion, or further develop his personality.

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[19]David E. Berg, Personality Culture by College Faculties, Institute for Public Service, New York City, 1920, p. 8.

[20]Alfred L. Hall-Quest, "Student Failures," Austin American, Austin, Texas, July 15, 1945.

Briggs says the "golden rule" has come to be not only the most satisfactory guide to conduct ever devised but also the most potent stimulus to the development of strong character.[21] The manner in which the teacher deals with the students has much to do with the improvement or the retardation of their personalities. In this connection Struck has given the following:

> Some of the most far-reaching and deepest impressions made on mobile minds are frequently the outgrowth of influences and associations quite independent of the spoken word.[22]

The teacher who honestly wants to rid himself of bad habits and build for better ones can improve his own personality.[23] When such desirable qualities as poise, self-confidence, kindly tolerance, gracious thoughtfulness, dependability, initiative, self-expression, and genial cordiality become the equipment of the teacher, he finds them to be of greater value than his technical skills are, regardless of how skillful they may be.[24]

Rating scales, questionnaires, and testimonials are a few of the devices for measuring the more intangible traits

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[21]Thomas H. Briggs, Improving Instruction, The Macmillan Company, New York City, 1938, pp. 217-219.

[22]F. Theodore Struck, Creative Teaching, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York City, 1938, p. 49.

[23]Ray Abrams, Business Behavior, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, 1941, pp. 134-135.

[24]Annie S. Greenwood, "P. Q. More Important Than I. Q.," The Business Education World, June, 1939, p. 788.

of personality, and the rating scales are filled by those who know the person well enough to be able to judge his traits.

Qualities	High	Average	Low
1. Personal Grooming			
2. Dependability			
3. Punctuality			
4. Courtesy			
5. Responsibility			
6. Intellect			
7. Disposition			
8. Friendliness			
9. Honesty			
10. Initiative			
11. Originality			
12. Health			
13. Posture			
14. Leadership			

Figure 2--Personality Chart

An estimate can be realized by filling the chart in Figure 2 as accurately as possible. This method is thought to be one of the fair means of rating the personality.[25]

[25]Freshman and Sophomore Classes, Baring High School, Baring Missouri, "Personality Development," The Balance Sheet, November, 1938, p. 124.

The common phrase "building a personality," is a misnomer. Personality is more like a river than it is a sturcture--it flows continuously. Dr. Eby of the School of Education at The University of Texas says that a person has to organize his personality.

To be a real person, an individual must achieve a high degree of unity within himself--he must become an integrated person. A fully matured personality is the most significant of all forms of integration, and to achieve it is difficult. The criterion of successful personal living is somehow to pass from mere multiple selves into the poise, balance, and cohesion of a unified personality.[26]

Some schools offer courses in personality development, but most teachers have not had an opportunity to study such a course before beginning to teach one. With diligent effort the teacher can, however, improve his personality greatly.

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[26]Harry Emerson Fosdick, On Being a Real Person, Harper & Brothers, Publishers, New York City, 1943, pp. 27-35.

CHAPTER VII

SECRETARIAL COURSES

Since the qualifications for secretarial employees vary somewhat in the different offices, a program is offered which qualifies the prospective secretary to meet the minimum requirements at least. Wanous has the following to say concerning the qualifications and duties of the secretary:

> The responsibilities she handles with expert precision are so varied that it is almost impossible to record the duties performed, the knowledges and skills involved, and the personal qualifications exhibited.[1]

The office secretary must have technical ability, some knowledge of office procedure, efficient work habits, desirable personal qualities, ability to use good English, and a general background of academic training. Certainly the technical skills are basic for secretarial equipment, and the method of presenting the skill courses will be treated first.

Typewriting. About seventy years ago at a meeting in a hotel room in Central New York State the typewriting industry was begun in America. G. L. Sholes in 1866, invented the machine, but being too timid to present his case, sent two friends

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[1]S. J. Wanous, Modern Secretarial Training, The Ronald Press Company, New York City, 1938, p. 3.

with his crude working model to enlist the support of the famous sewing machine and farm implement makers, Remington and Sons of Ilion, New York. The officials of this company instantly realized the value of the idea. One of them said with a startling foresight: "Here's an idea which will revolutionize business!"[2] His prophesy has long since come true.

The invention of the typewriter mechanized writing and assisted in the expansion of industry by offering to business people a better means of communication.

Because of the scientific nature of typewriting, the methods of teaching began to evolve, and numerous typewriting textbooks have been written that set forth the materials to be studied for the many different types of machines.[3]

Twenty-five years ago touch typewriting was practically unheard of, and like other radical departures from the customary procedure, the modern method of the touch system had trouble in vindicating itself against indifference and prejudice. Teaching methods were of little use under the old system of typewriting, but now that touch typewriting has come into its own, a need for trained teachers and efficient methods of teaching are recognized.

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[2]Edwin G. Knepper, History of Business Education in the United States, Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, 1941, pp. 54-69.

[3]Jay Wilson Miller, Methods in Commercial Teaching, South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, Ohio, 1925, p. 288.

Formerly typewriting was little taught, and even today in mnay schools a trained teacher is not employed for typewriting. Students have been presented with a typewriter and a manual and allowed to sit before the machine and work out their own destiny. Many trained teachers simply make a few explanations about the manipulation of the parts of the machine and then take their seats and check papers the rest of the term. In this way students can only blunder along, acquiring habits that may be either good or bad. In most schools today, however, conscientious and intelligent teaching is being done in typewriting.

The teacher of typewriting himself need not maintain a high speed record, but he should be able to demonstrate good technique in all phases of the work. The ideal teacher is the one who is enthusiastic about his work and who can inspire students to learn to type with accuracy and speed.

The typing student should, first of all, be interested in his work; he should have good eyesight, good hearing, normal arms, hands and fingers, and enough educational background to follow his teacher's instructions and to catch the sense of the copy which he types.

Regarding the class as a whole, sometimes the teacher can't see his class because of the pupils. The teacher should take stock, preferably before instruction begins, to note the physical and educational qualifications of the pupils. The

better plan for the physically handicapped is to group them in a separate class, if possible, because of the extra attention needed for the training suitable to their needs. The teachers who are confronted with the physically handicapped students such as those having missing fingers, a hand, or arm should acquaint themselves with recent experiments in teaching typewriting to the handicapped.

The teaching of typewriting is always an individual process, but for the average pupil standardized techniques are available. Bartley says he is convinced that no "cut and dried" method can be presented for the handicapped--that any one plan for the right hand and another for the left may prove as effective as any other plans.[4] Still another method would apply where fingers from either or both hands are missing.

Bellamy says that the teacher must work out his own method from the heyboard after carefully observing that with which he has to work in the handicapped student. The loss of either hand or fingers on either or both calls for extra reaches, so that any plan may have to be revised many times before it is ready to try with the student.[5] Bellamy also says:

> Persons who have lost fingers or a hand have learned to type; it can still be done, and it will

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[4]Kate M. Bartley, "The One-Hand Typist," The Balance Sheet, November, 1945, pp. 141-142.

[5]Zita C. Bellamy, "Teaching Typewriting to Those Who Have Lost Fingers of a Hand," The Balance Sheet, March, 1945, pp. 244-288.

> be done. Sell your students on that idea. Inspire them to work until they have achieved, and help them learn by giving the best instruction of which you are capable.[6]

Students with impaired hearing and poor eyesight should be seated in the most suitable locations in the room for the purpose of their detecting more easily the difficulties they may have in acquiring correct posture, position at the typewriting table or desk, and the method of manipulating the machine.

The number of students to be put in one class depends somewhat upon the personality, resourcefulness, and power of the teacher. Ordinarily 30 students for any classroom are enough, but many teachers of typewriting have been successful with a much greater number. Available equipment will certainly limit the size of the class. The safe thing to do is to limit the typing room to 36 machines so that the teacher pupil-load for any one class will be within bounds. The acquisition of correct fingering habits necessitates constant watching on the part of the teacher, and this cannot be done by one teacher with a group of 60 or more students.[7]

If open-top tables are used, the students should be trained from the outset to place the machine covers on the backs of their chairs or fold them neatly and place them on

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[6]Loc. cit.

[7]Miller, op. cit., p. 291.

the ledge of the chair just under the seat at the beginning of the period and replace them at the end of the period. All chairs should be pushed up to the tables at the close of the class period, and all scrap paper cleared away from the desks or table before the students leave the room.

From an adjustable typewriter stand at the front of the room and in plain view of all the class the teacher should demonstrate the manipulation of the carriage release keys, the sitting posture, the position of the feet, and demonstrate the position of the hands and fingers before the students place their hands on the machine.

After a careful explanation of the center point on the typewriter scale, the position of the paper guide, and the location of the marginal stops for a 65-space line centered on the standard sheet of typewriting paper, the teacher, is ready to begin a drill on the carriage throw. The process of having the students to release the carriages to the left with either hand and return them until they can perform the operation quickly and smoothly is the first step. Drill on correct form of paper insertion comes next. The entire class may be guided in unison and by count throughout the steps necessary to twirl the paper into the machine, release it, and proceed as before until all are able to do it quickly and easily. From this point the teacher must be on his toes and on strict guard for several weeks until all students have formed correct habits

in every detail of the work. Other parts of the machine and their use should be taught one by one as the need arises. The name of the machine part means little to the student until he knows its use.

Undoubtedly much room for improvement in the teaching of typewriting exists or more students would be trained to produce copy that is usable. Many teachers are giving instruction in typewriting only because they can type forty or fifty words a minute--many of them give no consideration to the method of presenting the course. Typewriting, a skill course, is as difficult to teach well as any course offered. In this respect, McGill says:

> Typewriting is not the easiest course in the business curriculum to teach, as many people think; instead it is one of the most difficult courses to teach. We should never be content with the methods nor the quality of instruction in our typewriting classes.[8]

To avoid the long hours of grief connected with correcting bad habits as well as the possibility that they will never be corrected, the teacher's job is to see that they are not formed in the first place. Many students come to good typing teachers after their bad habits have been formed, but this, bad as it is, can hardly be comparable to the distress connected with the fact that his own students get off to a poor start.

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[8]Esby C. McGill, "Typewriting Error Analysis," The Balance Sheet, October, 1945, p. 62.

The most difficult point which the typewriting teacher encounters is that of training students to do touch typing from the outset. The teacher should watch carefully from the first stroke the students are allowed to make to see that they have their eyes fixed on the character on the blackboard or chart that they are typing. A few teachers disagree with strict adherence to this rule, but either they have not taught touch typewriting or they aren't concerned about the results.

Using blinded keyboards and wall charts, the training process should begin with the fore finger on each hand and gradually break in the new ones as the students are able to progress. By the time the use of all fingers has been employed the fingering should be correct and the keyboard practically memorized. This is a slower process for some students than it is for others. Unless the student is somewhat ambidexterous and has good co-ordination in mind and body, he must go slowly enough to develop the use of his hands and fingers along with the proper touch. To assist the students in the proper rhythm of touch, selected phonograph records could be used for a short period of time and at varying intervals until the students are under way. Much valuable time can be wasted in providing rhythm helps, but music is wholesome and need not be given for more than two or three minutes at a time.

After about six weeks of typing, carriage throw drills may be given in which the student may see how he begins to gain

a few strokes in the typing time, and after about 12 weeks speed drills or tests may begin.

For students to know the keyboard of a typewriter is not enough. He must be able to show fair speed and accuracy in the work he turns out. Neither are these enough--he must also be able to place material on the page in attractive form. Many teachers of typewriting never offer any sort of explanation as to form nor exact any definite placement of work on the paper. A piece of typed copy should adhere fairly well to the artistic pattern of location.

Careful instruction should be given to tabulation, characters not found on the keyboard, legal forms, stenciling, correct letter structure, and manuscript copy. The students should be furnished personal and business letter guides and a manuscript copy guide. At this point instructions on the proper method of erasing should be taught. In order that the type be kept clean, erasing should be done after the carriage is released full distance to the right or left so that the erasure filings will fall off on the table instead of the type faces.

Good housekeeping must be rigidly emphasized. Students should be instructed in the quiet, easy method of releasing the paper from the machine in a manner that prevents the possibility of tearing it. All waste paper should be kept in straight form and neatly tucked away underneath the other

materials. These sheets may be utilized in the following day's drill, thus avoiding waste of paper. The main point, however, is to avoid the collecting of rumpled paper around the machines and on the floor. The teacher must have his students co-operate in the housekeeping procedure. A clean, orderly house is conducive to good work. Should machines need repairs, a typewriter mechanic should be called in, but the students should be taught to render such services as proper care of the machine, cleaning the type, changing the ribbons, and the careful handling of machine parts.

Each student should be required to proof read each paper he hands to the teacher who accepts it as correctly checked and passes it back to him immediately after scoring it. "If the teacher tries to correct all papers, he will find himself burdened with a great deal of clerical work."[9] Teachers may check a sampling of the students' work occasionally when time permits in order to detect dishonesty. When the student's budget of work is complete, the teacher records his score for the budget and passes it back to him. In this way the teacher keeps up with his work, no papers collect on his desk to be passed out, and responsibility is definitely placed upon the student to care for his finished work. Students should have the advantage of a scored paper as soon as it is

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[9]E. G. Blackstone and S. L. Smith, Improvement of Instruction in Typewriting, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York City, 1945, p. 260.

completed to prevent the recurrence of errors in form. The teacher can easily keep up with scoring by passing through the aisles to the desks of the students. Errors in the form of the work should be pointed out at the time they are made.

Any good manual will serve as a guide for both teachers and students, providing drills and exercises sufficiently to determine the correct technique and to develop speed and accuracy are included. The teacher should strive to have his students at ease during their early practice--he should conduct drills carefully, and take up a sampling of the work occasionally for critical observance. For instance, after the students have spent some time on the various drills, technique practices, and reconstruction practices, the exercise of the lesson should be done for handing in to the teacher. The fact that a student is allowed to practice, knowing that the practice sheet goes ungraded, causes him to feel free from any nervous tension which might otherwise slow his program of progress and mar his chances to develop an easy, snatch, speedy stroke. After sufficient practice the student gains confidence to such an extent that he usually produces a neat, accurate copy of the exercise at hand. After the keyboard is completely mastered and a fair rate of speed developed any material may be handed the student to do.

Reproduction of all exercises in a textbook as formal work to be typed perfectly is worthless. In such procedure,

the student is reproducing the exercise without thinking of, much less originating, improving, or fixing the mental responses and motion techniques for which the exercises were created. Common sense, therefore, declares that such exercises should be used either as the basis of intelligently guided, individualized practice or be omitted.

The amount of time for drills, and the types of drills to give, as well as the manner in which to give them are to be left to the discretion of the teacher. All students and all classes do not progress exactly the same, and remedial drill must be chosen to suit the case.

Many different forms of finger gymnastics are ever helpful. Muscles of the wrists and arms become tense and grow tired more easily in the beginning period of training than in later processes, but to drop the arms and hands to the side for a moment helps to relax the taut muscles.

Before attempting any new phase of typing, or before beginning any practice period or speed test, a warm-up is necessary. The expert's home-position key rhythm drill, a;sldkfjghfjdksla;, which should begin in the first few lessons, is good for this purpose.[10] Except in the first lessons, the warm-up drill should be rather short--probably five minutes. The pupils should be trained to begin drill work on their own

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[10]Harold H. Smith, "Lesson Planning in Typewriting," How to Teach Typewriting, The Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, 1935, p. 127.

initiative as soon as they enter the classroom. Not a moment should be idly spent in the typing class by either teacher or pupils.

Five-minute speed tests at the beginning of each class period promotes interest, for students like to watch their own progress in speed and accuracy. Each day's speed should be recorded and the student should be given credit for the highest record he can muster at any time during the term. Formal testing may be given from time to time, but rarely does any definite good result from it. In this connection Andruss has the following to say:

> The value of formal or informal tests depends upon how much information they provide as to the status of the learner's skill. Since all skills include the factors of speed, accuracy, and fluency, good tests will throw as much light as possible upon each of these factors.[11]

More importance should be given to what students can do with typewriting than to what they know about it. If the teacher has taught well, the results will be reflected in the type of work received from the students and the net speed they acquire. With strict scoring of each piece of work turned in by the students, the daily class period becomes a test. The students should form the habit of correct form, spacing, endorsing, and so on from the outset, and each error should be penalized at the moment for the benefit of the student himself.

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[11]Harvey A. Andruss, Better Business Education, The Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, 1942, p. 147.

The teacher should not assume that the typewriting lesson can be taught effectively without careful planning. Even after years of experience, some teachers find carefully written lesson plans helpful.

> For an experienced teacher, a written lesson plan is not essential; however, it should also be remembered that the mere act of preparing a written plan tends to organize the lesson in the teacher's mind, and this is desirable for both experienced and inexperienced teachers. Even the experienced teacher who feels that a written plan is unnecessary should have a mental plan of what is to be done and how it is to be done.[12]

Many evils connected with the teaching of typewriting can be overcome by careful planning. The proper motivation of the lesson is of untold value--the interest of the high school student must be caught before teaching can proceed with effect. Failure to have a plan for reaching a definite objective in each day's work may result in disorder, haphazard work, and a hard day for both the teacher and students.

The teacher who works out a few lesson plans of this type will soon come to make his plans mentally for each class he teaches. Once the teacher acquires the general procedure of conducting a lesson effectively, he no longer has to write all his plans. Every teacher finds value in making a preview of any lesson he is to teach regardless of how many times he has gone over the same material before.

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[12] Methods of Teaching Commercial Subjects, Monograph 43, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, June, 1939, p. 6.

Space will not permit a presentation of typical lesson plans for all phases of this course nor for all secretarial courses. Perhaps the best way to illustrate practical lesson planning is to suggest one definite plan for teaching a major topic in typewriting, which can be used as a basis for preparing a plan for any lesson.

Careful lesson planning has a two-fold purpose; it serves to better prepare the teacher in the content of the lesson as well as to outline a procedure which will work for effectiveness in the presentation of the lesson.

LESSON PLAN ON TABULATION

Aim

The purpose of this lesson is to introduce the fundamentals of tabulation and the method of setting the typewriter for tabulation work.

Content	Method
Apperceptive Basis	
1. Most all of the students will have had some use for the tabular key.	1. How many of you have made use of the tabular key before?
2. Students will have used the tabular key for paragraph indention.	2. In what instance did you use the tabular key?
Preparation	
The teacher has some samples of tabulation, good and bad, to exhibit to the class.	
1. The samples are shown to the class and their response observed.	1. What comments or criticisms do you have to make about these samples?

Motivation

1. After a few minutes of work in setting the machine, this work can be done in perfect columnar form.	1. Have you ever wondered how the typewriter could be set to turn out neat, well-spaced columns of words, letters, or figures?

Not only in this class, but also when you go out "on the job," you will be asked to type some tabulated material; and you will certainly want to know how to go about it the quikest and most effective way.

Presentation

The teacher writes two columns of 12 words each on the blackboard from which he presents his lesson. The longest words in the columns have 13 and 12 letters respectively.

1. Clearing the machine of all tabular and marginal stops.	1. Release the marginal stops to the extreme right and left. Release the carriages to the left, depress the tabular-clear key, and pull the carriage back to the right.
2. Determining the horizontal placement of the columns.	2. Count the number of spaces required for the longest word in each column. After subtracting the sum of these from 85, the number of strokes possible on the standard sheet of typewriting paper, divide the remainder by three to determine the number of spaces to allow for the three blank columns.
3. Setting the left marginal stop for the left-hand column and a tabular key for the right-hand column.	3. The left margin is set on 20, and the tabular stop is set on 53. Taking from 85 the sum of 13 and 12 and dividing the result by 3 gives 20, the left marginal stop.

	Adding 20, 13, and 20 gives 53 for the tabular stop.
4. Determining the vertical placement.	4. Considering single spacing and a half sheet for the exercise, subtract 12 from 33, the number of possible lines on a half sheet, and divide the result into as nearly equal parts as possible. The division is 10 and 11. Using the smaller of the two parts, begin on the 10th line from the top.
5. Each student sets his machine according to the calculations.	5. Can you demonstrate what you have learned by setting your machine correctly?
6. Typing the material.	6. With the carriages to the right, type the first word in the left column. Now depress the tabular bar or key, holding it momentarily while the carriage slides to the tabular stop which has been set. Type the first word in the next column and throw the carriage. Keep this process up until the exercise is completed.

Summary

1. Clearing the machine of all tabular and marginal stops.	1. What is the first step in setting up the typewriter for tabulation?
2. Determining the vertical and horizontal placement	2. What are the next two steps?

3. The left marginal stop and the tabular stops are set.	3. What is done next?
4. Typing the material.	4. What is the last operation?

Application

Mimeographed copies with three columns of double-spaced material are handed to the students to do and hand in by the end of the period.

Beaumont	New York City	Chicago
Houston	Albany	Indianapolis
San Antonio	Poughkeepsie	New Orleans
Fort Worth	Brooklyn	San Francisco
Dallas	Washington	Reno
Amarillo	Baltimore	Salt Lake City
Wichita Falls	Philadelphia	Kansas City
El Paso	Boston	Nashville
Waco	Oklahoma City	Fayetteville

Assignment

Begin in the typing manual with the first budget on tabulation, and continue the work each class meeting until completed.

Since Table XV, page 30, of this thesis shows that 76 percent of the 100 schools reporting now make use of visual aids in teaching, the teacher should familiarize himself with the possibilities in typewriting.

Many teachers believe the only form of visual aids is the motion picture, but nothing could be farther from the truth. Many visual materials can be supplied to supplement lessons in typewriting.

Harry Q. Packer says the blackboard is one of the most neglected visual aids in the classroom.[13] The blackboard is

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[13]Harry Q. Packer, "Visual Aids in Business Education," The Balance Sheet, March, 1946, p. 281.

similar to the store window--it should be clean, neat, and made to display a few well-chosen points. Other visual aid materials are the bulletin board, manuals, posters, charts, diagrams, specimens, still pictures, opaque projectors, slides, stripfilm, and motion pictures.

Teachers can soon learn to use audio-visual aids. This is one of the best methods of aiding instruction if the school can afford the outlay of equipment. Over 50 picture-sound illustrations of on-the-job techniques and procedures used by the successful secretary in taking dictation and transcribing are now available.

Sister Mary Louis, a teacher at the Central High School, Toledo, Ohio, and summer session instructor at DeSales College in Toledo has prepared something new for the use of typewriting instructors. The Louis Hand-Keyboard Typing Wall Chart, operated by the use of pivotal letter disks. The movable letters make it possible to show only those characters which are needed during the class period in the presentation of the keyboard. The reversible letters are equally suitable for use in the letter, the word, and the sentence approach. According to Sister Mary Louis, the chart assures the mastery of all the letters and characters on the keyboard in less than half the time that is ordinarily required.[14] Schools would do well to procure this chart for use in the business department.

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[14] The Balance Sheet, April, 1940, p. 374.

Shorthand.-The term shorthand is a common English word used for any system of writing sufficiently brief to enable a writer to keep pace with human utterance. The hand of the average trained shorthand writer is capable of executing about 450 pen motions a minute. Modern systems of shorthand require an average of about 3 motions to the word.

The origin of shorthand is clouded with mystery. It dates back to the first century B. C. in the Roman Empire. Marcus Tiro, a slave to Cicero's father, was educated on equal terms with Cicero himself; and he later became the confidential secretary of Cicero. Tiro's system was made up of an extensive list of abbreviations. The system was used principally in the Roman churches. All of the Roman Emperor's employed shorthand writers, and Titus and Caesar attempted to learn it themselves.

Modern shorthand dates its birth from 1588, when Dr. Timothy Dwight produced a system which he dedicated to Queen Elizabeth. The system was a total failure as a prospective method of writing. John Willis 14 years later produced a system in which an acute angle opening downward represented a, opening to the right it represented e, and opening to the left it represented i or g. Of the early systems of shorthand, Cartwright produced one which was much in advance of the others and which he called semography. This was done in 1642. A copy of the work is now in the British museum. In 1672,

William Mason, a teacher of shorthand, produced his first work entitled A Pen Plucked from an Eagle's Wing. From the time of Mason's work to 1767, some 50 different systems made their appearance. John Byrom in 1715, made a great contribution to shorthand. Byrom went to France to study medicine, but became fascinated with the study of shorthand and founded the first Shorthand Association. In 1780, Samuel Taylor invented a system of shorthand that was written according to sound.

The next notable landmark in the development of the art of shorthand was the invention of Isaac Pitman of Bath, England, in 1837. From the time of Taylor to that of Pitman 200 systems came into existence. Pitman was a student of Taylor, and after 1840, he introduced some phrasing in shorthand.

Many other systems of shorthand have been produced from time to time, but the system introduced by John Robert Gregg and published in Liverpool, England, in 1888, is the one most widely used today. Gregg's system was introduced into America in 1893, and about 92 percent of the American schools offering shorthand use Gregg's system. Rosebery says:

> I do not believe that within a century correspondence will be carried on except in some form of shorthand. I regard this as a certainty, because I believe that the stress and pressure of life will make it absolutely necessary whether we wish it or not.[15]

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[15] The New International Encyclopedia, Second Edition, Volume XXI, Dodd, Mead and Company, New York City, 1930, pp. 43-48.

Machine shorthand has come into use during the last quarter of the nineteenth century. The Anderson, the Stenograph, the stynotype, and the National have been the most successful of this type of shorthand. Much time and money are being spent in an effort to develop the machine shorthand in the present day.[16]

Now that the secondary schools generally are all of one accord that the Gregg system of shorthand is the one to be taught, the next consideration is the method of teaching it. Up and down the country teachers are involved in a controversy concerning the two well-known methods of teaching Gregg Shorthand--the anniversary and the functional.

Some of the most able and successful modern-day teachers of shorthand teach strictly the functional method, others adhere just as rigidly to the anniversary approach. Under the anniversary method, the students are allowed not only to read shorthand but also to write the shorthand outlined for words or phrases strictly by sound from the outset. The functional begins with the reading approach only. With all effort devoted to reading the student's mind is not divided between reading and writing as in the anniversary procedure. The contention for this method is shown in the following quotation:

> By allowing students to concentrate on one thing--reading--we have greatly simplified the learning process and made it more pleasurable; and the student's time

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[16] *Loc. cit.*

> cannot be spent economically and profitably on writing until, by reading, he has stocked his mind with material for writing practice.[17]

Many contend that the best stenographers are the ones with the largest picture gallery of shorthand outlines in their minds, but others are just as sure that early writing of these outlines doesn't hinder the memorization but rather enhances it to the extent that the habit of writing and the memorizing of outlines work hand in hand, each a help to the other.

The functional approach assumes that only reading is done for five weeks--many believe three weeks are sufficient--before writing begins. No rules are taught in the functional approach to shorthand, but the anniversary method adheres to hard and fast rules for mastery. Rules seem to have little bearing on the learning processes. The rule doesn't beget understanding, rather understanding begets the rule.

A few of the very best teachers have taken another position in the matter of teaching shorthand. They have drawn from both methods what seems to them to be best for the particular students at hand. A bit of single writing the first week will spice the program and couldn't possibly destroy the student's chance for success. The better plan, however, is to lay stress on building facility on how to study shorthand and how to read the outlines fluently throughout the course. The

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[17]Helen Frankland, "A Critique of the Functional Method," National Commercial Teachers Federation, Detroit, 1936, p. 205.

writing must necessarily begin with simple stroking and build up gradually the facility needed for the more intricate forms.

Since the foundation material on which the system is based is the brief and special forms, much effort should go into the memorization and writing of them. Some classes will advance with more ease than others, and simple dictation may begin soon after writing is under way. Students are encouraged by knowing that they are able to take day by day what the test of dictation includes. To merely read shorthand outlines for five weeks lends little incentive for making the effort that is necessary to really benefit. The teacher should always proceed by the new functional method, but always be willing to give impetus to his program by using any worthy device coming from another source.

No conflicting principles should exist among the several teachers in the same school. All methods of presentation, all assignments, tests, and other requirements should be worked out ahead and followed by all teachers as nearly as possible.

The blackboard is the chief visual aid in teaching shorthand. The first essential is that of establishing a visual impression of the outline used for a given sound. The teacher should write the new forms for each lesson on the board and then drill the students by having them call the outline in unison to which he points until all are fairly well learned. Turn about in reading parts of the lesson should be given the

students, and writing should follow with perhaps some dictation at the end of the period.

In order to give students the best advantage for the writing of shorthand, tables of correct height should be provided for the classroom. Writing in place while reading the shorthand plate notes is helpful in accustoming the student to the motion and speed involved as well as to the shaping of the various outlines.

The home study should include reading the lesson by use of the key until the student can read it easily and rapidly without the aid of the key. The lesson should be written at least once each day after writing has begun.

Much practice in both reading and writing are necessary. Many students have an aversion to practice; they feel that once they grasp the essentials the purpose is accomplished. Janet K. Gregg offers the following in favor of practice as a means of developing skill:

> To write shorthand requires a combination of mental activity and manual skill. Skill is developed by practice, and practice means the development of skill through habit, differing somewhat from experience, which is the development of skill through knowledge. Hence the student gains experience with shorthand when he is studying the theory of the subject, and he gains practice by writing again and again that which is already familiar to him.[18]

Dictation should be timed and the rate of speed told

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[18]Janet K. Gregg, "Rhythm in Your Writing," The Gregg Writer, Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, November, 1944, p. 124.

the student. He should be called on occasionally to read his notes back as a test of legibility, accuracy, and speed.

Good penmanship is essential to good shorthand. Students should be taught to write shorthand with a fountain pen because the point of a pencil is made of graphite which prevents its moving over the paper as easily as the pen lubricated with ink. The writing point of the pen is always the same, but the pencil continually wears down to give a broadened line. The use of the pen is less detrimental to health. Ink notes are well defined and stand out, and they cause less of the usual eye strain--consequently, less strain on the whole system. Pencil notes blur and are hard to read. The cap is usually removed from the pen to make lighter the stroking and the weight to carry in the hand and fingers. The only objection to the use of the pen has been the probability of running out of ink at the wrong time. This objection has been rather well eliminated by the manufacturers of a pen that writes for two years without refilling. Waste motion is eliminated if the student is trained to use the pen well from the start, and smooth outlines with quick get-away finishing strokes result from such procedure.

Transcription on the typewriter may begin with the second half of the year's work. Students need much practice in transcription, for even though they are speedy typists, their transcripts may show an apostrophe on the wrong side of

an s, a comma fault, or tran for train. Transcription is a fusion of at least three skills--shorthand, typewriting, and English.[19]

Gregg functional shorthand methods are so worked out that the teacher has little planning to do, and this is one of the chief reasons for using the method. Good lesson plans are a necessity for any course, but the teacher rarely has the time to prepare them as efficiently as are the ones prepared in functional shorthand. With this time saver for the teachers, plenty of supplementary reading, much drill, and enthusiastic teaching of shorthand, the course can be made pleasant and profitable to the student.

Office Practice. The aim of the office practice course is to develop in the student the following:

1. A general knowledge of business and office organization from the point of view of the office worker.

2. A reasonable skill in the operation of the more widely used office machines and a knowledge of their place in the business office.

3. A thorough going knowledge of filing techniques and methods.

4. A knowledge of the work of the various general service and special departments of the business office with special emphasis on the office routine, business forms, reference materials, and special equipment used by each.

5. A complete understanding and appreciation of the personnel problems of the business office with special reference to the employment and training of office workers and to the problems of personality and ethics.

With this aim which Agnew[20] recommends well in mind the teacher can organize an effective course in office practice.

One phase of the office practice course is that of secretarial training. It involves the practical use of stenographic skill, which is a combination of shorthand, typewriting, and transcribing skill. The major purpose of this course, therefore, is to build on the foundations already laid; to give opportunity for students to apply knowledge, skills, and personality traits as if they were actually engaged in a business office.[21]

Just when secretaries originated no one seems to know. The art of writing shorthand, for example, was taught and practiced long before the birth of Christ,[22] and some of the functions of secretaries originated long ago. Possibly the trait of diplomatically bossing the boss, however, developed comparatively recently, but Doutt says in this connection:

> While it is surprising to trace back through history the development of the secretary and of secretarial work, it is equally illuminating to analyze the position of the secretary today. The past twenty or thirty years have transformed both tool and techniques

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[20]Peter L. Agnew, Principles and Problems of Office Practice, Burroughs Adding Machines Company, Detroit, 1938, p. 1.

[21]John Robert Gregg, Applied Secretarial Practice, Second Edition, The Gregg Publishing Company, Chicago, 1941, p. 1.

[22]Howard M. Doutt, Secretarial Science, Richard D. Irwin, Inc., Chicago, 1942, p. 3.

> so that the modern private secretary, while standing in much the same relation to the employer as did the ancient, is both literally and figuratively living in a different world.[23]

In view of this belief the teacher should select a text in which students may assume they are employed by an office manager in the main office of a modern business or corporation. Through the study the teacher may transfer the students to other departments and branches of the corporation so that by the end of the course they will have a fairly general understanding of the secretarial duties of all other major departments of the corporation.

Most beginners go through a very grave breaking-in period when they get their first job, and some may lose their jobs because they are not able to fit readily into the routine. For this reason teachers should realize that students who have had an excellent course in office practice which stresses secretarial training are more fortunate than they who have not had such training.[24]

In order for the school--particularly the small school--to have more types of office machines among the number alloted to the department, a rotating system of instruction may be used. This gives each student in the class a chance to use each type of machine sufficiently long to become thoroughly acquainted with its operation. Instruction is simple--each

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[23] Ibid., p. 16

[24] Gregg, op. cit., p. 2.

student practices with the aid of manuals, job sheets, or with practice sets. Formerly only the typewriter was in general use, but now all types of machines are used including the accounting record and statistical reports which are vital to the management of the business.

The course is flexible and can be mechanized gradually, if necessary, as funds permit. Interest in the subject is enhanced right from the start, regardless of the amount of equipment available. Students like to work with machines and see how easy it is to get correct answers.[25]

The office practice course does not do away with business mathematics; it merely improves the learning in arithmetic. A knowledge of each improves the other.

To promote interest, outside material such as the "Story of Figures," illustrated folders, collateral reading, case studies, and mechanical methods in accounting systems may be used. Another point of interest is a visit to business offices. The large concerns welcome classes of students to see their office staffs in actual operation on various tasks, and they usually provide a guide to explain the work during the visit.

Schools have been helping thousands to qualify for typing jobs, but today business demands more. Employees must be trained in the operation and use of figuring machines. The

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[25]Instruction Projects in Office Machines, A Manual in Curriculum Construction, Burroughs Adding Machine Company, Detroit, 1945, p. 13.

schools and their business education teachers are squarely up against the problem of meeting this demand.

Practical training may be given the secretarial students by assigning them to the heads of departments, or to the principal's office to do actual work for them. These heads may report on the work done from time to time in order that the teachers may know how well the training has fitted the students for the job.[26]

In the course in office practice, a unit on filing should be included. Systematic arrangement of correspondence, records, and reports in special storage places always has been an essential function in business organization. The need for filing has increased with the growth of business until it is practically universal. In verification of this fact, Bassett and Agnew say:

> Filing is the process of arranging and storing materials systematically so that they can be located easily when they are needed. Because a filing system provides a permanent and safe place for all materials related to the business affairs of a firm or an individual, the files are, in a sense, the "memory" of that firm or individual. Since it is impossible for any one person or group of persons to remember all the details of all the events that have taken place during an extended period of time, the art of filing has been developed to meet this need and has become of great importance in modern business.[27]

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[26] Loc. cit.

[27] E. D. Bassett and Peter L. Agnew, Business Filing, South-Western Publishing Compnay, Dallas, Texas, 1943, p. 1

Teachers should attempt to procure complete model filing sets for their classes. Most schools offer the alphabetic, numeric, and geographical systems of filing. Some of the larger systems give alphabetic, variadex, triple check, automatic, geographic, subject, and Russell Sourdex systems.

Interest in filing may be gained by informing students that the systems which they are learning are actually used in business every day; that is, if they will learn these systems, they will be able to acquaint themselves with other related systems in a very short time. The students like to go through the practice processes of filing much more than just studying about it from a text or the teacher's lecture.

The teacher should introduce each new system by completely explaining the file arrangement; then the teacher files a few of the model letters with the students. Much individual attention is needed to see that each student understands each method given. After each method is completed, the teacher should check on the students thoroughly by filing and finding tests. Filing tests are sent out each month to users of the Remington Rand equipment, and they are a great help to the teacher.[28]

No matter how well trained the student is in stenographic work, office machines, and filing, he is inefficient

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[28]American Business Education, Volume II, No. 3, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, March, 1946, p. 154.

unless his business personality is well developed. Another phase, therefore, of the office practice course is a unit on business etiquette.

A courteous, business-like manner in using the business telephone is necessary, as well as the manner in which the worker greets visitors. His conduct toward his associates, his co-workers, and those in authority will mean much in his becoming successful.

The business life particularly is a series of contacts with other people, and the attainment of skill in dealing with others is built upon a real interest in human beings. The teacher, the business man, or any other professional worker will have to avoid a cynical attitude and develop the art of courtesy. The following quotation should be proof of this statement:

> In all the affairs of human life, social as well as political, I have remarked that courtesies of a small and trivial character are the ones which strike deepest to the grateful and appreciating heart.--Henry Clay.[29]

In the presentation of such a unit or course, the first rules should be directed to the teacher. Since the manners of pupils are usually similar to those of the teacher, his whole bearing and manner in the presence of pupils should be above criticism. The teacher should observe these rules:

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[29]Walton B. Bliss, Personality and School, Allyn and Bacon, Dallas, Texas, 1938, p. 238.

1. A high and loud tone of voice should find no place in the schoolroom.

2. A teacher should assume no attitude in the schoolroom which is not proper for the pupils.

3. Teachers should not be careless in personal habits.

4. Teachers should watch their tones and words with great care.

5. Teachers should not only guard their words, but also the expression of their countenances.

6. Teachers should not indulge in modes of discipline that are unrefining in their tendencies.[30]

With the teacher as a model for the students, the instruction in business etiquette may proceed by the lecture method somewhat. Students will also enjoy entering into a discussion of various points concerning the business personality. The personality traits of the business employee should have manners at the head of the list.

Students should be taught the significance attached to the various aspects of personality--those which go to make the polished and refined business man or woman. One of the most important aspects of the business personality is health. If the employee is physically fit for his job in the business world, his training is reduced to the minimum. As a first requisite of health posture, a person should stand erect so that an imaginary line from the middle of the ear to the heel

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[30]Julia M. Dewey, How to Teach Manners to School Children, Lloyd Adams Noble, Publisher, New York City, 1921, pp. 15-17.

should pass through the center of the body. A look of self-assurance belongs to those who "stand up to life." The business employee should also sit erect. Sprawling at the desk and the slumping over a typewriter prevent the lungs from expanding to capacity. These are important points to keep in mind when an interview is in progress. The body should be upright, the chest high, back straight, and hands on the lap while a person is engaged in a job-getting interview.

Students should be taught to leave their chairs quietly and easily and to walk with light, easy steps, holding their stomachs in and their chins up. The business employee should be able to enter and cross a room without showing self-consciousness. As an aid to speech, the students should be shown how to use their diaphragms in breathing.

In this course the amount of sleep necessary for the individual should be stressed. The student who learns to relax and let sleep take control without the use of sleep-inducing drugs has added to his possibilities for health and vigor.

The training here should emphasize the fact that all clothing need not be expensive, new, or in the very latest style; but it must be clean and appropriate. Strict conformity to office or store standards of what is appropriate in dress is essential. Clothing should fit well, and should be of a comfortable nature. For women high heel shoes are to be avoided while on the job. Clothing for men is well standardized, but

for girls a temptation for letting the imagination run riot exists. Both should study to know what is most appropriate to wear during business hours. Correct grooming also includes a clean body, clear skin, neatly arranged hair, and well kept hands and nails.

Teachers should impress upon the students that nothing more strongly repels or attracts than the voice and the tone in which it is used. A pleasing voice is well modulated and attractive to the ears of the listener. This course should stress the fact that the voice should be calm, quiet, and firm; that a soft voice with clear enunciation of words that are correctly pronounced gives an air of culture.

Students preparing for the business world should be taught that employees must be constantly alert to changes in the routine of the business in which they work. Even the moods of the customers and the weather conditions may require that they demonstrate power to show adaptability. A person is cordially disliked if he insists on following established habits and fails to practice adaptability in business situations.

Prospective business employees must be taught the necessity of their being considerate, understanding, and appreciative. They must recognize the worth of people, humor, and things. The time, thought, energy, endurance, and ambition that their employer has contributed in buidling up the business will register with force if they train themselves to appreciate

them. Often opportunities present themselves for the employee to practice such traits as correctly spoken English, select-clothes carefully, a sense of values, and the point of view of the business.

Since co-operation is basic in the foundation of all business, all members of the firm must practice it or unity will be lost. Life is lived moment by moment, and in every one of these men find occasions when they are expected to co-operate. Each employee should pass on his ideas and the results of his experiences, and listen when another tries to help him work harmoniously with others to advance the interest of the organization. The business department in the secondary schools furnishes a fine laboratory for such training if the teacher makes use of it properly.

Each student should be trained to have courage, that quality which enables him to encounter difficulties with firmness, pluck, and valor. He should show by his attitude that his is willing to begin at the bottom and work up. Telling the truth sometimes is a brave thing to do--courage is required.

Every teacher should teach courtesy first, last, and always. Courtesy is the inimitable characteristic of business personality; it is the graceful and considerate behavior toward others that every businessman should possess. Courtesy is the mark of culture and refinement. Hundreds of chances

for the employee's courtesy to prove itself will surely present themselves in the business world. Each person should become filled with an incentive to practice courtesy here and now.[31]

Honesty should be taught as the watchword for business employees. They should be satisfied with nothing less than absolute fairness, straightforwardness, and integrity in every phase of business life.

After a survey made by the business personality class of the American Institute of Business conducted in Des Moines, Iowa, Mohler reports that the following traits were selected and listed in order of their ranking: appearance, capability, initiative, loyalty, typing accuracy, shorthand skill, honesty, co-operation, transcription ability, health, experience, education, neatness, dependability, and punctuality.[32]

Surely the teacher of business etiquette has one of the finest opportunities for developing youth for life than any other course in the business program. The course furnishes a chance to teach business loyalty, and Mohler says that the businessman's cry is:

> Loyalty! Loyalty! Loyalty! If prospective employees could realize that this word covers practically every

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[31]Ray Abrams, Business Behavior, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, 1941, pp. 185-205.

[32]Bothilda Mohler, "Business Personality Survey," The Balance Sheet, February, 1940, p. 261.

> quality needed for success, and that its presence or absence is ninety-nine percent of the difference between success and failure, both employer and employee would come near to "Utopia."[33]

Business English. Little or no authentic information is available on the history of business English, but the first course offered by the pioneer business colleges was confined chiefly to letter writing.[34] Evidently the schools at that time assumed that students were sufficiently grounded in English through their study in the public schools, but even today not one in fifty high school or college students can write an ordianry business letter correctly.

Many believe that business English is a mysterious type of English which is somewhat foreign in its nature. Business English, however, is very similar to any other English. It is an everyday type of English in which the word pictures and the language tones differ somewhat from the general language. Because business English is adapted to a specific purpose, it requires a specialized vocabulary; but the grammatical principles remain unchanged.

The characteristics of business English are (1) clearness which means to get or to give information in such a way as to get action, (2) accuracy, meaning that it should tell the truth and be correct, (3) conciseness which demands not

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[33] Loc. cit.

[34] Miller, op. cit., p. 317.

only conservation of time and space but also its being to the point as well, and (4) grammatical correctness which includes spelling, punctuation, diction, composition, capitalization, syllabication, and mechanical form. In business the employee is expected to execute these characteristics with dispatch, and the purpose of the course is to provide the necessary training.

A great deal of importance is placed upon business English. The course trains for originality in both written and spoken expression. It is involved in every sphere of life, and it prepares students to make the best statements. Business English must be more than mere conspicuous habit; it must be the kind that leads to conscious, deliberate expression and arrangement of words in a sentence to communicate an idea; and it must cause the student to recognize bad habits in his own speech or writing.

Most errors in shorthand transcription are because of ignorance of the fundamentals of English. This fact alone is sufficient justification for the inclusion of a course in business English in the business education program.

The course should begin with a review of the definitions and classification of sentences according to meaning and form. Beginning with the simple sentence, the breakdown of these sentences into their component parts, the complete subject, complete predicate, simple subject, and simple predicate, and all modifiers should be thoroughly done. Just here some

simple means of diagraming--showing the picture of these related sentence parts--is a most effective way of getting sentence structure across. The teacher should plan carefully each lesson to begin with the very simplest sentence forms and then gradually build to the more intricate structures. The greatest visual aid to business English is the picture on the blackboard of all the different types of sentences broken up into their parts with the proper ties of relations.

After a thorough sentence study, names which are applicable to the various elements shown in the diagram should be assigned. For instance, the simple subject is a noun, a pronoun, or a group of words used as substantives. The simple predicate in the picture is a verb or a verb phrase. The various types of modifiers may be named next, and meaningful grammar begins to open before the students. Definitions of the parts of speech need not be required, for in this way the student gets or makes his own definition as he understands. If he can't define, he doesn't understand; and either the teacher has failed or the student is thickheaded. Teachers should once and for all realize that no benefit is to be derived from the tedious, boresome tasks of parsing sentences. A clear understanding of the parts of speech through the picture diagram gets the student happily on his way to learning.

Once the student has a complete understanding of a part of speech, he is ready to undertake the study of its breakdown.

Regardless of the habit of saying, "I have went," the student can and will correct it if he knows why he is wrong. The ideal situation is to have all students learn correct usage from the home and environmental training from the time they begin to talk. Unfortunately all children don't have such an opportunity, and for this reason the teacher has an added burden to his job. Conjugation of verbs, declension of pronouns, comparison of adjectives and adverbs, and so on mean absolutely nothing to the student who has no readiness or understanding of the terms. Person, number, gender, and case can be taught with effect when the pupils are ready. Memorization of forms which aren't directly applicable in the pupil's mind is less than no learning at all.

The course need not attempt any work further than spelling, grammar, sentence structure, punctuation, simple personal and business letter forms and composition.

Spelling should be considered a very vital phase of business English. The subject has long since been discarded as a secondary school study, but evidences are prevalent among college students that the high schools should require spelling for all students. Certainly the least the school can do is to require some study of it in connection with the business English course offered by the business department.

Methods of teaching spelling have varied through the years since Webster's "blue back speller" was first published

in Hartford, in 1782.[35] In using the word lists given in this book, pupils were taught to spell orally, pronouncing each syllable of the word as it was spelled. This method had some good qualities, but it lacked full consideration of the readiness of pupils for learning to spell many words. It also lacked any particular care in scientifically setting up a common word list for pupils of different age and grade levels. This book of Webster's launched the American cultural institution known as the spelling bee which is remembered with much pride by many an oldster who spells well even today. By the method of that day words were mastered to some extent by memorizing the order of the letters; knowledge of meaning was inconsequential.[36]

In 1911, a period of educational research into specific spelling problems was begun, and this persists in modified form even today.[37]

Many methods used in the past are now outmoded, but each method may have had points worthy of retention. Research, however, has brought about definite improvements in the method of teaching spelling. It has proved that many of the wasteful teaching methods can be eliminated, that about 15 minutes each day is adequate for a successful spelling program, and that

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[35] The Language Arts--Part I, Silver Burdett Company, Chicago, 1946, p. 45.

[36] Loc. cit.

[37] A. I. Gates and H. Brown, "Experimental Comparison of Print Script and Cursive," Journal of Educational Research, June, 1929, p. 26.

most children already know how to spell the majority of words assigned to them.[38]

Words which are needed by the pupils should be selected, analyzed, and studied. The more difficult words may be written on the board for special drill, and sentences which are dictated to the class may include those words which are to be spelled.[39]

The drill method is rarely used today, but according to Dolch the process of learning spelling is the result of several kinds of spelling knowledge, and a child learns most quickly when he uses a multiple attack.[40]

In colonial days, motivation was entirely lacking in the teaching of spelling. Today teachers realize that spelling must be properly presented if it is to be attractive to the pupil. Creating the desire to achieve success, to avoid failure, to excel, and to compete with others are listed among the interests of pupils easily utilized to enlist their efforts in learning to spell.[41]

Written spelling has taken the place of oral spelling today. Probably the best motivation for good spelling according to Zollinger, is to see that pupils have ample chances to

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[38]The Language Arts--Part I, loc. cit.

[39]Ibid., p. 46.

[40]Loc. cit.

[41]Ibid., p. 47.

express themselves in writing--the real test of a good speller is how well he spells in his writing.[42]

Spelling rules have been frowned upon for many years. Certainly few rules, if any, should be taught. Foran says the rules which may help to generalize correctly should be taught.[43]

Pronounciation is extremely important in spelling. The teachers should pronounce each word clearly--ability to break words into syllables is an important asset in pronouncing. In oral spelling, the pupil should be allowed to pronounce the word also, either before or after he has spelled it.[44]

In order to teach spelling intelligently and efficiently, Whitfield and Todd say the teacher should know the following six things:

> 1. He should know the various vocabulary studies which have made it possible for us to select useful words to teach.
>
> 2. He should know which of these words should be taught to the students of business education.
>
> 3. He should know how to plan the class procedure efficiently.
>
> 4. He should know how students can best learn to spell.
>
> 5. He should know how to encourage pupils to make use of words which they have learned to spell.

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[42] H. Houston, "Manuscript Writing and Progress in Reading," Elementary School Journal, October, 1938, p. 12.

[43] The Language Arts--Part I, op. cit., p. 49.

[44] Ibid., p. 57.

6. He should know how to best measure the results of his teaching.[45]

Through the application of one invention after another, the most advanced races of the ancient world had arrived after a long period of time and effort, to a relatively high stage of development. A wide range of experience gave man a fairly secure social basis, and his brain had developed into an efficient and stable organ of thought. Despite this development, man had devised no means of communication with others at a distance except through the means of verbal messages, and his experiences had to be handed down orally. In order that he rise above the barbarian stage in the estimate of his descendants, a system of writing was developed.

The art of writing is as old as civilization itself. In North Babylonia the pictograph stage had long been passed eight thousand years ago. More than seven thousand years ago, reading and writing in Egypt, Babylonia, and Crete were already of hoary antiquity.

Writing has come through the same general stages as the evolution of speech. First came the gesture language, corresponding to Drummond's illustration of the herd, in which a toss of the head meant something, as to listen or look.

Next came the hieroglyphic system in which pictures or

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[45]William Garrison Whitford and Jessie Mabel Todd, The Classroom Teacher, The Classroom Teacher, Inc., Chicago, 1926, p. 563.

mixed signs of various characters were drawn to represent objects. This method was employed chiefly by the Egyptians in the Nile valley, and out of this grew the phonetic system in which the forms or pictures represented parts of words, words, and even groups of words.

The ideograms came next and were of two kinds: some pictures of objects and also pictorial symbols suggesting ideas. A further extension of this system was found among the Chinese people where "wife" is denoted by the picture of a woman and a broom.

The next advancement is found in the system of image writing, where several objects were combined. The adoption of this important step probably arose from the necessity of expressing proper names. At this stage of development the memorization of some six or seven thousand characters would be necessary in order to write an ordinary business letter, or a friendly personal message.

The Japanese borrowed from the Chinese, and by some revising methods formed the syllabism. Authorities seem to believe that the development from one stage to the next was by the transmission of a graphic system from one nation to another. The cuneform system was invented by the Accadians and transmitted to the Babylonians; and out of this grew the alphabet, a word coming from the combination of the first two Greek letters, Alpha and Beta.

The early Mexican picture writing was written from the bottom up. The Hindu sanscrit system was said to be the most perfect form of ancient writing. The Chinese still use the ideographic system of 40,000 syllabic characters.

In 1859, the theory was founded that the immediate origin of the alphabet was Somitic. At first the writing took the serpentine or circular form on papyrus; but later it took the ploughwise form, proceeding alternately from left to right and right to left just as the oxen followed the furrows. Finally, a more convenient method prevailed; all lines were written from left to right.[46]

Probably our alphabet is like it is because of the lack of any consistent rule. The history of the long process from which our handwriting has evolved should challenge students to give some time and effort to its study. The purpose is not to destroy individuality in handwriting, but to produce a better form than is already possessed. As a matter of fact, all people could not write in exactly the same way. The mathematical probability of finding any two persons whose handwritings are exactly alike is about one in sixty-eight trillion.[47]

Penmanship is an instrument of school work. Students

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[46]The Encyclopedia Americano, Volume 29, American Corporation, Chicago, 1943, pp. 435-574.

[47]Encyclopedia Britannica, Volume II, 14th Edition, Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc., New York City, 1932, pp. 1-2.

use it in taking notes, writing themes, reports, and various other phases of their training. Frances Bacon said, "Writing maketh an exact man."[48] The fact that its value is so widely recognized makes it necessary to stress the importance of it as a secondary school subject.

Everybody admires good penmanship, and it is perhaps one of the most beautiful when well executed of any of our useful arts; however, the teaching of penmanship in secondary schools has been almost excluded. Schools would do well to revive their interest in this subject. One reason for the neglect of penmanship training is the fact that few teachers ever qualify to teach it successfully, and another cause may be attributed to the fact that typewriting has replaced the need for penmanship as a vocational tool to a great extent.

The main objective in penmanship is to develop a good, legible, business style of handwriting, but good handwriting also has a personal-use value. Every adult uses it for keeping records and for personal and business correspondence all his life. Many letters written in longhand present a tiring problem to the reader unless he is thoroughly accustomed to the writer's style of penmanship.

The good penman finds his ability an advantage in writing shorthand because he has speed, ease, fluency, and

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[48]Mary L. Dougherty, How to Teach Handwriting, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York City, 1923, pp. 1-2.

control in his motion. Good penmen are also better fitted for business positions than are others who have made no study of the art. Bankers are seeking employees who are well-trained penmen; they want not only legibility but also speed in the use of the pen.

In order to acquire skill in writing, most people have to break away from their old habit of writing. The process begins with exercises in oval stroking with a light-weight pen stock and a fine point dipped in good blue-black ink. A good grade of smooth paper is necessary for the best result.

The pen is held with the first and second fingers and the thumb so that the tip of the thumb touches the staff even with the first joint of the fore finger, with the point lightly touching the paper and the opposite end pointing to the right shoulder. The fore finger should be gently curved--almost straight--for ease and comfort. The third and fourth fingers curve gently under the hand, and the side of the ends of these fingers make a gliding contact with the paper. The wrist is held level and flat or parallel to and slightly above the desk, and the movement of the arm is gained from the muscle of the forearm which rests on the desk. No movement in the fingers is required. The writing is done through muscular control.

The essentials of muscular movement are correct position of body, feet, hands, and pen and also correct movement speed, and form. Students should sit squarely facing the

desk with the feet flat on the floor. The forearms should be on the desk with the elbows about three inches from the body. The paper lies under the right hand at a 30-degree angle to the edge of the desk. For the left-handed student, the paper lies at the same angle under the left hand. One hand manipulates the pen and the other holds the top edge of the paper in order to keep it slidden upward into position as the writing approaches the bottom of the sheet. The teacher should keep a sharp eye on the students in the early training period to see that they observe the correct position at the desk. Correct habits must be formed from the outset.[49]

Various exercises found in good penmanship manuals are sufficient practice material, but the teacher must teach the curves, turns, joins, and slant of each letter before the students attempt to form it. Extensive use of the blackboard is of much value in teaching penmanship. The correct slant of writing at the blackboard can be had by standing with the left side of the body slightly toward the board and drawing each downward stroke toward the left hand as it hangs naturally by the side. A 52-degree slant of letters should be maintained in all writing. Students can't learn by the copy alone either on the board or the paper. The teacher must be efficient and able to demonstrate the process. Poor writing should never be placed before the student.

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[49]Minnie B. Grave, Muscular Writing, W. S. Benson & Company, Publishers, Austin, Texas, 1920, p. 3.

Classroom facilities have much to do with the success of the course. Good, steady, adjustable desks or chairs or both will facilitate matters greatly. A cabinet for storing ink wells and other materials is a necessity. Each student should pay his share to the ink supply which could be bought by the school in large bottles and poured into the individual ink wells for the desks. Each student should place his well in a rack in the cabinet at the close of each class period. A wire basket is needed for the class papers which the teacher wishes to gather. Since fountain pens have been perfected to the point that they are almost universally used, teachers of penmanship may find it well to adopt the use of fountain pens for the learning processes.

In order to produce a smooth, even stroke, a rhythmic count on the upward or downward strokes is effective. Victrola records are available which lend a pleasant atmosphere and rhythmic movement to the class drill and practice processes. By this method students gain speed while they learn to write smoothly and well.

Penmanship is the accountant's friend, for here he learns to maintain speed in writing accurately and legibly formed figures.

A trained teacher, a classroom with good desks or tables and chairs, and a group of students with a few supplies are the necessary equipment to develop an interesting and valuable piece of work in penmanship.

The mechanical forms of business English and business correspondence are of vast importance. The mechanical structure of manuscript copy and both personal and business letters should be very carefully taught.

The title for manuscripts should be centered two inches below the top of the page and between the lines provided on the guide sheet which is inserted back of the sheet on which the manuscript is to be typed. Three line spaces below the title the context may begin with double line spacing and with an eight-space indention of paragraphs. The page number of the title page should be placed within the small block provided at the bottom of the page and for other pages in the one at the upper right corner of the sheet. The context should be kept within the rectangular guide block with the lines ending always within two or three type spaces of the right-hand margin.

The personal letter guide is used similarly with the whole letter fitted within the rectangle which most nearly accommodates it. The heading usually consists of three lines, the street and number, the town and state, and the date blocked in the upper right-hand corner. The salutation should be followed by a colon, but for the heading inside address, and signature block open punctuation is used. In friendly letters the inside address is omitted; in formal letters it is placed in the lower left-hand corner of the block, and in application or semi-business letters, it is placed before the salutation.

The business letter guide is built similarly to the personal letter guide, but space at the top is provided for the letterhead. The placement of the date line, the inside address, body, signature block, initialing, and notations are very much the same as that of the personal letter.

The guide is built with margins limited from one inch to two inches in width, and the center of perspective at the point of division of the page length into extreme and mean ratio. A perfect guide may be constructed for the standard size paper or for any size as to that matter, and teachers should present the origin of the guide before attempting to put it into use with the class.

A personnel director and training officer for a large insurance company once said:

> I want a yardstick on which I can compare the appearance of the letters typed by our various stenographers. I have written a dozen brochures on letter composition, but I find the appearance of a letter is as important as its contents.[50]

Since the mechanical structure of the business letter is of so much importance concerning its effectiveness, the teacher should avail himself of every aid to teaching the best form--particularly correct guide sheets for the students' use in learning. If letters, either business or personal, are to gain attention easily, they must have attractive form.

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[50]Alan C. Lloyd, "Letter-Placement Scales," The Gregg Writer, September, 1946, p. 4.

Besides the careful teaching of the mechanical structure of the business letter, the teacher should give instruction according to the best known authorities in the composition of the various types of business letters. Probably some instruction should be offered in writing letters of inquiry and replies, orders and acknowledgments of orders, claims and adjustments, credits, collections, sales, applications, and goodwill.[51]

The theory on which the various types of letters is based should be presented carefully, and then the students should be guided in the composition of each letter. Smart and McKelvey say regarding the content of letters:

> Presentation of the message has to do with the manner in which the subject is expressed--the language, style, organization of material, physical appearance, and the like.[52]

Certainly training in business English should be of broad enough scope to take into account the necessary equipment which the student should possess for mustering an effective business letter in all of its aspects.

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[51]Walter K. Smart and Louis William McKelvey, Business Letters, Revised Edition, Harper & Brothers Publishers, New York City, 1941, p. vii.

[52]Ibid., p. 1.

CHAPTER VIII

GENERAL COURSES

Courses which include the general training for the student's preparation to enter almost any phase of business activity are necessary.

General Business. For many years an acute need has been felt for a composite course dealing with the fundamentals of business to be offered in the secondary schools. Teachers are becoming convinced that something more than a mere knowledge of secretarial courses is needed by young people today who are planning a career in business. Office work is too specialized and mechanized to appeal to some students, and for that reason some training is needed which will help them to prepare for setting up a business of their own. For even the smallest type of business, the student needs some previous knowledge of the most vital fundamentals concerning organization and operation.

The course should be designed to condition the students for further life in the field of business and industry. Naturally, a good textbook is essential for such a course. The book should be selected on the grounds that the author has more than a mere acquaintance with business. He should have

actual business experience which will inspire the confidence of those who study it. The textbook should be especially teachable, and the subject matter motivated throughout. It should contain interesting, practical material with stimulating applications to be effective. The book should be well organized, giving proper sequence to the topics treated. Probably the best outline of subjects to be taught are: business and the individual, communications, savings, finance, transportation, business organization and control, ordering, selling, paying, and responsibility.[1]

The teacher who has had some actual business experience is the better qualified for teaching such a course. He should be able to present a broad, accurate picture of today's business practices and services. Not only should the teacher plan the work to appeal to those interested in owning and operating a business, but he should also help them to become intelligent users of the services of business.

The course should be conducted so as to give the student as much vocational direction as possible. The placement in the course offerings is important. It should be the first course studied in the business education field, for in it the students have a chance to decide upon the field of business activity they want, or perhaps to decide against business

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[1]Clinton J. Reed and V. James Morgan, Introduction to Business, Allyn and Bacon, Dallas, Texas, 1936, pp. 9-10.

altogether. Some schools offer the course in the ninth and tenth grades with seeming good effect, but perhaps it becomes of more direct benefit to the student if he gets it earler.

The teacher should select a bextbook which has a key to all exercises and problems together with helpful teaching suggestions. Students find much interest in the exercises and problems, and the teacher's difficulties in creating enthusiasm are reduced to the minimum by these teaching aids.

Practically all schools offer general business training, but few have ventured to offer anything concerning the art of presentation for the course. Bahr gives a suggested approach in this area for stimulating interest in worthwhile procedure. A person's business life begins when he is very young, but information about business can't be consumed like a pill. Bahr suggests the teacher's beginning with getting acquainted with the pupils. This should be followed by acquainting them with various little things in business such as a lesson on how to meet people and another on imaginary interviews. A list of business questions may be given to encourage research so that the pupils learn how to use the reference books. Then the committee or group system is used in which groups are assigned to study various phases of the course. Each committe is responsible for a report on the subject chosen, such as banking, travel, and advertising. The ultimate outcome of such a method is the development of leadership,

familiarity with panel discussions, and the techniques of directing personnel.[2]

Regarding the improvement in instruction in general business, Whale has the following to say:

> One of the most effective methods of teaching general business information is through laboratory problems, projects, or social situations, elaborated by reading, notebooks, investigations, discussions, films, visits, reports, and similar activities characteristic of youthful interests. There appears to be a definite trend toward a more flexible organization of materials and more informal methods of teaching.[3]

The teacher may add much interest to this course by suggesting the study of the lives of outstanding businessmen. Through a little extra effort and ingenuity on the part of the teacher general business can be made one of the most invigorating courses of all the business subjects.

Business Mathematics. Few boys and girls come into mathematics classes with eagerness and love for the subject. If a dislike for mathematics exists in the mind of the student, a cause prevails for this dislike. Perhaps parents, friends, and others have commented to pupils on the dryness, the difficulty, and the utter impossibility of learning mathematics

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[2]Gladys Bahr, "The Beginning of Business Life," The Business Education World, November, 1943, pp. 154-155.

[3]Leslie J. Whale, "The Teaching of General Business Information in the Ninth and Tenth Grades," National Business Education Outlook, National Commercial Teachers Federation, Detroit, 1936, p. 173.

and thus caused the pupils to come into mathematics courses with fear and a hatred for them.

Since so few teachers of arithmetic have been able to create an appreciation and love for the work, the teacher of business mathematics has much to do in breaking down the dislike and building up an admiration for the course. A taste for mathematics should be developed in the first grade, but if it isn't done there the teacher should be prepared to create a taste for it on any level.

The Romans accepted only enough mathematics to manage their affairs in everyday life, and they didn't bother about the accuracy of it. Although claims that are too extravagant should not be made for mathematics, enough to save people from dependence in the matter of calculations should be emphasized. Miss Myrtle Brown of the Department of Mathematics at North Texas State Teachers College says a person is not really educated until he has a knowledge of mathematics. Students who are good in mathematics are usually good in other fields. Concurring with this idea Cajori has the following to say:

> Those who have a natural talent for calculation are generally quick at every other kind of knowledge; and even the dull, if they have had an arithmetical training, although they may derive no other advantage from it, always become much quicker than they would otherwise have been.[4]

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[4]Florian Cajori, Mathematics in Liberal Education, The Christopher Publishing House, Boston, Massachusetts, 1928, p. 26.

A good approach to the motivation of this subject is the preparation of the teacher through the study of the history of mathematics. Seldom do high school and college students have any conception of the origin of the number system--that it came from the anatomy of man, the fingers and toes. They have no idea as to how the numerals came to have the shape they do or how it happened that 123 is read from left to right. If the child knew about the abacus, the Hindu and Roman notation, and how the numbers he is expected to use are direct outgrowths of these simpler and more easily understood systems, he would be appreciative of their use.

The teacher should make use of such visual aids as the abacus even today. Conant has the following to offer regarding the abacus:

> The use of the abacus, in the form of the ordinary numeral frame, has increased greatly within the past few years; and the time may come when the abacus in its proper form will again find in civilized countries a use as common as that of five centuries ago.[5]

Explanation of the origin of the plus, the minus, and the equal signs should be made when the pupil first begins to use them, but it should be done on any level where such information has been witheld. The origin of such terms as hand, inch, foot, yard, furlong, score, and so on is of extreme interest to the student of denominate numbers.

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[5]Levi Leonard Conant, The Number Concept, Macmillan and Company, New York City, 1931, p. 19.

Mathematics in nature will excite interest and much enthusiasm. In the study of mensuration, the teacher should introduce such visual aids as leaves, showing how the veins are arranged in various shaped polygons, calling attention to the polygons in the spider web and by observing the hexagonal cells of the honeycomb. In the unit on solid figures, a solution of salt and one of sulphur might be made and allowed to crystallize. The students will be thrilled to note that under microscopic observation, the salt has crystallized into perfect cubes, and the sulphur into exact octohedrons.

Since practically everything depends on mathematics of which arithmetic is the beginning, teachers should use every possible means for creating interest in it. The teacher himself must be filled with knowledge and enthusiasm about the subject in order to inspire students. In this connection, Miller has said:

> Arithmetic can be made as interesting and enjoyable as any other subject taught. It touches all of life's activities. It is basic in business, in science, and even in the fine arts. Make no apologies for teaching arithmetic; be proud of your subject and glad of your opportunity. The ability to figure is both a pleasureable and profitable accomplishment.[6]

Keen knowledge of the subject of arithmetic and much enthusiasm in presentation may prove contagious among pupils.

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[6]Jay Wilson Miller, Methods in Commercial Teahing, South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, Ohio, 1935, p. 288.

Every teacher of business mathematics should have a collection of books, periodicals, and historical treatises containing the best and most challenging thought on the subject.

The teacher of business mathematics should not be afraid of making the work too elementary, rather he should be afraid of his making it too difficult. The training should begin with the four fundamental processes and carry on through highest common factors, lowest common multiples, common fractions, decimals, pay rolls, aliquot parts, percentage, trade and cash discounts, partial payments, taxes, stocks and bonds, denominate numbers, mensuration, square and cube root, and installment buying.

Proper habits of procedure and of content should be paramount in all business mathematics methodology. Rosenberg gives a few habit-forming traits that should be stressed:

1. Neatness, reflected in the arrangement of work and in the size and formation of figures.

2. Ability to concentrate on what is being done--an invaluable ally of speed.

3. Clear expression in the oral analysis of problems.

4. The habit of self-criticism.

5. Accuracy, speed, and skill in performing the fundamental operations.[7]

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[7]R. Robert Rosenberg, Teaching Methods and Testing Materials in Business Mathematics, The Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, 1942, p. 17.

The teacher must develop meaningful theory for the business mathematics students, and this will have to begin with addition. Few will know the why's back of carrying in addition, borrowing in subtraction, the theory of multiplication of two or more digit numbers, and the steps in division. To divide fractions the student should know why he inverts the divisor and multiplies. Good method involves an understanding of the student's mathematics difficulties.

With a good text, workbooks, and testing materials, the teacher can proceed with the minimum amount of planning for effective teaching in business mathematics. All written work that is collected should be checked and returned. Arithmetic cannot be taught by lecturing alone, but it must have sufficient explanations. The assignment frequently should be made at the beginning of the class period or during the early part of the period, because too often it is crowded out altogether if the teacher fails to attend to it at the beginning. The class time should be used to advantage. The teacher should inspire alertness by keeping things going, and his class explanation and blackboard work should be brisk and to the point. The teacher's movement about the room will aid in creating the right sort of class spirit.

Little mental exercises occasionally will vary the program and interest the students. They also add to the process of rapid and accurate calculation in the course.

Bookkeeping. The first written exposition of the principles of double-entry bookkeeping was included in Pacioli's famous treatise, Everything about Arithmetic, Geometry, and Proportion, published in 1494.[8]

The Babylonians, Egyptians, and Romans all followed a similar form of bookkeeping. Babylonian clerks used tablets of clay for their ledger sheets which were filed in tightly closed jars. The record-keeper initialed his postings by pressing a finger nail into the unbaked clay. Probably the Egyptians originated the custom of posting losses in red--their papyrus records contain entries written in both red and black ink. Ledgers have been discovered that date from four hundred years before the Christian era came. As a result of taxation the Romans prepared books that would reveal the extent of their resources and the property they owned.[9]

Pacioli's method of bookkeeping was greatly improved by the advent of Hindu-Arabic numerals into Itlay. Previously Italian books never balanced because amounts were written in Roman numerals. This progress dates from the years immediately preceding the discovery of America when England adopted the system prescribed by Pacioli, "True Italian or Double-entry Methods of Accounts." As bookkeeping developed with trade,

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[8]Harvey A. Andruss, Ways to Teach Bookkeeping and Accounting, South-Western Publishing Company, 1943, p. 1.

[9]Ibid., pp. 2-3.

one system of record-keeping had to be defended against others, and the Italian system triumphed. In 1789, Benjamin Booth published the first model set of books in England, and this was the forerunner of the modern practice set used in America. Bookkeeping appeared in the curriculum of the Boston English High School in 1824. In 1817, the Massachusetts legislature enacted a law which required every municipal group of 500 or more families to have a high school which had to offer bookkeeping as one of its subjects.[10]

Bookkeeping has always been the crux of the orthodox business education program. In more recent years many systems of bookkeeping have been developed and have won varied recognition among the business education instructors in the United States.[11]

Perhaps in no course is the pragmatic philosophy of education more definitely exemplified than in bookkeeping. Probably the lack of textbooks which was characteristic of the early period brought about a strong and permanent emphasis on the idea of "learning to do by doing." This lack of textbooks also fostered the idea of "practice sets" which were devised to carry the student through the entire bookkeeping cycle. Such procedure usually resulted in wearying details of recording transactions with little chance to summarize and

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[10] Ibid., pp. 2-6.

[11] Miller, op. cit., p. 98.

study general results. Students were impressed with the necessity for understanding why the method was used. The course was, therefore, narrowly occupational rather than broadly educational in its nature.[12]

The knowledge of debits and credits and the worship of the trial balance as the end of bookkeeping instruction are a very small part of what modern teachers expect from bookkeeping. The teacher must recognize that debits, credits, and figures are merely tools through which the business values are conveyed.

According to Andruss, the most important aims in the teaching of bookkeeping are as follows:

> 1. Bookkeeping should be taught to assist all members of society in the business of living. For example, it should assist the following people: the home owner and the house wife as they operate a budget; the average citizen who is a member of a church, club, lodge, etc., who may become a record-keeping official for the organization; the average citizen, who through a study of bookkeeping, gains a better understanding of business services and is therefore better qualified to use those services efficiently; the citizens who make investments and are aided in their investment program by an understanding of bookkeeping methods and records; and the citizens who need to understand the relationship of business to governmental problems, such as the problem of taxation and the problem of financing governmental subdivisions.
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> 2. Bookkeeping should be taught also for vocational purposes, that is, to assist members of society in making a living. For example, it should have a

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[12]Harry D. Kitson, Commercial Education in Secondary Schools, Ginn and Company, Dallas, Texas, 1929, pp. 40-45.

> vocational value for the following people: farmers, professional men and proprietors of small business, who keep their own records; those who are to be employed as bookkeepers; those who, although not bookkeepers, are engaged in business in such a way that future promotion is more likely if they have the knowledge of bookkeeping; and those who intend to take advanced training in accounting.[13]

In the consideration of a textbook the teacher should compare the best books available before making a selection. He should see whether the book contains satisfactory exercises for the accomplishment of the objectives in the course, and also whether the materials are personally, socially, and vocationally worthwhile for the students. The exercises should not be too long or too complicated to be of educational value to the secondary school pupils. The book should be of a general style that attracts and inspires students to further work. Finally, the book should have print, ink, paper, and binding such as to make it psychologically effective. Small type, poor ink, and glare impose undue eye strain on the students who have to keep the eyes glued to the material in the book.

Since the future success of the student of accounting depends largely on the art of presentation of his first bookkeeping course, an order of approach is suggested.

Learning any subject by rule instead of by reason is a difficult matter for the student. He may memorize the rules perfectly and then become confused in their application. Many

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[13]Andruss, op. cit., pp. 61-62.

thoughtful teachers have for a long time realized the importance of limiting rules and substituting reasons on which the rules are based.

Much has been said about the journal approach, the account approach, the balance sheet approach, and the equation approach. A good teacher may use any approach, with good results, and the poor teacher probably would fail regardless of the approach used. The newest and perhaps the best way to teach bookkeeping is through the equation approach, which is a simplified balance sheet approach. After the student has a clear conception of the terms assets, liabilities, and ownership, he is able to understand the equation, assets - liabilities = ownership. He can then readily understand the equation in the form, assets = liabilities + ownership. Since the whole theory of the bookkeeping process is based upon this simple equation, the careful teacher can guide the students through ordinary reasoning to building the whole structure. A correct beginning is important, but teachers can't change their methods easily. Andruss says the following about the teaching of bookkeeping by the equation approach:

> The newer orders of presentation, which stress the results of accounting rather than the routine necessary to arrive at the results, have come to stay. Gradually this newer point of view is being adopted. Teachers cannot be expected to change their methods of teaching over night. At the same time, however, it is urged that commercial teachers who have to deal with changing subject matter should cultivate the attitude of suspended judgment toward all

> innovations that may be introduced from time to time. Do not condemn until a new trial has been given. Do not be prejudiced in advance of the time that a new method is to be tried. Rather "adapt" new methods of teaching to your particular situation in so far as they will apply. Be careful not to "adapt" a thing because it happens to be the latest fad to gain publicity.[14]

Much dissention has arisen regarding the merits of class instruction as compared with individual instruction. Since class instruction involves the teaching of theory only and individual instruction involves supervised laboratory in which students are working on sets of problems, either would seem to be an extreme method. Because of the fact that bookkeeping procedure can best be presented through class discussions and the application of this theory through laboratory sets in supervised study, approximately an equal amount of time should be given to both. Many schools have devoted two periods to the bookkeeping class, but this practice is, in general, outmoded. Any extra time which students may need can be assigned as home work. Many persons complain that home work should be excluded because of the "copying evil," but the practice is still with us and will probably continue. The habit of copying can be greatly reduced by the teacher's help and encouragement of the slow, weak, and lazy students who are inclined to do it. The work should be based on a minimum standard, and the more intelligent and industrious students

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[14] *Ibid.*, p. 124.

should be given an opportunity to do extra- and individual-work assignments.

Corrections should be clearly shown on papers, sets, and tests. The teacher should never allow his key to get into students' hands. The key is to be used inside the classroom as little as possible. It is the teacher's tool for speedy and accurate checking of the student's work.

Neatness, accuracy, good penmanship, and speed are indispensable assets to the bookkeeping students. Many mistakes will occur, but erasing should be discouraged.

A rather unique form of grading bookkeeping papers is to use a check (/) for correct papers, a check minus (/-) for mediocre papers, a check double minus (/=) for poor papers, and an (X) for those to be done again.

Tests in bookkeeping should be short and frequent, rather than long and infrequent. When given in this manner, examinations may count for one-third and the class work as two-thirds when evaluating the student's mark in the course.

With good textbooks for the class, the well-trained teacher can, after a good beginning approach, follow through the bookkeeping cycle with fair success.

CHAPTER IX

SOCIAL COURSES

In the curriculum as suggested in Chapter V three social courses are designated that, as their names imply, are social in nature. These include business law, commercial geography, and consumer economics.

Business Law. In order to make a critical evaluation of teaching procedures in business law, a review of some of the problems and issues which confront the average teacher of the subject is necessary.

Many times the course is included in the secondary school curriculum without any appreciation of its value or any special regard for its possibilities. Usually imitation dictates the inclusion of business law in the curriculum, and as a consequence unprepared teachers are often asked to teach it. Principals and superintendents sometimes teach it, and this may mean a situation worse than the other.[1]

At times new teachers of business subjects prepared to teach secretarial courses enter the small school where the business education teacher is expected to teach all the subjects

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[1]Jay Wilson Miller, Methods in Commercial Teaching, South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, Ohio, 1926, p. 122.

offered in the department. If business law was not included in his preparation he may, during the time, take a correspondence or extension course in business law in order to help him through the term of teaching it. In such a case the teacher is under severe nervous strain while trying to teach the course as he himself studies it, and the class probably develops no special interest in the course.

Besides these problems, the business law teacher is concerned with the choice of objectives. He must decide upon the primary aims of the course, and how they should influence his teaching.

Surely the first objective in the teaching of business law is respect for law. "This objective goes hand in hand with the enlistment of the pupils' whole-hearted enthusiasm and support for fundamental democratic institutions."[2]

Since business law is made up primarily from the experience people have gained in their relationships with each other, good citizenship can be taught in the class. In approaching this aim, care should be given to teaching proper respect for law instead of teaching ways to evade it.

Another worthy aim of the course is to plan it in such a way as to fortify the student against the pitfalls of business. Many business transactions are made with no regard to necessary precautions. The student should learn from the course

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[2]Problems and Issues in Business Education, Seventh Yearbook, National Business Teachers Association, Bowling Green, Kentucky, 1941, p. 238.

when the advice or service of a lawyer should be had, instead of thinking that his knowledge of the course would allow him to manage successfully all his transactions himself.

The carry-over value of business law should not be overlooked according to Miller who says:

> Nearly every topic treated in the average text in commercial law bears some relation to a course in bookkeeping or accounting. The section of the commercial law text that is devoted to negotiable instruments will aid greatly in the clarification of time and sight drafts and their treatment in the bookkeeping records of these problems in accounting. A stenographer or secretary who is required to prepare or fill in blank business forms and legal documents will benefit greatly from the training received in commercial law. . . . The arithmetic of interest, insurance, and taxes will all be stimulated by the course in commercial law.[3]

The course in business law when well organized and well taught becomes so practical that it is of interest to every one whether he is majoring in business education or not. The course should be so organized as to help the student develop a better understanding of his responsibility to society and his relationship to the community in which he lives.

The business law course has a general cultural value. The course trains for logical thinking that no other course can equal. All conditions of various cases presented must be considered, weighed, and placed in order before a principle can be applied. Certainly such practice develops an analytical mind in the student.

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[3]Miller, op. cit., p. 124.

Discretion should be used with regard to the amount of emphasis placed upon the development of proper attitudes and sense of duty in pupils as compared with that placed upon the law as it pertains to business. The following gives some light on this point:

> While it is agreed that the course in business law should be primarily a study of legal principles as they pertain to the world of business, nevertheless opportunities to present the human side of law and its application to the life of the individual should not be neglected.[4]

In view of the aims and objectives of the course, the content of it should be as follows: sources and administration, contracts, sales of goods, insurance, negotiable instruments, guaranty, bailments, agency, master and servant, partnerships, corporations, and property.[5]

The teacher who has had no more training in law than the ordinary high school course or the usual course in business college is hardly prepared to teach it. Teachers colleges and universities offer courses in business law that are longer and are planned with the aim of training teachers to teach the subject in high schools and colleges, and teachers should have the equivalent of such training before going out to teach it, even in the secondary schools. Miller says that both business

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[4]Problems and Issues in Business Education, op. cit., p. 242.

[5]George Gleason Bogert, Kennard E. Goodman, and William L. Moore, Introduction to Business Law, Ginn and Company, Dallas, Texas, 1941, pp. v-vii.

experience and teaching experience may be accepted in lieu of some of this training but not without consideration.[6]

Schools of business education in universities offer courses in business law that are intended to train both for teaching and practice. These courses are technical and emphasize the preparation for the Certified Public Accountant certificate. A teacher with training of this type is well qualified, but he should guard against presenting his course in too technical a manner.

Several methods of presenting a course in business law are employed by teachers. These procedures vary with the different ideas and inclinations of teachers. Lanner advocates the diagram method of teaching and gives an illustration for teaching contracts. She attempts (1) to reduce the number of memorized laws to a minimum and (2) to have each student diagram the problem in accordance with a given outline before he attempts to arrive at a decision or to apply a legal principle. By this plan the basic problem is clarified and allows no doubt to exist in the student's mind as to what the rights and obligations of each one involved in the contract consist.[7]

The lecture method in which the whole period is given over to a lecture by the teacher or a guest speaker is favored

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[6]Miller, op. cit., p. 126.

[7]Helen D. Lanner, "Teaching Law Assignments by the Diagram Method," The Balance Sheet, October, 1946, p. 56.

by many teachers. The lecture method is better suited to college work where students are better able to discriminate, analyze, and weigh facts than it is to high school teaching. Miller says some lectures should be given in high school, but that they should be short, well organized, and not used too often; and that particularly seniors in high school should have a taste of lecturing.[8]

Another method commonly used is the recitation procedure. This method includes what was formerly called the topic method, in which the student is given a topic or subject on which to recite. This method also involves the question and answer method, using the questions at the end of sections or chapters. The method is commendable to the extent that it presupposes student preparation. It is usually used by untrained or inexperienced teachers, and teachers who resort to this plan of teaching business law should make careful preparation of supplementary questions in order to vary the method as much as possible. Breaking the monotony of routine in this way stimulates interest and at the same time gives the teacher an opportunity to emphasize points that the author of the textbook may have passed with insufficient attention.

Still another method of teaching business law is the discussion plan. Under this procedure the skillful teacher may ask a question or make a statement that will encourage

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[8]Miller, op. cit., p. 127.

discussion by various members of the class. The teacher may present an issue with a few incomplete thoughts on each side of the question. This too will stimulate much discussion, probably debates; and at the proper time the teacher can summarize, point out the correct reasoning, analyze, and state the principle that has been developed. Should the discussion become heated, and should some not accept the final decision, the teacher should be able to cite references from which students may get facts on the subject.

In the discussion method, both teacher and students may relate personal experiences. These cases may be contrary to the rules found in the textbook, and the teacher should show that court decisions are often reversed; that because of the influence of evidence, varying circumstances, and different interpretations of the law, courts do not always agree. The teacher should, therefore, explain that answers cannot always be given offhand. Miller says, "a young lawyer will answer offhand most questions put to him, but that an old lawyer will say, 'I will look it up and let you know.'"[9]

The last method is the case study. Many law schools have adopted this method. It is the plan of reviewing the evidence and findings of the court in connection with certain cases. In the study of these cases, the teacher is careful to see that all facts are analyzed, distinctions made, and

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[9]*Ibid.*, p. 128.

principles developed. This method may resolve itself into tedious routine, taxing the mental capacities of teacher and students. Much may be said for and against such a method, but Miller is convinced that it should be used only in college and university law departments. He says: "students of high school age are not capable of making the fine distinctions that are necessary to succeed with this plan."[10]

Since regular routine tends to kill interest in any class, the best teacher of business law will combine the better points of all the methods mentioned here. The wise teacher can sense the class situation and know when to vary his plan of presentation.

Teacher's handbooks which accompany almost all textbooks prove to be wonderful aids in teaching. Some of the handbooks contain only answers to questions and problems, and others contain helpful outlines of each chapter with plans for the presentation of each lesson along with suggested supplementary work.

Each student should be given some research work. The library should contain a copy of the codified statutes of the states, and specific directions should be given students so that they may find information quickly and easily.

The teacher of business law should supply himself with all available helps. Banks and financial institutions often

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[10] *Ibid.*, p. 129.

issue pamphlets and booklets containing abstracts of the business law of the state, and these materials are distributed free. The alert teacher will be constantly searching for all materials which may stimulate his course, and plenty of rich material is readily accessible, without cost, to the teacher who looks about.

Commercial Geography. In the field of American education, commercial geography is a relatively new science. The first university in the United States to establish a department of geography opened its courses to students in 1903, and today more than 70% of the colleges and universities maintain separate departments of geography or offer geography courses in closely related fields.[11]

No other subject in the business education department of the secondary schools presents more perplexing problems to the teacher than does commercial geography. Its scope is so broad and far-reaching; and the wealth of materials in books, pamphlets, newspapers, and magazines is so great that many teachers are confused and actually fear the teaching of such a course. Teachers often agree to teach any course in the business education curriculum except economic geography. This may be due to the fact that the teachers fail to understand the real aims and purposes of the course or that they have not developed a liking for it.[12]

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[11] Problems and Issues in Business Education, op. cit., p. 284.

[12] Miller, op. cit., p. 164.

The demands of present-day commerce, trade, industry, and international relations reflect the need for a secondary course in commercial geography. Since World War II, all parts of the world are drawn closer together than ever before. The modern inventions and improved methods of transportation have brought the countries of the world into much closer relationships than was formerly dreamed of. Business and commerce and also the welfare of the whole human race depend on a mutual understanding of, and sympathy with, the people of other countries.

The commercial geography course usually consists of about 18 weeks of study, but the length varies with different schools. In some localities 18 weeks are given to the study of the United States and 18 weeks more to the study of other countries. The amount of ground covered in the course depends largely on the needs of the school and the students themselves.

The outstanding objective in economic geography for secondary schools is to give students a working knowledge of the commercial world. In order to gain such a knowledge the student must deal with two divisions of the subject: namely, the general structure of the commercial world, and an understanding of how, through their industries, the people of these commercial localities utilize the land and resources of their natural environment. Since the commercial world is so large and the limitations of time in the secondary-school curriculum

so exacting, the attainment of the objective requires a careful selection of material. In support of this point Colby and Foster say:

> The experience of geography teachers shows that attempts to be all-inclusive result, in most cases, in a cyclopedic enumeration of places, facts, and figures. . . . The United States, therefore, is placed in the center of thought. The other regions given special treatment are those with which the United States has large commercial contact. In this way, the work is brought to a size which permits the attainment of our objective within the brief limits of a secondary school course.[13]

Geography should be taught differently from the old fact-giving and fact-recalling way. Attempts to memorize and retain isolated facts for any length of time stultifies the pupil's interests. Contrary to such methods Miller offers the following:

> Geography is a story, and an intensely interesting human story, concerned with matters of every-day interest to all. . . . the general aim in teaching geography should be to widen the horizon of the pupil's interest in the world about him. Like the man who travels, so the student of geography soon gets a deeper sympathy and a broader and clearer vision of the world's activities and people.[14]

Most teachers of commercial geography seem to agree that the best approach is through a study of each region of a special country, for facts gathered about topics which take the pupils over the entire world tend to confuse rather than

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[13]Charles C. Colby and Alice Foster, Economic Geography for Secondary Schools, Ginn and Company, Dallas, Texas, 1931, p. iv.

[14]Miller, op. cit., pp. 165-166.

stimulate and scatter their attention rather than concentrate it.

Since geography is classified as an earth science, another method of presentation known as the laboratory plan has developed. No two commonly used texts include the same subject matter, but each tries to show to the pupil the close relation between man and his environment. All text books, therefore, should be supplemented with other reading and materials in order to work out a definite problem in a certain locality. Miller says the best way is to let the pupil collect materials, arrange maps or graphs, and discover the information for himself in order that he may be less likely to forget what he has learned.[15]

For successful handling of the laboratory method, the classroom should be equipped with tables, reference books, maps, charts, and geography equipment. Maps, charts, and lists worked out by students furnish themes for further discussion in class. A number of pupils may work together on the same problem in some instances, and the nature of the problem in other cases may require only the effort of an individual or even the whole class. Such references as the United States Census reports, Statistical Abstract, The Statesman's Yearbook World Almanac, and many current magazines are useful. During this post-war period, however, statistics which are available

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[15]Ibid., p. 168.

are indicative of abnormal conditions. Staples has the following to say regarding this point:

> Teachers who depend upon new editions of economic geography to supply them with effortless teaching of current facts and figures are doomed to disappointment for some time after the war. There simply are no authoritative statistics available from any billigerent countries on which to make accurate estimates available for publication, and there have not been since 1942. While these figures may be available after the end of the war, it will take at least two years for authors to obtain them and include them in textbooks for use in the classroom.[16]

Most textbooks in commercial geography introduce the subject by devoting some space to the study of the most important commercial products. This fact suggests the establishment of a museum of products which may be obtained by contracting large industrial firms for educational exhibits, starting with raw materials used and showing each stage of the manufacturing.

A student's notebook is an almost indispensable article in the commercial geography class. The notebook may contain outline maps, problems, and data procured through supplementary reading. Even newspaper and magazine clippings on items of commerce may be kept in the notebook.

Other activities of the course may include purposeful observation trips which may stimulate interest as nothing else can do. The teacher should first plan the trip, making

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[16]Z. Carleton Staples, "Global Geography vs. Economic Geography," The Balance Sheet, March, 1945, p. 267.

certain pupils responsible for special or definite things to be observed and requiring class reports on the trip. In this way all points observed are brought to the whole class which can lead to further inquiry and interest in that particular activity.

Since the study of geography should find interest in the immediate surroundings of the pupil, the teacher may have the class embark upon the study of their county. Pupils find interest in working up the geography of their county, taking into account the history of the county, climate and soil, agriculture, mining, manufacturing, cultural aspects, transportation facilities, trade, and political structure. The class should be divided into groups and each group given one phase of the county project to do. After the material for such a study has been assimilated, Kestol suggests that copies be made of each phase for all members of the class. A good understanding of the home county will help to lay the groundwork for studying other areas.[17]

Teachers should make full use of globes, atlases, encyclopedias, relief maps, railroad maps, railroad guides, airway guides, films, and pictures of all sorts.

Certainly the teacher should be thoroughly acquainted with the subject matter, and the experience of travel is an

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[17]James W. Keston, "Economic Geography of Your County," The Business Education World, January, 1946, p. 265.

excellent supplement. Students listen with greater interest to one who has seen than to information given from a book. Teachers of geography should be especially proficient in asking questions. This art helps the teacher to get away from the textbook and develops original thinking among the class members.[18]

The following is indicative of the necessary training required of the teacher of commercial geography:

> The teaching of economic geography in the high school calls for well-rounded preparation in geography on the part of the teacher, just as the teaching of geometry calls for comprehensive training in mathematics and as the teaching of a vocational subject in a business department calls for special training in that particular subject. Universities, liberal arts colleges, and teachers colleges provide for the academic and pedagogical training of teachers of economic geography, both in undergraduate courses and in the graduate schools of many institutions.[19]

Surely economic geography merits a place in the cultural development of every pupil in high school business departments. The real service of geography to pupils can be efficiently presented by teachers trained in geography. Only the well-trained teacher can wisely adapt his teaching to the end that his pupils will be given a concrete approach to business activities in their geographic setting.[20]

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[18] Miller, op. cit., p. 175.

[19] Problems and Issues in Business Education, op. cit., p. 289.

[20] Loc. cit.

Consumer Economics. Since every individual is a consumer, economic competence is recognized generally as being essential to intelligent existence after high school or college graduation. Since World War II, however, the task of imparting economic information and providing it with current application has been almost impossible. Rapidly changing circumstances exact adjustments, and without economic information, as unstable as it may seem to be, life is fraught with many difficulties.

Evidence is conclusive that the average consumer is not equipped to assume intelligent participation in economic affairs touching his own interests. In this connection Price has said:

> Except in a general theoretical way, the consumer is not the "king" whose word is law, that so often has been claimed. Such claims assume ability on the part of the consumer to know what he wants; to know how to judge quality and price to the extent of knowing if [sic] he got what he wanted. To a considerable extent the consumer is an uninformed follower who does not recognize his economic position, his potential strength, or his weakness.[21]

Until comparatively recent years, secondary schools, colleges, and universities did not believe economic understanding and participation in society of value. For this reason economics had received little attention. Today, according to the following statement, the picture is changed.

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[21]Ray G. Price, "The Need for Consumer Education," Improved Methods of Teaching the Business Subjects, Monograph 63, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, December, 1945, p. 59.

> Economics is a controversial subject for practitioners, teachers, and researchers alike; but it is one which merits consideration. While it may elude analysis, and even contemporary application, if not understanding, it is beginning to be recognized by the most astute diagnosticians of the current scene that without economics an incomplete and one-sided picture will be revealed.[22]

Economics in general may be called a study of wealth, but specifically it deals with the process of obtaining and using wealth to the best advantage. Since a study of man's relations with wealth is necessarily long, the subject covers a wide scope.

Consumership or the new consumer economics education has been defined in many ways, but most of the definitions can be summarized in the following statements taken from the work of Shields and Wilson:

> Consumership is that phase of education which trains students (1) in determining a well-balanced spending program, (2) in getting the most value and the most satisfaction out of the time, effort, and expenditures that are made for economic services, shelter, clothing, food, and other goods, and (3) in working for an improved standard of living in a democratic society.[23]

A study of specific buying problems is important in the consumership course. The course should not be limited to such topics as to judge fabrics, select refrigerators, or

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[22] Problems and Issues in Business Education, Seventh Yearbook, National Business Teachers Association, Bowling Green, Kentucky, 1941, p. 279.

[23] H. G. Shields and W. Harmon Wilson, Consumer Economic Problems, Third Edition, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, 1945, p. iii.

determine the number of ounces in a can of tomatoes. Shields and Wilson say that some of the more fundamental problems are tied up with budgeting and planning, saving, investing, carrying insurance, using credit, providing a home, and understanding practical business relations.[24]

Even the treatment of these is not enough to provide the student with a well-rounded viewpoint in consumership. He needs to understand the basic economic and social problems which will surely confront him. Shields and Wilson believe the problems having the most direct bearing on the consumer are: money and credit, taxes and tariffs, national and individual wealth and income, economic fluctuations and change, functions of marketing, and the use of national resources.[25]

The need for and the consent of this type of course are emphasized in the following:

> An educational program, designed to increase the buyer's efficiency, should begin with knowledge of what goods are available in the market. The buyer must learn what specific qualities to seek and what to avoid in these goods. . . . Finally, the intelligent buyer would know his legal remedies in case of injury to health or purse and be familiar with the special protection given by state or federal statutes or local ordinances.[26]

In order to condition the high school student to appreciate the all-over economic problems of the consumer the

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[24] Ibid., p. iv.

[25] Loc. cit.

[26] The Purposes of Education in American Democracy, Educational Policies Commission, 1938, p. 104.

sequence of topics should be carefully planned. A suggested sequence of course content for the study of consumership is given by Shields and Wilson in the following list.

1. Getting what you want.
2. Consumer protection.
3. Selection and choice making.
4. Making specific purchases.
5. Using banks and credit.
6. Personal finance.
7. Insurance protection.
8. Obtaining a home.
9. Economic problems of consumers.[27]

The course in consumership requires a variety of procedure which will present and illustrate its many intricate and controversial aspects. The order of exploring a single textbook with the idea of taking an examination from memorization instead of current applications is rapidly passing. Such a method results in student hatred of and lack of understanding in the course of consumership.

The lecture method is used by some teachers today along with the utilization of a workbook of problem materials and aupplementary texts for reading. Some use newspapers and magazines to provide class materials, and still others prepare syllabi which are used as an approach to the essentials of the course.

Another teaching technique is the use of the community as an economic laboratory. Under this plan, field trips are organized which stress student observation and reports. "Any

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[27]Shields and Wilson, op. cit., pp. vii-viii.

experimental schools and colleges have found this practical approach to economic theories stimulating and profitable for students."[28] Dr. Tonne writes in this respect as follows:

> In almost every section of this country opportunities for interesting and instructive field trips relating to consumer activities are presented. In all the larger and many of the smaller cities, there are department stores with more or less satisfactory testing laboratories. In most communities the municiplaity has a testing laboratory for aid in purchasing. Markets and stores may be noted for comparison, and trips made to museums of practical arts and science. Or, if such visits are not possible a sale may illustrate a problem. Within easy reach of most communities is a local wholesale food market. These situations and others furnish many practical examples of the principles being taught in the classroom. The local commercial bank, for example, should not be neglected. While almost all the students are probably familiar with many of its details, a group visit will bring out many points which they had not previously noticed.[29]

Constant teaching by either of the foregoing methods is likely to grow monotonous and ineffective, for students of high school age respond to unique methods, varied programs, and stimulating lessons. In verification of this thought is the following quotation:

> Reliance upon lectures, textbooks or community visits alone is not sufficient. Rather a combination of them, and perhaps an introduction of other methods from time to time, will lead to the best results. What selection should be made will depend upon the teacher's consideration and experimentation of the various methods, with variation from year to year.

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[28] Problems and Issues in Business Education, op. cit., p. 280.

[29] Herbert Tonne, Consumer Education in Schools, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York City, 1941, p. 311.

> Just as too much attention to the question and answers, the drill, the discussion, the laboratory, the problem or the project method will lead to routine, some variations in emphasis, which consider the composition of the class, its mental calibre, its future utilization of the subject and current trends in the world outside the classroom would seem advisable.[30]

Teachers of consumership should motivate the course in a way to lend it freshness, and call attention to implications and applications which not only impart information, but also are able to awaken latent ability.

The consumership course may lack unity because of the teacher's attempting to cover much material in an inefficient manner. High school students usually need careful guidance in economic matters before they meet the problems of society. While all the blame for results should not be placed upon the teacher, the following quotation lends significant information on the subject:

> Good teachers of economics are rare, and far too many students emerge from school and college with only a vague notion of the subject. Students should obtain from these courses knowledge of economic institutions and techniques, and be able to apply principles to vexing questions. Out of such instruction should come greater control of man's environment.[31]

Since Miller says the study of economics is particularly susceptible to poor teaching,[32] teachers should seek special training for teaching in this field. Some school men

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[30] Problems and Issues in Business Education, op. cit., p. 281.

[31] Loc. cit.

[32] Miller, op. cit., p. 176.

have held to the theory that "anybody can teach consumer economics." The teachers of consumership should be primarily interested in their subject and should be especially prepared for that work. Special helps by which teachers may improve their technique are visual aids. A bulletin board is a simple way in which cartoons, displays, articles, and jokes concerning consumership may be shown. Slides and films may be also used effectively in the presentation of the subject.

The silent films are used less than the talkies. Most teachers say sound pictures are the better, but according to Tonne this is not entirely true. He say some silent films will actually be better aids than talkies when certain ideas can be brought out in a commentary by the teacher.[33]

Although the stereograph is least costly of all forms of equipment it is least used. It is the only one which gives a traditional effect, and the pictures are especially vivid. Gabriel says they would be very realistic and of educational value to students of consumer education if they were prepared under supervision and guidance.[34]

Some teachers have no facilities and equipment for using silent pictures, still films, lantern slides, or stereographs. Except for the sound-film projector, the pieces of

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[33]Tonne, op. cit., p. 316.

[34]Puzant Gabriel, "Visual Aids," Methods of Teaching Consumer Education, Monograph 64, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, 1946, pp. 17-18.

equipment cost less than one hundred dollars. When schools are unable to furnish equipment Gabriel suggests that classes raise the money by sponsoring plays and other activities in the school.[35]

Still another task for the teacher of consumership is to insist on the provision for plenty of reference books for the school library so that students may have an opportunity to do efficient and valuable research.

The success of the consumership course depends largely upon the teacher, his training for teaching the subject, his initiative in procuring available materials, his resourcefulness in making use of the tools at hand, and his ability to vary the method of presentation in such a way as to keep the members of the class stimulated, interested, and at work.

Another very definite phase of consumership is buymanship. Youth often have warped ideas of thrift, and the teacher is confronted with the problem of teaching buymanship so as to free students' minds of such misconceptions. Thrift is a factor that must be instilled early in the life of the individual. The practice of thrift should be not only a desirable but also a possible goal. Haas says that in high school personal account keeping, graphs, charts, posters, class thermometers, plays, debates, and projected life "income savings" graphs all stimulate the minds of the students. He says

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[35] *Ibid.*, p. 19.

slogans, frequent visits to banks, and special assembly speakers also help in the development of thrift.[36] Thrift is perhaps the most neglected factor connected with the development of youth.

Most adults, as well as youth first spend and then save to pay the bill. Pupils should be taught to save first and spend later. They should be encouraged to have a spending plan or budget in order to know how much they can afford to spend or how much they must save.

The teaching and cultivating of buymanship should be in the hands of a trained teacher. He should teach that money is more than precious metal; it means labor and commodities, thinking and planning, work and perspiration. The pupil should have a high ideal regarding money and its use, not only in his saving, but also in his buying and investing.

Suggested by Haas are a few points which may help teachers in the presentation of buymanship:

1. Use class projects frequently to develop judgment in buying articles for school and classroom.

2. Use typical home-buying problems, with classes to determine standards and specifications needed for different products.

3. Arrange to have purchases made by pupils for themselves and their families serve as exercises in education for consumership.

4. Know local market conditions: (a) factors influencing them, (b) brands and qualities available, (c) changes in prices.

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[36]Kenneth B. Haas, "Buymanship as an Economic Prophylaxis," The Balance Sheet, January, 1936, p. 204.

5. Be familiar with present facilities for government protection of the consumer and proposed legislation.

6. Have your name placed on the mailing list for publications of the Consumers' Advisory Board, and the American Automobile Association.

7. Subscribe for Consumer's Research Bulletins.

8. Secure [sic] all available publications from the Association of University Women, Washington, D. C.

9. Write to Household Finance Corporation, Chicago, Illinois, for bulletins on buymanship.[37]

Since instructional materials for teaching buymanship are somewhat scarce, the teacher is confronted with a challenging task. In spite of the paucity of material, he may enrich the course by assigning papers or reports involving research. Pupils find interest in actual examples of the way "rackets" and "gyps" operate. They gain a useful consumer vocabulary: shoddy, dreck, schlag, mootch, gimmick, wrapup, and switch. Sucker lists and how they are made and used may also serve to give students a new point of view.[38]

Regardless of difficulties the teacher should strive to teach effectively the subject of thrift to boys and girls. National leaders during World War II demonstrated their lack of training by the gross extravagance and waste of the country's wealth, but the future leaders should be trained early to handle sensibly not only their personal finances but also those of others, which may be entrusted to them.

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[37] *Ibid.*, p. 206.

[38] *Loc. cit.*

CHAPTER X

DISTRIBUTIVE COURSES

Since distribution is about as important a factor as production in the economic system, attention is necessarily given to the distributive courses to be included in the secondary business education program. In support of this reason for including a distributive program Stewart and Demhurst say "only 41 cents of every dollar expended by American consumers for goods of various kinds goes to the producers of the goods. The other 59 cents represents the cost of production."[1]

Distributive education has been long neglected in the secondary schools of the United States. The George-Deen Act, which was passed in Congress in 1936, providing for training under Federal grants of those employed in distributive occupations has directed attention to this fact.

This type of education can be given in the public, secondary schools just as other kinds of education are offered. Because this field of business is so tremendous in its scope, much information is available for use. In verification of this Haas has the following to say:

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[1]P. W. Stewart and J. W. Demhurst, "Does Distribution Cost Too Much?" The Twentieth Century Fund, 330 42nd Street New York City.

> The distribution business in its entirety is one of the largest businesses in the United States from the standpoint of gross receipts and numbers employed. Distribution of goods and services is not mysterious; it can be taught, studied, and practiced the same as any other business or profession.[2]

Because of the fact that the number of workers employed in distributive places of business has increased to a greater extent than the number of workers in any other occupational field, the need for such training of these workers is obvious.

Many students train for academic pursuits rather than occupational pursuits just because the school program either fails to provide the training for vocations or it does not lend proper guidance for the pupils. Problems of this nature will be diminished when the schools have corrected such maladjustments in the training of individual pupils. Concurring with this idea Haas has said "the educational system must face the fact that it is a social institution set up for the purpose of inducting youth safely and swiftly into some occupationally and socially useful place in life."[3]

In further support of co-operative education for the distributive occupations, as a plan or system of training, the following quotation is submitted:

> Educators have long recognized the values inherent

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[2]Kenneth B. Haas, Distributive Education, The Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, 1941, pp. 6-7.

[3]Ibid., p. 11.

> in a system of education which combines the study program of the classroom with the practical training received in actual imployment. In a well organized, properly taught, and effectively supervised co-operative educational program, all learning factors are blended to produce greater vocational efficiency with the work experiences of the students vitalizing the study experiences of the classroom, and giving them new meaning and significance.[4]

A study of C. A. Nolan's[5] in which an analysis of the duties of employees of variety stores is given, 106 of these duties were listed on the questionnaire. According to the returns, no assistant managers believed any of these duties have to be learned in school alone. The majority of the assistant managers felt many of the duties could be learned only on the job. The fairly large number, however, which indicated a belief the duties could be learned both on the job and in school is significant. Evidently persons who are actually in business feel there is a place for as well as a real need for merchandising courses in school. Some of the duties which the assistant managers in significant numbers believed could be partly learned in school are: rating individuals on their work, analyzing job needs, learning to meet people, developing training methods, adapting training methods to an individual, learning to get along with other people, learning

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[4]Problems and Issues in Business Education, Seventh Yearbook, National Teachers Association, Bowling Green Kentucky, The Ann Arbor Press, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1941, p. 266.

[5]C. A. Nolan, A Distributive Education Program for Variety Stores, Monograph 61, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, 1945, p. 23.

to have a good personal appearance, planning things so as to keep personal credit purchases at a minimum, and also figuring turnover of goods.

Nolan's[6] plan of distributive education is a modification of an outline of job instruction developed by the United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C., which has been successfully used since 1941, in training distributive workers. This plan, where it has been used, has improved training so much that it has been highly recommended as an educational technique by the United States Office of Education. The plan will be found helpful in school courses in retailing on the secondary level. It offers valuable suggestions for improving secondary courses in salesmanship or retailing which have heretofore tended to stress theory rather than actual details of a salesperson's daily life.

Since the schools change and improve each year, much of which is a result of suggestions and ideas of the students the co-ordinator-teacher is confronted with many problems in attempting to set up classes of this type. Most co-ordinators have been confronted with the problem of the best way in which to select the students that would be able to benefit from the part-time program. A survey to see whether the particular course is needed should be made first. Although selling is one of the most popular distributive courses, vocational office

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[6]Ibid., p. 24.

practice may be offered in such a way. B. W. Quinn, teacher co-ordinator in the Luther Burbank Vocational High School, San Antonio, Texas, makes an annual survey to see whether the demand is sufficient for offering the course. Only seniors who have been taught correct procedure in interviewing for jobs are permitted to take the course. He meets the students in the mornings and contacts the businessmen in the afternoons during August. When calls come in, he contacts the students and sends them for an interview, usually placing them by September 15. All the students are doing different types of work in town. Such jobs as filing, general clerical, secretarial, and some bookkeeping are being filled. Of the 26 students in the class during 1945-1946, 24 finished the course, none went to college, and 17 of them are still working at the original training stations.[7]

A similar procedure can be followed in organizing the distributive courses in merchandising and advertising, and no teacher should hesitate to begin his survey for possibilities for any of the business courses which lend themselves to such a program.

Merchandising. The first subject for consideration on the distributive education program is merchandising. Both buyers and sellers must be taught the importance of a thorough

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[7]B. W. Quinn, Teacher Co-ordinator, Luther Burbank High School, San Antonio, Texas, Personal Interview, November, 1946.

knowledge of merchandise. Haas supports this theory in saying "among the abilities essential for success in retail-store selling work are social and merchandising abilities."[8]

Merchandising involves social contacts in which social adaptability is extremely essential, but schools have not provided instruction for the development of social ability other than through personality development. In this connection the teacher has a tremendous task in giving information that will help students improve in their making social adaptations.

The organization of a course in merchandising should seek to develop merchandising ability by emphasizing the necessity of keeping informed on the latest facts concerning both old and new commodities and also customers' reactions to the changes affecting the buying and using of these products. The employed student after realizing the importance of merchandising information is eager to acquire it, retain it, and make active use of it.

An important component of merchandising ability is selling ability. Retail selling, particularly, is a very potent factor of the entire business activity. In 1939, out of 3,948,000 business establishments of all kinds, enumerated in the Bureau of the Census, retailing and service establishments accounted for 1,770,355, or 58 percent of the total, employing 7,500,000 persons.[9]

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[8]Haas, op. cit., p. 32.

[9]Kenneth B. Haas, "Beyond the Horizon of Distributive Education," The Balance Sheet, May, 1945, p. 353.

The tremendous activity of selling calls for more efficient training for the job than has ever been known, and the secondary school is faced with the problem of accomplishing this objective. Recent studies of occupational trends emphasize the need for better training for those who are to enter or who are now engaging in distributive occupations.[10] Business educators recognize the problem and are very much concerned with its solution, but they are not agreed upon the best method to follow. General salesmanship courses have been given as part of the business education program in secondary schools for many years. The value of such courses, therefore, have been rather generally agreed upon; but the content and method have received little uniformity of opinion. The Personnel Group of the National Retail Dry Goods Association report that pre-employment retail training, including such courses as principles of retail distribution, elementary store organization, and the techniques of buying and selling applied to customer reactions are elements that would be generally accepted in a preparatory high school program if it is followed by co-operative part-time merchandising.[11]

The content of the merchandising course should include:

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[10] Problems and Issues in Business Education, op. cit., p. 276.

[11] Ibid., p. 278, citing Determining the Limits of Pre-employment Retail Training, Personnel Group Report, National Retail Dry Goods Association, New York City, 1939.

development of selling methods, the buyer-seller relationship, qualities of the effective salesman, improving selling practice, adequate preparation, establishing acceptance, arousing the buying attitude, keeping the selling attitude, dramatization of sales, favorable classification, conviction, removing sales obstacles, inducing action, applying the principles in special fields, applying the principles in retail selling, and salesmen and their problems.[12]

Many courses have been developed and books have been written on the psychology of selling, but the teacher should keep in mind the three basic principles suggested by Engle as he attempts to teach students to become successful sales people:

> 1. The salesman must enjoy working with people. . . . There is no salesman "type." Anybody who tries to develop a pleasing personality can be a successful salesman.
>
> 2. The salesman is a teacher; the prospective buyers are his students. . . . An important factor in successful selling is the knowledge of the specific merchandise or service being sold and the ability to teach this information to prospective customers. . . . Just as a good school teacher cannot know too much about the subject he is teaching, so the good salesman-teacher cannot know too much about the merchandise or service that he is selling.
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> 3. Persistence is necessary for successful selling. No salesman makes a sale every time he makes an attempt . . . the salesmen who persist receive the most orders.[13]

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[12]H. K. Nixon, Principles of Selling, Second Edition, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1942, pp. ix-xiii.

[13]T. L. Engle, "A Short Course in the Psychology of Selling," The Balance Sheet, April, 1945, p. 327.

By some, salesmanship has been based upon two sciences, psychology and philosophy. Fernald[14] says "psychology, or a 'study of human nature,' as it may be called, comes into play every day in the life of the average salesman." Evidently the salesman must make a careful study of human nature in order to know his prospects and get them quickly.

The teacher of this course should stress the importance of the psychology of salesmanship. Many high school students who are enrolled in salesmanship will have an opportunity to do part-time selling in the local stores, and to these the psychology of selling can be obtained through both theory and practice simultaneously.

Three basic principles for successful selling should be taught according to Engle: (1) the salesman must enjoy working with people, (2) the salesman is a teacher; the prospective buyers are his students, and (3) persistence is necessary for successful selling.[15] Engle also says that the student salesman, particularly, should be taught (1) to greet customers with a smile and a cheerful word, (2) to memorize the opening and possibly the closing sentences so long as they do not become stereotyped, (3) to get the customer to handle the merchandise, (4) to make it easy for the customer to

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[14]Charles H. Fernald, Salesmanship, Third Edition, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York City, 1945, p. 4.

[15]T. L. Engle, "A Short Course in the Psychology of Selling," The Balance Sheet, April, 1946, pp. 327-336.

dictate his choice, (5) to ask questions which the customer will likely answer by "yes," (6) to refrain from argument, (7) to place too little of the product on the scales rather than too much, (8) to keep the customer's attention focused on the merchandise, (9) to tell the customer about his own satisfactory experiences in using the article or about the experiences of other satisfied customers, and (10) to close the sales interview under pleasant conditions whether the customer buys or not.[16]

The course in salesmanship can be made considerably more interesting and most practical if, in teaching the theory of the subject, all the pupils can have an opportunity to obtain actual selling experience along with the theory. Of course this is hardly possible in all classes, but even so, the course may be so vitalized as to procure sufficient interest among all students.

In one semester little more than fundamentals of selling and personality development can be touched. Relander[17] says that just talking about personality does not develop it. She advocates having each class member select a trait which he wishes to improve or develop and write it in his book. Then at some future date class time is to be given to a bit of

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[16] Loc. cit.

[17] Geraldine Relander, "Making Salesmanship Live," The Balance Sheet, September, 1946, pp. 10-11.

introspection, and each one is to ask himself, "Have I improved, and if not, what more can I do?" She also gives time for taking her class to the gymnasium for a series of exercises to correct bad posture. In her effort to teach responsibility, several business houses were asked to co-operate in allowing groups of students from the class decorate windows. After the windows were completed the entire class inspected the windows, got the managers' comments, and later held a class discussion of the project.

The teacher must take into account the qualities which each student must develop in order to sell successfully. He must train the students to be willing workers, to be their own masters, and to know that much can be learned from others by keeping the ears and minds open.[18]

Certainly the fundamentals of salesmanship must be taught. Knox[19] says that when a student has mastered the fundamentals and their application he has learned how to think from cause to effect; that he knows how to sell, whether it is behind a counter, selling services, selling real estate, or anything else. The fundamentals as he sees it are: the salesman himself, the customer, the article to be sold, and

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[18]Donald B. Tonsill, So You're Going to Sell, Garden City Publishing Company, Inc., Garden City, New York, 1946, pp. 15-16.

[19]James Samuel Knox, Salesmanship and Business Efficiency, School Edition, The Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, 1926, (Introduction).

the psychological process known as making the sale. To teach merely the fundamentals of salesmanship alone, however, is to fail in developing the best salesmanship in the student. One of the most popular topics for discussion whenever teachers of merchandising get together is what subjects can provide the best background for store employment. Likely one pattern can never be set up to meet adequately the many different retail training situations. One approach is to find what the graduates of such a program think about the usefulness of the subjects they have taken. In a study made by Beckley[20], students admitted the need for fundamentals of selling but added that public speaking, more writing experience, and training in human relations would have made a desirable addition to their business course. Many believed more thorough training in business mathematics, bookkeeping, and typing would have been profitable.

The course in salesmanship can rarely include all the student needs for equipping him fully to enter the field of selling, but if not, the business education curriculum should provide for the necessary contemporary courses.

The success of the course in salesmanship, whether it be under the in-service plan or not, depends upon the start. Concurring with this idea is Miller's statement:

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[20]Donald K. Beckley, "Looking at Distributive Education," The Journal of Business Education, March, 1946, p. 35.

> First of all, the teacher should have a firm and abiding faith in his ability to control the thought and action of his pupils. Second, he should believe that he has in this subject an instrument of the greatest value in molding the lives and characters of his pupils. Third, he should feel that this class is made up of the best boys and girls in the land who are ready and anxious to prepare themselves for life's work. Under these conditions, success is assured.[21]

The teacher may begin without a textbook. He should discuss with the students the importance of having an aim in life, and should get the students' confidence by showing interest in their plans. Since the best salesman is the one who gets his prospect to feel he has a personal interest in him, the teacher must sell the course to the students in the same way.

The course in salesmanship can be vitalized by procuring the life history of those who have come up from obscurity to a place of prominence in the field of merchandising. The life of such a character as John Wanamaker furnishes an inspirational study for prospective business people. Another source of inspiration is the practice of enlisting the services of salesmen and business men of the community to give inspirational and informative talks to the class. Teachers find most men co-operative in this matter.

The number of written and oral reports required may be about equal. Written sales talks prove interesting and

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[21]Jay Wilson Miller, Methods in Commercial Teaching, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, Cincinnati, Ohio, 1925, pp. 153-154.

helpful. The recitation may be further stimulated by open discussion, illustrations from actual experiences, and demonstrations.

Probably no other subject lends itself more completely to practical applications than does salesmanship. Miller[22] also says atheletics offer chances for organizing a sales force to advertise and sell tickets for games; and that dramatics, concerts, lectures, school drives, and community activities offer similar opportunities.

Managers of stores are always willing to receive the class on a field tour through their organizations, and to use the students in selling positions on off hours and days at fair wages. These activities add attraction to the course since many of the part-time students may make permanent positions for themselves through them. The ambitious teacher who properly vitalizes his teaching of salesmanship need have no fear of failure in the course.

Under the co-operative or part-time program, students enrolled in retail selling classes attend school part time and work an average of at least fifteen hours a week in a co-operative retail or wholesale business. Each student is placed in a training station or job on a part-time basis where he is given actual experience in selling. Usually the employer gives special help to the student and reports the progress of each

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[22]Ibid., pp. 157-158.

student to the co-ordinator-teacher periodically.[23] In this way the teacher can better establish the course to fit the student's need.

A co-ordinator-teacher is confronted with many problems in setting up his classes for this type of work. Each year the schools are revising and changing their programs. Many of these changes come about through suggestions and ideas presented by the students. One problem is to discover the best way in which to select students that would best benefit from these courses. One way to handle this problem is through the co-ordinator-teacher, who talks to each junior class in the spring of the year, explaining the course and answering students' questions. Students who are interested may then fill a questionnaire, with such information listed as personal data, future plans, school grades, credits, work experience, and reasons for wanting to study the course. The information gathered in this way furnishes the possiblility for the co-ordinator to contact business openings and fit students to the particular jobs.[24]

A big problem of the co-operative retail selling teacher also is providing school instruction that is directly supplemental to the work done by students in the stores. Because

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[23]William B. Runge, "Evaluating a Co-operative Part-Time Retail Selling Program," The Balance Sheet, October, 1946, p. 52.

[24]Loc. cit.

each student does a different job, the teacher must either prepare to give individual instruction or he must control the jobs held by students so as to chart their experiences in a uniform sequence which can be covered systematically in the school.[25]

Certainly co-operative part-time selling classes in secondary schools have a future, and other vocational departments can and should work out a similar plan for their more advanced students. For this reason teacher-training institutions should give some attention to the preparation of instructors who in turn can go into the school systems and help prepare these students who go into the field of merchandising and selling.

Whether the school is located in a city or a small town, the business houses usually provide enough jobs to care for the students in the co-operative, part-time classes in selling. No teacher, therefore, should hesitate to begin his survey for possibilities in this line of work.

Advertising. One of the quickest and most effective aids to merchandising is advertising. Extended research has found no selling aid comparable to advertising. For this reason more than half the printing presses of the United States are busy turning out advertising material having artistic

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[25]Louise S. Hitchcock, "Co-operative Retail Selling," The Balance Sheet, March, 1945, p. 259.

merit equivalent to that of materials turned out by any other presses of the country. Wise advertising is, therefore accepted as a necessary part of modern business promotion. It has won a place in almost every industry, and has proved that it can return an excellent profit to the advertiser. The old adage "It Pays to Advertise" should be modified because unwise advertising results in a waste of time, effort, and money. For this reason intensive training, knowledge of human nature, appreciation of artistic values, familiarity with the tools of advertising, and wide experience are necessary to successful advertising.[26] At this point, however, in the field of advertising the chief concern is with a suitable program for the training of the secondary school student.

Advertising began with civilization and grew up with it. Some form of advertising accompanied the first practices of barter. In the earliest period of man's progress, some method of letting people know what surplus goods were possessed and what the qualities of the goods were existed. In ancient times the advertising was carried on by word of mouth or display of goods. A relic of this form of advertising is found in the barker who shouts his wares at expositions of one form or another.[27]

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[26]Edward J. Rowse and Louis J. Fish, Fundamentals of Advertising, Fourth Edition, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, 1943, p. iii.

[27]Ibid., p. 1.

The earliest form of written advertising was in 1000 B. C., prepared on papyrus by an Egyptian slave owner who advertised for a runaway slave. In Rome advertisements were written on the walls and windows of shops. With the invention of typography in A. D. 1440, the way was paved for tremendous progress in literacy and in the general enlightenment of the people. By this invention the printed handbill and newspaper were made possible, and hence the various forms of modern journalism and advertising were made possible.[28]

Large companies today spend millions of dollars in advertising, and civilization is wonderfully enhanced by it. In this regard, former President Wilson once said:

> It is a generally recognized fact that the general raising of the standards of modern civilization among all our people during the last half-century would have been impossible without the spreading of the knowledge of those higher standards by means of advertising.[29]

The general aims in teaching advertising are many. A few listed by Axtell follow:

> 1. To enable the student to see the difference between the advertisement of 50 years ago and the advertisement of today.
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> 2. To adapt the content of the course to the personal needs of the student with regard to his future life in the community.
>
> 3. To give the student a general knowledge of the field of advertising and to aid him in making a vocational decision.

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[28] Ibid., pp. 2-5.

[29] Woodrow Wilson, cited by Robert Ray Aurner, "Advertising--Is It True," The Balance Sheet, November, 1938, p. 113.

4. To inform the student of the mechanics of advertising and how they are put into organization.

5. To help the student develop the ability to know the good and the poor mediums and the ability to evaluate.[30]

Axtell also lists some specific teaching aims in the following:

1. To develop in the student a working knowledge of the fundamental techniques necessary in the preparation of advertising for print.

2. To familiarize the student with these fundamental techniques by practical examples secured from local engravers or newspaper publishers.

3. To drill the student in copy, its different kinds, the need of thorough investigations before writing the copy, the study of good copy, and the creation of his own advertisement.

4. To prepare the student in the study of the market and the use of the correct medium by conducting local campaigns.

5. To familiarize the student with the vocational possibilities of the many branches of advertising, its close alliance to the rest of the business world, the type of person who will be successful in this field, and the remuneration.[31]

The course in advertising is closely related to English composition, art, journalism, economics, printing, and salesmanship. Advertising should follow these courses, particularly salesmanship. The course should be offered in the senior year of the student for only a half year of study.

A good text book furnishes the principles involved

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[30]Roland B. Axtell, "Suggested Outline for a Course in Advertising," The Balance Sheet, February, 1933, pp. 268-269.

[31]Loc. cit.

in advertising; and supplementary materials such as other texts, current magazines, and other publications may be introduced through individual reports.

To further vitalize the course, formal discussions may be introduced. Debates on such subjects as whether advertising pays, correct media for advertising, and similar discussions prove very interesting for class use. Informal discussions led by the teacher or by a student on questions of interest or differences of opinion always add to the course. Still another interest-getting scheme is the use of questions at the end of chapters in the textbooks which furnish thought-provoking problems for the students to present orally or in written form.

For notebook work many teachers find that collecting advertisements from current publications and using them for criticism proves helpful. Information gained here will be of distinct benefit to the student when he gets into the advertising field. Hamford has amply supported this idea in the following:

> . . . all advertising plans concerned either with promotion of the company as an institution or organization, or with product advertising to business executives and officials, should give earnest consideration to these business-consumer magazines and newspapers.[32]

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[32]Mabel Potter Hansford, Advertising and Selling Through Business Publications, Harper & Brothers, New York City, 1938, p. 30.

Graphs showing local and national conditions of population, the number of people reached, and the number of potential buyers make fine and interesting projects. Another project equally as well suited to the course is charts which show the cost of advertising per buyer reached through newspapers, local billboards, house-to-house canvassing, and radios.[33]

An extremely important phase of the course is the proof reading of copy and diagraming type sizes and faces, space, and layout. A term survey on some interesting problem, a few field trips to include observation of the local newspaper plant, and a complete community survey should also be included.[34]

The teacher may procure many practical aids to teaching advertising. He will find editors, linotype operators, merchants, and representatives of advertising agencies cooperative in giving talks to the classes. Many useful references from which the teacher may draw helpful and stimulating information are: Printer's Ink, Advertising and Selling, Class, Editor and Publisher, Poster, and Associated Advertising. References for pupils consist of Saturday Evening Post, Collier's, Liberty, and many pamphlets issued by Better Business Bureaus. Mailing requests for catalogs of the various

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[33] Loc. cit.

[34] Loc. cit.

mail-order companies usually gets publications that make very helpful references.[35]

The advertising course should not be filled with theories of what could be accomplished; it should show what is being done. Advertising creates a want; salesmanship supplies that want. For this reason Thomas[36] says we need to teach both advertising and salesmanship in our commercial curriculum.

The content of the secondary school course in advertising may well include the place and function of advertising, selling through advertising, the mechanics of advertising, advertising media, and advertising procedures.[37]

The course in advertising should be taught with the idea in mind that students may be operating a business some time, and that they must know the essentials of the importance of advertising in merchandising.

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[35]Loc. cit.

[36]Harold W. Thomas, "The Place of Salesmanship, Advertising, and Marketing, in the Revised Commercial Curriculum," The Balance Sheet, November, 1936, pp. 114-116.

[37]Rowse and Fish, op. cit., pp. v-x.

CHAPTER XI

VOCATIONAL COURSES

A last group of courses in which some interest is shown in this study is the vocational subjects. Photography, millinery, and cosmetology are being offered now in a very few schools on the secondary level, and some desire is shown for such subjects as barbering and cleaning and pressing.

Students who plan to leave school either before or after high school graduation, find training in vocational courses to fit them for a necessary trade. These courses are a few which could be placed in the high school curriculum with meager equipment and at rather low expense. In these courses students could earn while they learn, and this possibility would appeal to the student who finds it difficult or impossible to defray his expenses of high school training.

The laboratory training and actual practice in rendering service to students and the public in such courses would furnish a miniature business organization in which students of business education would be able to get business experience in the school program as well as the distributive group of courses which allow the students to obtain experience in the down-town stores as part-time workers.

Photography. The secondary school course in which most interest is usually shown by students wishing to prepare for a vocation is photography. Since photography is coming to be a tool used in almost every profession and in many occupations, secondary school courses may well serve as a foundation for subsequent advanced work in the field.

The course in photography occurs in secondary schools most frequently as an extra-curricular activity, but a few schools in this study offer it as a credit course. The teacher who is an avid amateur of photography always attracts students who have similar interests. The extra-curricular or camera-club activity is an ideal arrangement from many points of view. For instance, it avoids the crowding of another course into an already over-crowded schedule. More than 4000 clubs of this nature are in existence today.[1] Camera club activities are associated with photography as a hobby or leisure-time activity, but they have often served as a basis for organizing a credit course.[2]

The primary objectives in a secondary school course in photography are as follows:

> 1. To give the student an understanding of basic photography so that his practice of photography will be an intelligent application of principles rather than a blind application of rules of thumb.

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[1]Adrain Terlouw, "Teaching Photography," The Complete Photographer, Education Alliance, Inc., New York City, 1946, p. 3380.

[2]Loc. cit.

2. To give the student sufficient and varied practical experience so that he will be familiar with common procedure in photography and develop efficient working methods.

3. To give the student sufficient background in theory to permit him to use new products effectively and apply new technical information to his photographic work.

4. To impart a knowledge of the use of photography as an implement in many professions and occupations.[3]

A few objectives of a secondary nature are listed by the different teachers of photography, and consideration may as well be given to them along with the primary objectives:

1. To integrate information drawn from physics, chemistry, fine arts, industrial arts, and related fields.

2. To develop an appreciation of photography as a medium of artistic expression.

3. To develop photography as a worthwhile leisure-time activity.[4]

Should a school wish to begin its exploration in photography simply as a camera-club activity, the following objectives are applicable:

1. To explore photography as a group activity.

2. To provide an opportunity for the students to engage in photography as a leisure-time activity.

3. To serve as a medium for correlating photography with other school activities (school publications, dramatics, sports, classroom aids, etc.).

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[3]*Ibid.*, pp. 3380-3381.

[4]*Loc. cit.*

4. To afford an opportunity for students to follow their individual interests in photography further than the time available in the course would permit.[5]

Many students will probably feel that their interest in photography does not call for a study as that offered by the regular credit course. Such students may find that the camera-club program will adequately take care of their aspirations in photography.

A question of prerequisites enters into the setting up of a course in photography. Teachers should insist that their students study plane geometry and a quantitative course in science before coming into the study of photography. The schools that have attempted courses in photography have had less trouble in getting students to qualify for the study of it than they have had in procuring teachers who were qualified to teach it properly. Today with the many colleges and universities offering photography, a supply of well-trained teachers will soon be available for teaching the secondary school course.

Another problem with which schools are confronted in their attempts to offer courses in photography is the procuring of adequate textbooks. Many books have been written as texts for specific sources, yet they seem incomplete as to the textbook requirements. Because the advancement in photography has been so rapid, textbooks have failed to keep pace with it. This has forced teachers to supplement texts with trade papers

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[5]*Loc. cit.*

and other publications. Verification of this statement is found in the following quotation:

> Photographic manufacturers today supply much technical information in their "data sheets." By relating this information to the work in the studio and darkroom, the instructor can give his students an appreciation of the significance of this datum that will prove extremely valuable when they have finished the course and are on their own.[6]

In 1940, a conference was conducted by the Women's Institute of Professional Relations at which outstanding photographers of all kinds were present. School administrators may be interested to know that a group of leaders in photographers of all kinds in the field of illustrative, commercial, portrait, and theatrical photography, presented unanimously a belief that these hold very little opportunity for a successful career except for those of unusual ability. Another group representing specialized fields such as photographic services to expeditions, art museums, medicine, and professional fields were unanimous in their insistence that success depended upon a sound photographic training coupled with a familiarity with the field being served.[7]

Perhaps the best way to get results in teaching basic photography is to offer a simple course that aims to teach the contents of a prescribed textbook and a series of standard laboratory exercises, so long as a homogeneous grouping

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[6] *Loc. cit.*

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 3368.

of students can be had. In cases of heterogeneous grouping, teachers must expend more effort in making group divisions of the class according to the background and objective of the students.[8]

Many teachers are given the task of teaching photography because of their activities as amateur photographers. Although they are confident of their competency to make pictures for their own gratification, they find that teaching it to others is quite another matter. Teachers have had no opportunity to take courses in methods of teaching photography because none are offered. Most photography teachers say that ideal syllabi for the presentation of such a course do not exist because photography does not lend itself to a simplified treatment of this kind.

Teachers will find help in the following course of study for classes in photography:

1. Orientation.
2. Basic darkroom procedure--printing film processing, and preparing solutions.
3. Basic camera technique--cameras and lenses, picture shapeness, and light and exposures.
4. Enlarging.
5. Photographic materials--kinds of film and their uses, filters, and photographic papers.
6. Making pictures that people like.
7. Lighting--principles of lighting and informal portraiture.
8. Exhibit prints and albums.
9. Vocational orientation.
10. Pictures that speak--the camera as a reporter--slides and transparencies.

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[8]*Loc. cit.*

11. The miniature camera--optical advantages and fine grain processing.
12. Action photography--sports photography.
13. Viewpoint and perspective.
14. Color photography--principles, lighting for color, and printed colored photographs.
15. Pictures for publications.
16. Pictures of little things--close-ups and photomicrography.
17. Copying and microfilming.
18. Motion pictures.[9]

Necessary facilities include a combination studio and classroom the walls of which can be used as backgrounds and a darkroom with sink and a sufficient number of trays to accommodate each student, linoleum-covered benches, storage cabinets and supplies, and safelights.

The classroom should include a large work table, dry-mounting iron, paper trimmers, and retouching stands.[10] The combination classroom and studio may easily accommocate this necessary set of equipment.

Essential chemicals include pyro, paraphenylene diamene, glycin, sodium bisulfite, metabisulfite, citric acid, kodalk, borax, and boric acid. Since chemicals may be sensitive to heat, cold, air, or light, the darkroom worker should be familiar with the properties of those chemicals which he uses in order that he can take proper precautions in handling and storing them, thus reducing possible waste and spoilage

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[9]Ibid., pp. 3380-3386.

[10]Bill F. Stokes, Instructor, The Texas School of Photography, Commerce, Texas, (Personal Conference), January, 1947.

to a minimum.[11] Teachers should instruct the students very carefully in the proper use and care of chemicals.

Teachers of photography have to expend little effort to vitalize the course. Students become intensely interested from the outset, even though their interests are varied. To one student photography is a hobby, another a science, and to still others it may be an art, craft, tool, a casual pastime, or a basic interest.[12] Whatever the interest is, the teacher's problem is to guide the student in such a way as to have him realize satisfaction from his efforts. Photography is a coming vocational course which would make a commendable addition to even an over-crowded secondary curriculum.

Cosmetology. A comparatively new vocational field is found in cosmetology which is being taught mainly in private or special schools organized for the express purpose of teaching cosmetics and beauty culture. Today a few secondary public schools have begun to offer instruction in it, and many other schools have recognized its importance.

Probably no one dreamed in 1850, that the cosmetics and the beauty industry would reach such gigantic proportions which it enjoys today. In the past, aids to beauty were regarded with ridicule. Socrates referred to it as "a short-

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[11]Morris Germain, Darkroom Handbook and Formulary, Ziff-Davis Publishing Company, New York City, 1940, pp. 23-24.

[12]Thomas H. Miller and Wyatt Brummitt, This Is Photography, Garden City Publishing Company, New York City, 1945, pp. 259-260.

lived tyranny," Theophrastus called it a "silent fraud," and Juvenal bitterly satirized the women's faces as being bedaubed and lacquered o'er."[13] Despite such comments, Romaine says "there still stands the eternal fact, that the world has as yet allowed no higher mission to women than to be beautiful."[14]

Before 1920, beauty shops were comparatively few in number; but the bobbed-hair craze came in the early 1920's, requiring special care to have the hair look well. Within the next two years mechanical methods of waving attracted an ever-increasing trade to beauty shops. Between 1920 and 1930, American women spent $250,000,000 for permanent waves alone, and this type of service continues to be one of the major activities of the business.[15]

In 1920, fewer than 8000 cosmetologists were employed in the United States, but in 1938, over 300,000 persons were estimated as being engaged in beauty-parlor work, either as employees or active proprietors.[16] Because of the rapid and steady growth of this trade, many are being attracted to it.

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[13]Lawrence B. Romaine, "Cosmetic Comment--1858," Hobbies, May, 1941, p. 115.

[14]Ibid., p. 116.

[15]Edith E. Gordon and H. B. McCoy, Establishing and Operating a Beauty Shop, United States Armed Forces Institute, Madison, Wisconsin, 1945, p. 41.

[16]Job Descriptions for Domestic Service and Personal Service Occupations, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., June, 1939, p. 102.

Beauty culture is a profession or vocation based on competence and efficiency; and yet it requires the full play of the artistic, the sense of beauty, and the unbounded scope of imagination. The beauty culturist is called the artisan and artist combined.

Cosmetology deals with the science and art of beauty culture; science consists of the knowing, art in the doing. A course in the subject should present the basic forms in a sufficiently flexible and adaptable manner as to make them usable for whatever routine is followed at the salon which a person may operate or one in which he may be employed.[17]

Secondary school students who look forward to a vocation at the completion of high school, will find great possibilities in cosmetology. The beauty business is not just witchcraft and frippery. Progress made by many companies in recent years is astounding.[18]

A course which is to prepare a student for such a business should include the following theory content:

1. Hygiene, sanitation, and sterilization.
2. Anatomy and physiology.
3. Disease of the skin, scalp, and hair.
4. Electricity.
5. Facial treatments.
6. Manicuring, hand and arm massage, and pedicuring.
7. Scalp treatments.
8. Shampoos and rinses.

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[17]Constance V. Kibbe, Standard Textbook on Cosmetology, Milady Publishing Corporation, New York City, 1941, (Foreword).

[18]"The Fountain of American Beauty," Harper's Bazaar, March, 1934.

9. Hair tinting, bleaching, and shampoo tints.
10. Hair cutting.
11. Marcel waving.
12. Finger and water waving.
13. Permanent waving.
14. Hair styling and makeup.
15. Electrolysis.
16. Manufacture of hair goods.
17. Chemistry.
18. Cold wave methods of permanent waves.
19. Beauty salon management.
20. How to correct faulty posture.[19]

Practice and demonstration should always accompany the theoretical study throughout the course.[20] For this reason, therefore, the classroom should be equipped with materials for carrying out the instruction in this way. The classroom should be arranged in the same fashion as the beauty shop if possible. The most ideal arrangement for shops is outlined by Gordon and McCoy who say:

> When the beauty shop is divided into booths for customer privacy and efficiency of operation each booth should be furnished with sufficient equipment to permit the operator to work quickly and comfortably. Time is wasted and many unnecessary steps taken if the operator is obliged to go from one booth to another to get the articles she needs for her work.
>
> Each booth should be furnished with a combination dresser and bowl, which can be either the wall or the floor type, with a mirror large enough for both patron and operator to look into as the work progresses. There should be a comfortable and roomy chair for the patron. A stool might well be provided for the operator.[21]

For purposes of teaching cosmetology, a classroom may

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[19]Kibbe, op. cit., pp. ii-iv.

[20]Ibid., (Foreword).

[21]Gordon and McCoy, loc. cit.

have a similar layout and much less equipment than are usually found in the up-to-date beauty shop. A swivel chair and a footrest should be provided for the patron, and small, inexpensive rubber or fiber mats for the teacher or operator to stand on lessen work strain. At least one wet sterilizer for combs, brushes, and other articles in common use should be furnished. Other necessary equipment includes a permanent-wave machine, properly installed, shampooing equipment, dryers, manacure equipment, facial machines, and supply cabinets.[22]

Teachers of cosmetology should avail themselves of two pamphlets that are found useful: Better Buymanship--Use and Care, Cosmetics, No. 12, Household Finance Corporation, Chicago, Illinois, and Cosmetics in Use, The Crowell-Collier Publishing Company, New York City, 1945.

Little, if any, has been done in the method of presentation of the subject of cosmetics. One requisite for the added success in teaching the course is a complete and modern textbook. The careful study of charts, diagrams, and drawings in the textbook will help materially in the work. Confirming this thought is a quotation from Barrett who says:

> It is an established fact that we receive 83% of our impressions through the eyes and 13% through the ears. Science now recognizes visual education as the outstanding method of teaching.[23]

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[22]Ibid., pp. 42-44.

[23]Dean Barrett, The Van Dean System of Beauty Culture, The Van Dean Company, Publishers, Indianapolis 4, Indiana, 1945, p. 13.

The fact that the theory in the course may be actually demonstrated in the classroom gives the student an advantage. If the student is well trained in the subject, she may be able to teach effectively by allowing the students to put into actual practice the textbook theory. For this course, schools may have to employ teachers whose academic rating is rather low, but after the course has been in the curriculum for several years, college graduates will have had training for its teaching. Historically, the first teachers of shorthand and typewriting in public schools and colleges were only business-college graduates.

In view of the rapid growth that cosmetology has experienced in America and the business possibilities in the field, schools that can possibly put a course into their curriculum will have helped many girls into a profitable life work.

Millinery. Because women have always felt that millinery was something beyond their power of accomplishment, the secondary schools have been negligent of it as a vocational course. The idea that great talent and highly specialized training are necessary for the successful making of hats has fostered this belief.

Creative talent and special training are all that is necessary for a girl to become a real designer of hats. Since not more than fifty actual style originators existed in the

United States in 1925, the non-professional or home women needed not be designers, but merely specialized adapters of ideas.[24]

A course in millinery then would seek to offer the principles and processes of construction. This knowledge is not so deep and difficult of attainment but that any girl of average intelligence can master it. After the study of such a course, any home girl or woman with average good taste and judgment can very quickly learn to copy or adapt the styles she needs from having seen them in shops or style magazines. A girl wishing to operate a shop of her own, may do so after she has mastered the practical and technical principles taught in the high school course. Millinery like any other technical skill such as music, painting, cooking, or sewing, attains perfection only through the application of principles rather than the perusal of them.

The content of a course in millinery should include wire frames, molded frames, pattern frames, crowns, staple millinery materials, cutting materials, the fabric hat, braid hats, transparent hats, draped hats, tailored trimmings, dress-hat trimmings, cleaning and remodeling, color harmony as applied to the individual, and line harmony.[25]

The necessary supplies and equipment for the course in millinery are listed by Bottomley. The first requisite

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[24]Jane Loewen, Millinery, The Macmillan Company, New York City, 1925, pp. v-vi.

[25]Loc. cit.

is a well lighted classroom, not direct rays of the sun but a strong light diffused through a thin curtain or frosted glass. A good table for the work is the next consideration; a plain kitchen table with a drawer fills all requirements. The table should be covered with white cotton cloth doubled several times, and the cloth should be such that the nap will not rub off. The cloth should be made secure by lightly tacking it underneath the edges of the table in such a manner that it can be easily removed for laundrying. Comfortable chairs which are low enough to allow the feet to rest squarely on the floor without undue pressure on the edge of the seat should be provided. A spool rack should be furnished, and this can be prepared by the use of a small piece of wood into which several headless nails have been driven. The wood should be hard and sufficiently heavy and broad to hold the spools upright without turning over. A flat tray for pins is far better than a cushion, for the pins are just as easily picked from the tray, and they can be dropped into the tray much faster than they can be placed into a cushion after they have been taken from the material.[26]

The beginning student needs the following list of furnishings for the course:

1. One spool of white millinery thread No. 24.
2. One spool of black millinery thread No. 24.

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[26]Julia Bottomley, A Complete Course in Millinery, The Illustrated Milliner Company, New York City, 1919, pp. 6-8.

3. One spool of ordinary white sewing thread No. 60.
4. One spool of ordinary black sewing thread No. 60.
5. One paper of millinery needles No. 5.
6. One paper of sharps No. 8 for fine work.
7. One apron, 1 tape line, 1 notebook, 1 pencil.
8. One pair of shears, 8 inches long.
9. One pair of smaller scissors, with sharp points.
10. One wooden foot rule, 1 pair of millinery pliers.
11. One paper of pins, 1 piece of white brace wire.
12. One piece of black brace wire, 1 spool of black tie wire.
13. One spool of white tie wire, 1 spool of uncovered tie wire.[27]

Other materials can be purchased as needed. A flat basket should be kept on the table, with all the tools of construction in it. In the basket should be a few aluminum thimbles, for it never pays to expend time in hunting anything during the class period. The spool rack, basket, and pin tray should be kept on the table, and the table together with all the work on hand can be covered at night with a cloth. The remaining furnishings can be placed in the drawer of the table. The work table should always be near a gas plate or stove on which a teakettle can be kept for steam. An electric iron and also an electric-steam iron should be readily accessible. Millinery thread, millinery needles, millinery wires, millinery pliers, and a notebook are other necessary articles.

The factory-made hat has become an important factor in the millinery business, and this has caused a great change in the bulk of hat-making.[28] Since the tastes and styles of

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[27]Loc. cit.

[28]Edna Bryner, Dressmaking and Millinery, The Survey Committee of the Cleveland Foundation, Cleveland, 1917, p. 47.

women are so varied and so changeable, machine work probably will never replace the handwork of milliners.

Since few schools are now offering courses in millinery and even those that are have begun comparatively recently, little has been done in methods of presentation. Usually the teachers of courses in millinery are lacking in academic training, but after they are offered a few years, high school and college graduates will be qualified to teach them. Actual practice together with the instruction offered furnishes the best plan for getting results from such a course.

Cleaning and Pressing. Another subject which might be offered in secondary schools is cleaning and pressing. Since no schools are offering such a course at present in the country, and only a few in this study expressed a desire to see it tried, only a suggested possibility will be attempted here.

The necessity of such a course is found in the fact that many dry cleaners over the country begin their operation with little knowledge of the art and learn the business just through trial and error. Costly mistakes are encountered during the first few years, thus causing the public to lose confidence in the shop and hence a loss of business for the owner. Many cleaners begin with meager equipment without a clarifying system for the solvent, and clothing is taken through cloudy or even muddy fluid which removes only oily stains. Since the

dust in clothing is the chief factor that causes wear, the materials should be cleaned in clear fluid which will remove the dust instead of adding more to them. The small operator should know the science of cleaning materials before he attempts to put it into practice as a safeguard to both the business and the customer.

Manufacturers of cleaning fluids, compounds, and the like have given out much information to the cleaners of the country, but most of the learning in this field is accomplished through actual practice under an expert cleaner whose study and experience have given him a useful and artful trade.

The classroom for such a course for both boys and girls in the secondary schools could be any ordinary classroom in which the theory of cleaning and pressing might be presented, but the school should have a laboratory adjoining the lecture room in which the students could go for actual practice and demonstrations. One combination dry and wet washing vat, steam press, clarifying tank, a tumbler or dryer, electric iron, steam iron, and table are the necessary equipment for the laboratory. A few stools for the laboratory would be helpful.

Any expert cleaner could conduct an effective course for the high school whether he had proper academic training or not until the course is offered long enough to have trained teachers, both academically and theoretically for the course.

Such a course should have a psychological effect on

students. An incentive for cleanliness, tidiness, and neatness in dress would be promoted, as well as the offering of another trade, particularly to those who do not care to go further in school than the high school program. Students would gladly furnish clothing that could be used for cleaning practice in the class laboratory. Even a small charge for the cleaning could be made to offset the expense of the laboratory.

Processes for cleaning cotton, wollen, rayon, and silk fabrics are truly intricate, and the science and art of this work should be studied, taught, demonstrated, and practiced before the student goes out to work in a cleaning plant or to operate a shop of his own. The field is open for the compilation of textbook materials in the course.

Schools interested in offering exploratory courses, or courses that have a possibility of fitting a boy or girl for a vocation will find cleaning and pressing a useful and interesting course to install.

Barbering. Another trade which might be taught to advantage in secondary schools is barbering. Although none of the public schools seem to offer instruction in this subject, a few in this study believe such a course would be helpful. The students who wish to enter the barber trade have to procure their training in a private or specialized school, usually to the exclusion of any further learning in the academic subjects. Their being forced to study the trade in

special schools has caused them to do so without finishing their public school education.

The desire to "look one's best" is almost universal, and to do so means to a considerable extent having well-groomed hair and skin. Since many centuries before Christ, barber surgeons have manicured, trimmed beards and hair, removed warts and superfluous hair, and performed other similar services for men of ancient Greece and Rome. In medieval times, the barber surgeons let blood, healed wounds, drew teeth, and cut hair. In the eighteenth century, however, the duties of barbers and surgeons became clearly differentiated, when barbering was confined to caring for the face, scalp, and hair.[29]

The usual salaries for barbers today are rather low as compared with those of many other trades. They are usually paid a salary plus a commission, amounting to $15 to $50 a week. In nearly all states barbers must be licensed and pay a registration fee.[30]

Registered assistant barbers must be 16½ years of age, and registered barbers must be 18 years of age; assistants must practice 18 months under authority of a certificate issued by the Board of Barber Examiners in Texas.[31]

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[29] Job Descriptions for Domestic Service and Personal Service Occupations, op. cit., p. 101.

[30] Ibid., p. 104.

[31] Law Governing the Practice of Barbering in Texas, State Board of Barber Examiners, Austin, Texas, 1946, p. 9.

Schools that offer barbering would first have to procure a permit from the Board of Barber Examiners. Students would have to be given instruction in scientific fundamentals of barbering; hygienic bacteriology; histology of the hair, skin, muscles, and nerves structure of the head, face, and neck; elementary chemistry relating to sterilization and antiseptics; diseases of the skin and hair; massaging and manipulating the muscles of the scalp, face, and neck; shaving, hair cutting, and bleaching and dyeing of the hair.[32]

A rather small classroom equipped with a few barber' chairs, lavatories, mirrors, electrical devices, tools, and other miscellaneous equipment would be adequate for a beginning. Regular classroom chairs could be used for seating the students during the lectures and demonstrations, and actual practice could be effected by each student taking his turn at a chair. Students of the school would patronize the apprentices sufficiently to give practice in the course.

A registered barber of the best academic background that could be obtained should be chosen to teach the classes. Perhaps after a decade or so of teaching the subject, a few high school and college-trained teachers could be procured for teaching the course. Few barbers have more than high school training, and for this reason college-trained teachers could not be had for several years after the course has been inaugurated into the secondary school curriculum.

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[32]*Ibid.*, p. 10.

A course in barbering would be profitable only in the schools which are large enough to furnish a full class or more of students interested in the trade. A few boys in almost any size school might be interested, but to equip a classroom and employ a teacher for only one or two small or medium size classes might prove unprofitable.

Schools wishing to pioneer in vocational offerings to business education students may find interest in installing necessary equipment for a course in the subject of barbering.

These are not the only vocational courses which might be placed in the business curriculum, but they represent a few that are being embraced by the field. A few of the schools investigated in this study are now offering some of them, and other schools are considering these courses as possible additions to the business program.

CHAPTER XII

BUSINESS EDUCATION CLUBS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

For the past two decades, extra-curricular activities have become an integral part of the program of general educational activities of the progressive high schools throughout America. The popularity of this phase of education is paralleled only by the present demand for secondary education itself.

One outstanding extra-curricular activity is the club organization. The business education club is a reciprocal business and pleasurable undertaking in which members work for mutual interest and professional advancement. It is a cooperative enterprise, a group of enthusiasts banded together for mutual gain and helpfulness.[1]

Training for citizenship is now being regarded as one of the primary functions of the secondary schools, and the business education club gives particular attention to this phase of educational development. For such learning to become effective, boys and girls must be allowed to practice the better qualities of citizenship.

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[1]Archibald Alan Bowle, Commercial Clubs, The Gregg Publishing Company, New York City, 1936, p. 1.

Purpose of Business Education Clubs. A business education club, like any other club, has three basic purposes: (1) to promote interest in the business world and in the study of business education subjects, (2) to encourage a social spirit by offering opportunities for wholesome social contacts, and (3) to familiarize its members with modern progressive business methods and systems, endeavoring by such means to raise and maintain a higher standard of training for business.[2]

Organization. The organization and administration of the business education club should be a school activity in the hands of the students and should be sponsored by business education teachers who are interested in club work. Kitson in this regard said:

> The club should be kept entirely under the authority of the school rather than be affiliated with a similar club in the adult community life, though the interest and patronage of a similar senior club might very naturally be solicited in the support of the club's program and work.[3]

Business education teachers who desire a club may present the idea to the students and unite their interests in organizing one, but they should leave to the students all of the work of organization and administration which they can and should do for themselves.[4]

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[2]High School Commercial Clubs, Monograph 15, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas, May, 1944, p. 5.

[3]Harry D. Kitson, Commercial Education in Secondary Schools, Ginn and Company, Dallas, Texas, 1929, p. 369.

[4]Ibid., pp. 369-370.

More interest in club activities is certain to be manifested if the students feel they themselves originate and draw up the constitution and by-laws and administer the activities of the club.

The business education club should be an outgrowth of the business education department. The first step toward its organization should be to make an official announcement by way of a bulletin through the principal's office of a meeting for all pupils interested in sucy an organization. The business education director should see that the announcement is read in each home room. Officers and a sponsor may be elected at the first meeting, and from this point the officials and sponsor may set out upon the activities for the organization.[5]

The school principal usually appoints the club sponsor, but he should not do so indiscriminately. "As a rule teachers who volunteer for sponsorships of clubs are more likely to be successful."[6] Certainly an interested teacher is the logical person to sponsor a high school club. Foster has said in this connection the following:

> Each club should be sponsored properly by a member of the faculty. Sponsors should be appointed by the principal, who should take into account their qualifications for the assignment.[7]

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[5]Charles F. Foster, Extra-Curricular Activities in High School, Johnson Publishing Company, Richmond, 1925, p. 21.

[6]Loc. cit.

[7]Loc. cit.

Students frequently make excellent suggestions as to the teacher who would make a suitable sponsor for their club, but to follow these suggestions is sometimes an unsafe practice.

Today teachers are finding that their duties aren't confined to the four walls of their classrooms; their sphere of obligations and influences extends much beyond these activities.

Some teachers volunteer their services for club assistance as soon as they become aware of the enlarged opportunities to serve boys and girls. Sponsors should attend all meetings and be ready to help promote the activities of the club at all times. Teachers should not, however, get the idea that club sponsorship is easy, for such is not the case.[8]

The officers of the club may be elected at the very first meeting of the group, and an officer is nominated by a nominating committee for each office. The name and home-room number of each officer chosen should be type-written; each officer and the sponsor should be given a copy for immediate use.

The constitution should be an outgrowth of the organization, and it should not be formulated too soon. After the group has become acquainted and thought out the plans of the

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[8]Harold D. Meyer, A Handbook of Extra-Curricular Activities in the High School, A. S. Barnes and Company, New York City, 1936, p. 279.

organization, it is ready for a constitution. The business education club constitution should contain material similar to that of any well organized club. Through the assistance of the principal and the club sponsor, the constitution may be developed, and once it is established the work should be in accordance with it.

Basis of Club Membership. Every club should formulate a definite plan by which members are to be chosen before permitting the students to join, but the welfare of the greatest number of students should be considered.

Membership is usually limited to students who are enrolled in the department of business education; but others might become interested in business education through the club activities, if they were permitted to be members of the club. Determining the number to be admitted to the club depends to some degree upon the size of the department and the number of available opportunities for club activities. Because of the educational advantages to be derived from a business education club, all business education students who desire membership should be admitted. Speaking of his business education club in the Union High School at Benwood, West Virginia, Fisher has said:

> Because of the nature of the training available through this organization, it is strongly recommended that all students of commerce subjects become active members of this club. It is the major club for commercial students, and no other school organization

> offers the same training. Students of the department sign up for this club the same as they do for their class subjects on enrollment day. They devote the school activity period once a week to club program work. The regular meetings are held every other week. The off week is used in colledting and preparing material for the following week's program.[9]

In many cases the business education club will afford the only opportunity for participation in the club life of the school. Of course the membership should be governed by the club constitution. Only students who maintain interest, attend regularly, and assume responsibility willingly should be retained as members. The main objective of the club is to help the students of business education in a supplementary way by allowing them to gain valuable business training through actual participation in activities set up for that purpose.

Some schools admit only the students who attain a given standard of scholarship in business education work and who have taken a required number of business subjects. Many schools even drop from the membership any students who fall below a certain standard in grades. Kitson says, however, "the poor students need the club work and its inspiration as much as do the brighter students."[10]

Many schools have required each member to pay dues for the purpose of defraying the expenses of the club, but other

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[9]J. Edwin Fisher, "A Commercial Club That Produces Results," The Balance Sheet, October, 1920, p. 52.

[10]Kitson, op. cit., p. 371.

schools are against such a plan, however small the amount to be charged for dues might be. Alber, head of Rosedale High School Commercial Department in Kansas City, Kansas, offers a solution to the problem of meeting the various expenses and expenditures of clubs in the following suggestion:

> We charge no dues but earn all expenses of the club, which average around $50 a year, by selling candy at the basket ball games, and Christmas cards and gift wrappings. It is spent on programs for each meeting, awards that are given at the end of the year, field trips, social events, and so on. Every year we have given a small donation to some worthy cause.[11]

All graduates who were club members at the time of their graduation may be considered honorary members and invited to participate in the club activities. Some of these honorary members who have been engaged in the business world and have learned some actual commercial situations in their work can prove very helpful to the active members.

Business Education Club Activities. One of the most important activities of a club is the program. In general, the programs should consist of inspirational, informational, and entertaining material which may be given in separate or mixed programs.[12]

The inspirational type of material may include talks on the influence of exemplary character, the value of a high

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[11]Olga Alber, "High School Commercial Clubs," The Business Education World, October, 1945, p. 80.

[12]Kitson, op. cit., p. 373.

standard of scholarship, the merit of trustworthy citizenship, and the joy of unselfishly serving the school and the community. Since high school students live primarily on an emotional plane, they are usually impressed by the challenge that comes from high ideals which are set before them by teachers.

Informational program material may include field trips, a visit to some factory or business house instead of a meeting, talks, reports, papers, demonstrations, and illustrations. These may be used for the purpose of training students how to study, revealing business opportunities, and getting and holding a job. Many times a panel discussion on a current topic proves to be helpful program material. McKown says:

> In any case, the club program should be broad enough to interest all of the members of the club and at the same time narrow enough to allow for individual development.[13]

Entertainment features may include music, readings, chalk talks, slides and moving pictures, dramatization of correct and incorrect procedures, contests in subject matter and parliamentary drill. The entertainment features should not be given an unduly large part in the program of activities. All contributions from the talent within the club will meet with appreciation and approval, but these and other features of entertainment should be given less time than is given to the inspirational and informational programs.

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[13]Harry C. McKown, School Clubs, The Macmillan Company, New York City, 1931, p. 170.

Many games, both interesting and instructive, may be used. The club sponsor should be a teacher especially capable of planning and conducting a variety of useful games. The sponsor will be able to help the club officers in their plans for special programs and socials for holidays and the special days of celebration. If the school has a dean of girls who has a definitely organized social calendar, she should be consulted in the preparation of a social program. Special committees for preparing and serving refreshments, for making the program, for arranging the decorations, designating the games, and possibly for executing a "clean-up" should be provided some time in advance of the occasion. All social programs should be prepared and approved by the sponsor, the business education director, the principal of the school, and sometimes the deans.[14]

Values Inherent in Business Education Clubs. Some writers have considered clubs as a means of procuring harmless activity among the students, but some organizations have been and still are vicious. To refer to a club as a harmless activity, however, is to give it less than faint praise. Regarding this point Fretwell has said:

> Clubs can help the pupil find new friends and learn how to be a friend by living in such a relation with at least some of his fellows. The pupils

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[14]Laura Blackburn, Our High School Clubs, The Macmillan Company, New York City, 1928, pp. 211-212.

> wish to have a good time, to have fun and more fun. The club can help the members through satisfactory activity to have fun on a higher plane. . . . The club can, and, where a wise, constructive school policy prevails, usually does, supplement the possible range of the pupil's exploratory activities.[15]

According to Fretwell the club may be considered an excellent means of aiding education instead of being "just harmless."

The formation of many clubs has been criticised very severely on the grounds of over-organization, tendency to neglect lessons, and distractions from home duties and obligations. Much validity is in these objections, but certain fundamental facts must be observed. Adolescents tend toward gregariousness, and the school is the natural center for such groupings. Should schools fail to do their part in encouraging the right sort of group action, then much less fortunate situations and associations may occur.[16]

Clubs which are in close relationship to class-room work or the various "hobby groups," will tend to arouse interest in the school work itself, and these may stimulate the study habits of pupils.[17] The business education club worthy of being recommended for schools has the opportunity: (1) to give a healthful outlet for gregarious traits of the pupils,

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[15]Elbert K. Fretwell, Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary Schools, Houghton Mifflin Company, Dallas, Texas, 1931, p. 275.

[16]Loc. cit.

[17]Riverda Harding Jordan, Extra-Classroom Activities in Secondary Schools, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York City, 1931, p. 126.

(2) to bring together like-minded boys and girls for higher development of special skills or hobbies than can be done in the classroom, (3) to give an opportunity for every pupil to develop some special trait or aptitude which may conceivably aid in his avocational life interests, (4) to serve as a breeding ground for worthwhile projects which surely will relate themselves to classroom study, (5) to serve as a substitute for less fortunate groupings of the school, and (6) to afford a medium for better acquaintance between teacher and pupil, and a better mutual understanding.

Other values expected to come through the introduction of business education club activities are worthy of consideration. The club may be used as a means of acquainting students with actual business-like situations in a way that the regular class work cannot do. Luedde adds that:

> . . . . A club of this kind stimulates the interest of the students in commercial subjects. Their ambition is aroused to continue their commercial studies after graduation. Their viewpoint is broadened and they see objectives beyond the mere routine of daily classroom recitation.[18]

In professional ways business education clubs offer endless opportunities for improving efficiency and gaining a standing in the stenographic realm.[19] Because hundreds of commercial clubs are flourishing all over the country, having

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[18]R. M. Luedde, "The Organization of Commercial Clubs," The Balance Sheet, December, 1924, p. 10.

[19]Bowles, loc. cit.

for their purpose the elevation of the profession, places membership somewhat at a premium.

Educationally the business education club offers facilities for acquiring valuable knowledge of business and its requirements of the profession, for developing ability in stenography, discussions, classes, and gaining valuable general information.[20]

A recreational advantage is made available through the commercial club by its activities which are used to develop latent talents and energies which perhaps would lie dormant in the performance of regular work, and to give rest to the faculties which are in use throughout the day.[21]

The business education club furnishes inspiration through new ideals of service by stimulating and encouraging effort toward their realization.[22]

Because the business education club provides activities through which members may mingle freely with those engaged in like pursuits and of like asperations, making new friends and cultivating old ones, a well formed social life for the members is made possible.[23]

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[20] Ibid., pp. 1-2.

[21] Loc. cit.

[22] Loc. cit.

[23] Loc. cit.

which they expect of their stenographers, the students make every effort to have their class work meet the requirements. The very existence of such a club increases the business men's respect for the progressive and alert spirit of the business department of the school.

Much publicity is given to the business education department through the activities of the club. Any department must do more than the regular class-work routine in order to get any exceptional publicity. The club programs furnish opportunities for publicity also, and by such means the whole community is made aware of the progress of the department.

Another feature of club activities which stimulated students in their school work began in 1922, when schools made an attempt to establish a point system for giving credit to students who participated in club activities.[25] Little time was needed to operate the point system, and plans were made to award a school letter of distinctive design to those students who won the extra number of merit points for their club work. Vaughan pointed out that the point system will serve to "encourage maximum participation by students and will aid in the contributions of these students to the citizenship of their school."[26]

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[25] T. H. Vaughan, "Point System and Record Card for Extra-Curricular Activities," School and Society, Volume 16, 1922, pp. 745-747.

[26] Loc. cit.

One of the foremost essentials in the life of the business individual is enthusiasm. The business education club is a means of developing this important characteristic, as well as developing strong fellowship and professional dignity.

Many personal accomplishments evolve from participation in club activities. Tact, patience, and consideration for others are developed along with enhancement of abilities in public speaking, writing, and leadership.[24]

Extending invitations to presidents, superintendents, and managers of business firms to appear before the club to speak on problems and conditions which students are apt to encounter in the business world is one way to make good business contacts. Another way in which information on the various business situations is gained is through interviews which pupils may make with business representatives in order to procure data for their own papers or talks. Still another help comes from the opportunity for students to visit offices and the various business establishments where they may expect to be employed in the future.

Through club activities some students come to realize very forcibly the necessity of thorough training for business opportunities and responsibilities. After hearing speakers from the business establishments talk on the qualifications

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[24]Ibid., pp. 204.

The business education club serves the whole community, and this service tends to create student loyalty to the school and community. Service to the school involves valuable concrete business experiences, and the club members may perform many useful tasks which would sometimes save money for the administration. Work of this kind would give valuable business training to the club members as well as the service which would be useful to the community.

A common service afforded by a business education club is that of training students in parliamentary procedure. The club life of the school is the logical training organization for knowledge that will function in the later life of the students.

As members of business education clubs, students have a unique opportunity to appear as speakers, officers, or committee chairmen and to be trained in initiative, leadership, self-control, and forceful public address.

The business education club also affords a good unit which will give further training to the students in effective business manners and ethics. More intimate relationships between teachers and pupils are established through these club activities.[27]

Conclusion. Since business education clubs have a possibility for training students not only in social relations

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[27]Kitson, op. cit., pp. 362-367.

but also in their school work, time and effort should not be spared in their organization and operation. Clubs are justified on the grounds that business education is advertised and made more popular as a field of study; that students come to understand and appreciate the business world in a better way through actual contacts with business people; that the school and community are both benefited by the existence of the club; that the student receives extra training in business which could not be had in the regular classroom instruction; and that the added social activities which are properly sponsored and conducted mean more to the welfare and training of youth than could be given through many other forms of entertainment in which they might otherwise engage.

CHAPTER XIII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study is to discover the trends and the variations existing in the instruction of business education in secondary schools of the United States and to offer a plan for its improvement.

The plan of the study involves two steps. First, the development of business education from 1732 to the present time is shown; and second, a plan is presented by which systematic organization and instruction may be offered in the secondary school level.

Data on which the study is based were procured through questionnaires sent to more than 100 secondary schools in the United States.

A historical review of the progress of business education in the United States reveals many changes from its beginning in 1732 to the present day. Early grammar schools in New York introduced business subjects for the first time, after which many private teachers, apprenticeships, and evening schools came into existence. A second period was marked by the establishment of academies and business colleges. This

era was followed by the introduction of training in business education in the public junior high school, the university schools, and the business colleges.

Business education had slow growth until after World War I when a more rapid progress was noted. A struggle to overcome criticism, and to get it inaugurated into the various schools, colleges, and universities over the country was evident. The field grew in popularity after World War I, probably because of the great demand for trained office workers for all kinds of war jobs.

Necessary physical equipment for a department of business education includes room space, furniture, equipment, and supplies. The minimum may be used in the small, poor schools; and the maximum amount and quality can be placed in the large, wealthy schools.

In the secondary schools today business education enjoys a prominent place in the curricula of the entire school system of the country. Information procured from questionnaires sent to more than 100 schools ranging in an approximate average enrollment from 300 to 1,100 students, is used in formulating a curriculum on which to base the program of instruction. The people to be trained and the conditions of instruction are taken into consideration in setting up the program. The various courses which seem worthy of a place on the program are grouped under five general headings: secretarial

courses, general courses, social courses, distributive courses, and vocational courses.

One of the chief assets to a successful business education department is the qualifications of the teacher. A teacher may make up any deficiencies in his pre-training for the teaching job by taking advantage of in-service training, but his personality must be well developed before he begins the job.

Best known methods for teaching courses come from those actively engaged in teaching the work and from experiments and studies made in the field. Since the traditional subjects, shorthand, bookkeeping, and business mathematics are the major courses taught in the secondary school, more definite information is available on the methods of presentation of these subjects than any of the others.

A plan is offered for the presentation of (1) the secretarial courses which include typewriting, shorthand, office practice, including secretarial training, office machines, filing, business etiquette, and business English, including spelling, business correspondence, and penmanship; (2) the general courses, composed of general business to include occupations, business mathematics, and bookkeeping; (3) the social courses, made up of business law, commercial geography, and consumer economics; (4) the distributive courses, salesmanship and advertising, grouped under the general heading of merchandising;

and (5) the vocational courses, which may involve photography, cosmetology, barbering, millinery, and cleaning and pressing.

Business education clubs as an extra-curricular activity of the business education department vitalizes the work which the student does in the field. The club activity has proved to be an answer to gregariousness, a stimulus to school work, a service to the community, and a means of special training for the students. The business curriculum could and should be reinforced by club activities in this area.

Tabulated data in the study reveal the following findings:

1. Traditional practices in the courses offered in business education are still maintained in the majority of the schools.

2. Course enrollments amount to approximately 70 percent of the total school enrollment.

3. Of the teachers of business education 81.8 percent of them have majors in their field.

4. The number of teachers having had business-teacher training courses amounts to 72 percent.

5. Only 15 percent of the one hundred schools have in-service training for the teachers.

6. Only 32 percent of the schools operate distributive programs.

7. Visual aids are used in the teaching of business education by 76 percent of the schools.

8. Of the one hundred schools, 48 percent of them have organized business education clubs.

9. The schools expressing a desire for a broader offering in the pre-vocational years of the students total 76 percent.

Since, in the light of the findings of this study, business education has been principally on a traditional basis, the following conclusions are reached: (1) a revision of the present business curriculum is necessary to adequately train the students for their places in the business world, (2) the demand is not only for a rich program of courses but also for properly trained teachers for offering such work, (3) the installation of distributive programs and vocational courses with a placement service for students enhances the business education departments, (4) visual aids are needed assets for the best results in teaching all courses of business education, and (5) commercial clubs are a valuable supplement to the progress of any secondary business education program.

Based on the outcome of the study also are the following recommendations which seem justifiable:

1. That a flexible program of instruction such as set up in this study be made available to all schools.

2. That unless teacher-training institutions offer sufficient work to properly fit teachers for the job of teaching business education courses, in-service training be offered in the secondary schools themselves.

3. That the use of visual aids in teaching the business courses be given serious consideration by all schools that are able to provide equipment necessary to carry it forward.

4. That distributive and vocational education with pupil-placement service in the field be ground for further investigation.

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A P P E N D I X

Q U E S T I O N N A I R E

Will you help me in a study of the present status of business education in the United States by filling the blanks of this questionnaire?

1. _____ Location of school.
2. _____ What is your high school enrollment?
3. Show in the blanks below the class enrollment for each of the courses offered in your school.

General Courses:

_____ Spelling
_____ Penmanship
_____ General Business
_____ Business Mathematics
_____ Bookkeeping
_____ Office Practice

Social Courses:

_____ Business Law
_____ Commercial Geography
_____ Occupations
_____ Consumer Education
_____ Economics
_____ Business Etiquette

Secretarial Courses:

_____ Typewriting
_____ Shorthand
_____ Business English
_____ Filing
_____ Secretarial Practice

Distributive Courses:

_____ Retailing
_____ Salesmanship
_____ Merchandising
_____ Advertising

Vocational Courses:

_____ Cosmetology
_____ Barbering
_____ Cleaning and Pressing
_____ Millinery
_____ Photography

4. Place a check mark by other subjects above which you'd like to offer in your school.
5. _____ How many teachers in your department of business education?
6. _____ How many of your teachers have majors in business education?
7. _____ How many of your teachers have had a course in business-teacher training?
8. _____ Do you have an in-service training program for your teachers of business education?
9. _____ Do you have a distributive education program in your department of business education?
10. _____ Do you use any visual aids in teaching business education?
11. _____ Does your state provide a state supervisor of business education?
12. _____ Do you sponsor a commercial club in your school?
13. _____ Would you like to see a broader offering in the pre-vocational years of the pupils?

A postage-paid, addressed envelope is enclosed for your use in sending the information.

LIST OF TOWNS AND CITIES IN WHICH THIS STUDY WAS MADE

1. Alabama, Greenville
2. Alabama, Huntsville
3. Arkansas, Arkadelphia
4. Arkansas, Fayetteville
5. Arkansas, Hope
6. Arizona, Phoenix
7. Arizona, Tempe
8. Arizona, Tucson
9. California, Berkeley
10. California, Palo Alto
11. Colorado, Boulder
12. Colorada, Delta
13. Dolorado, Pueblo
14. Connecticut, Middleton
15. Delaware, Dover
16. Florida, Melbourne
17. Florida, Naples
18. Georgia, Athens
19. Georgia, Macon
20. Idaho, Ashton
21. Idaho, Gooding
22. Illinois, Carmel
23. Illinois, Decatur
24. Illinois, Evanston
25. Illinois, Fairfield
26. Indiana, Anderson
27. Indiana, Gary
28. Iowa, Clarion
29. Iowa, Clinton
30. Kansas, Galena
31. Kansas, Lawrence
32. Kentucky, Cumberland
33. Kentucky, Frankfort
34. Kentucky, Lexington
35. Louisiana, Baton Rouge
36. Louisiana, Jonesboro
37. Louisiana, Ruston
38. Maine, Eastport
39. Maryland, Cambridge
40. Maryland, Elkton
41. Massachusetts, Dalton
42. Michigan, Ann Arbor
43. Michigan, Howell
44. Minnesota, Hastings
45. Mississippi, Meridian
46. Mississippi, Oxford
47. Missouri, Bolivar
48. Missouri, Salem
49. Missouri, St. Joseph
50. Montana, Butte
51. Montana, Roundup
52. Montana, Sidney
53. Nebraska, Lincoln
54. Nebraska, Schuyler
55. Nevada, Carson City
56. Nevada, Reno
57. New Hampshire, Portsmouth
58. New Jersey, Flemington
59. New Mexico, Deming
60. New Mexico, Portales
61. New Mexico, Roswell
62. New York, Canton
63. New York, Ithica
64. North Carolina, Farmville
65. North Carolina, Henderson
66. North Dakota, Fargo
67. Ohio, Cleveland
68. Ohio, Fairport
69. Ohio, Greenville
70. Oklahoma, Ada
71. Oklahoma, Alva
72. Oklahoma, Edmond
73. Oklahoma, Enid
74. Oklahoma, Weatherford
75. Oregon, Baker
76. Oregon, Burns
77. Pennsylvania, Cresson
78. Pennsylvania, Lansford
79. Rhode Island, Bristol
80. South Carolina, Camden
81. South Dakota, Mitchell
82. Tennessee, Covington

83. Tennessee, Murfreesboro
84. Texas, Austin
85. Texas, Denton
86. Texas, El Paso
87. Texas, Houston
88. Texas, San Antonio
89. Texas, Waco
90. Utah, Ogden
91. Utah, Price
92. Vermont, Burlington
93. Vermont, Montpelier
94. Virginia, Pulaski
95. Washington, Walla Walla
96. West Virginia, Grafton
97. West Virginia, Sutton
98. Wyoming, Billings
99. Wyoming, Cheyenne
100. Wyoming, Cody