THE HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT
of
BUSINESS EDUCATION
in the
UNITED STATES

by

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The status of business education today would indicate its importance to most high schools. Paul S. Lomax, New York University, in an article in the Journal of Business Education, March, 1956, states that there are more than five million business enrollments in the secondary schools of the United States, and several million more in colleges, junior colleges, private business schools, and adult education classes.

In the Bienneal Survey of Education in the United States, 1948-1950, it was stated that the total enrollment in business subjects in regular and senior high schools was more than sixty per cent of the total pupil enrollment in these schools. From the same survey it was shown that in 1949, a comparison was made of the percentages enrolled in 1949 and in 1928. Typing showed quite a marked increase, 15.2% in 1928 and 22.4% in 1949; bookkeeping showed a slight drop, from 10.7% to 8.7%; and shorthand dropped from 8.7% to 7.8%. In Montana, 25.4% took typing; 10.3%, bookkeeping; and 9.5%, shorthand. All allied subjects showed an increase. One-fourth of all high school students in Montana take commercial work, with the figures slightly less in the United

States. College work in this field reflects the same kind of development.

These figures most certainly show the extent of business education in our school system today. Business education is an important part of our education picture. With its present scope the question is often raised: How did it develop to its present stage? The answer to which is the basis of the approach to this study.

Problem

Experience in the general training and teaching in this subject area and conferences held in connection with this study have never revealed how we arrived at the present status in this particular field. In order to gain an understanding of the tremendous growth in business education it would seem rather logical that the problem be summed up in these two questions: What is the history of business education? How did we get the program we have today? It seems to the writer that it would be important to teachers, lay people and students who are training in this work to know how business education achieved its present prominent place in the schools of the United States.

Need For Study

In order to pursue this study literature was examined. It was apparent that there was very little material which showed the complete growth of this branch of education. One author make an approach to it, but it was only incidental to the expansion of his investigation. He made several references

to other sources where information on the history of business education could be found. It was from a combination of these articles and material in the Proceedings and Reports of the National Education Association Meetings that the events in the historical background and development of business education were brought together in sequence.

Procedure

As there seem to be two distinct points of emphasis, this study is divided into two main parts: The development of business education in the secondary school, and in the non secondary school. One part is represented by the planned program of the secondary school and the other by the non secondary schools which would include colleges, junior colleges, graduate schools, business schools, on-the-job training and teacher training schools. The terms business education and commercial education are used synonymously.

Summary

The writer believes that the statistics showing the large number of students in business education reveal just how important it is to our present way of life. Commercial education is big business in our schools, yet there seems to be no place where on can gain an understanding of its evolution. It is the purpose of this study to investigate and report on its development.

CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND IN EUROPE

Commerce, in some form or other, is as old as man. Among the oldest historical documents available are records of business transactions along with those about religious events. Informal training for business is probably as old as business itself. Formal, that is, definitely planned, training for business began much later. Evidence of legal arrangements for apprenticeship is contained in the famous code of Hammurabi, developed over four thousand years ago, which provided that a master craftsman adopt a young man and teach him his trade. Apprenticeship existed among the ancient Egyptians and Greeks. There are several references to apprenticeship in the Old Testament in description of ancient Hebrew customs. Perhaps the first organized form was as shown by Tonne.[1]

Apprenticeship--Early Form

Apprenticeship in ancient times frequently took the form of father-son relationship and was regulated by law. A contract, or indenture agreement, was made between

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1. Herbert A. Tonne, Principles of Business Education, (Gregg Publishing Co., 1947) p. 1.

the father of the prospective apprentice and a master.

This indenture frequently lasted seven years. The master provided food, clothing, shelter, parental care, religious and moral instruction, general education, practical training in the standards of the craft, and, most important of all, a knowledge of the "mysteries" of the trade, that is, the rule-of-thumb techniques. The method of learning was largely one of imitating the master.

Thus, it can be seen that the apprenticeship system of training predates the Middle Ages; however, it reached its pinnacle as the chief means of job training during that period. It was the chief means of preparing middle-class youths for a commercial career.

The system worked well in an individual or home method of production, where the master workman owned his shop and employed only a few journeymen and apprentices. Production was on a small scale. The master knew his craft thoroughly, and he himself taught the apprentices.

Formal schools for business training probably existed in some of the Hanseatic cities during the Renaissance. Their programs of instruction, however, had little influence on present-day commercial training either here or in Europe.

As home production gave way to factory production, the effectiveness of the apprenticeship system as an organized thing gradually decreased. Apprentices became merely hands working for an employer at lower wages. Tonne[1] brings

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[1] Ibid., p. 1.

this out. Something took its place. Thus we see the beginning of business training.

Business Training in Europe[1]

Germany. The Germans by 1895 had developed some commercial education although this was for men only. Women were not allowed to prepare themselves for mercantile pursuits, although for service in the countinghouse they were frequently employed for shorthand and typewriting. At this time the Germans were not so far along as some of the other European countries, but the governments of the twenty-six states that constituted the German Empire were employed in improving and extending their agricultural, industrial, and commercial schools to enable the people to compete with their neighbors in the world's market. The course of study designed for commercial training included: Foreign languages, political economy, commercial law, commercial geography and statistics, bookkeeping, commercial and political arithmetic, knowledge of the international commerce, and knowledge of merchandise.

Austria. At this time commercial education in Austria was a little further developed. The classical high schools in Austria, founded during the Middle Ages and also during the reign of Marie Theresa, did not offer proper instruction to young men intending to devote their lives to commercial pursuits. In 1762, a few courses of lectures on

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1. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1896-1897, Vol. 1, pp 207-212.

commercial arithmetic, discount, bookkeeping, and science of government were opened in high schools, which courses were conducted by "Piarists" (members of a religious order), and later by civil officers; and in 1763, a course of lectures on financial science was opened in the University of Vienna. However, these measures did not suffice for the wants of commercial men, since both the high schools and the university had the avowed purpose of preparing civil officers for financial and administrative offices.

In the year 1769, as shown in the Report of the Commissioner of Education,[1] purely commercial training began in consequence of a "manifesto" of the supreme commercial authority of the Empire, the Board of Trade of Vienna, which document pointed out frankly that the preparation of merchants had heretofore received inadequate attention. In 1770, a State institution for the preparation of merchants was opened under the name of "Commercial Academy." This institution had two grades of one year each, in which arithmetic, ethics, grammar and rhetoric, geography, calligraphy, drawing, accounting, commercial science, geometry, natural science, double-entry bookkeeping, French and Italian were taught.

As early as 1840, a Johann Geyer had opened a private institution which was imitated in the principal cities of the country. Other commercial schools partly founded by stock companies, partly by private enterprise, then came

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1. Ibid., p. 208.

into existence and proved to be an important factor in the Austrian educational system.

It was at this time that legislation was attempted in the organization of commercial schools. A ministerial order in 1870 referred to the examination of teachers in commercial schools. In 1872 an inquiry into the organization of commercial schools was instituted. The Austrian Government did much in aiding the commercial schools with both advice and material support. The best measure seems to have been the appointment of imperial instructors for these schools. The course of study for this class of schools had a firm foundation, because it was framed according to the needs of the great mass of people, with elasticity enough to meet local demands. The minister of public instruction published a series of uniform test books, and secured an annual appropriation of 68,000 florins ($34,000) from State funds for the support of the commercial schools.

England. The Report of the Commission of Education,[1] 1896-1897, showed that even though England was at this time the foremost commercial country in the world, the Government did less than any other country in Europe to train its young men for commercial enterprise. Private enterprise, corporations, and commercial clubs took care of commercial education by establishing appropriate courses in a few secondary schools, primarily founded for other purposes. The Government of Great

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1. Ibid., p. 215.

Britain did not concern itself with public education before 1850. It was the belief in England at that time that the State had no right to interfere in the educational affairs of the people. It was the London Chamber of Commerce that instigated activity in behalf of commercial education, and a uniform organization of schools for that purpose. The Chamber of Commerce adopted a course of study which the Government was unable to adopt because of its want of jurisdiction in secondary schools. The course had to rely upon the initiative of the various chambers of commerce in the large cities of the Kingdom. The support given to it was an indirect one. The merchants belonging to the chambers of commerce agreed to engage as assistants and clerks only those who had had the preparation prescribed in the course mentioned, or at least they gave preference to applicants who could prove such preparation. In spite of this the course in England did not come up to the courses in the other countries, Germany, France, and Austria.

Switzerland. The Commissioner's Report[1] tells us that the development of commercial education in Switzerland took essentially the same course as in England. Until 1887, commercial training in Geneva was given in the commercial department of the cantonal high school, but in that year an independent high school for commercial branches was established

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1. Ibid., p. 218-222.

by the city, the former institution was abandoned, and the high school reserved for university preparation. Soon other cities established separate commercial schools and in addition to these there were eleven commercial departments connected with classical and technical high schools. In 1893, the Swiss Government began to subsidize the commercial school. In the same year the Canton of Zurich petitioned the Federal Government for a subsidy for a girls' commercial school. This petition was not granted because the Federal executive interpreted the law of 1884 as giving no authority to extend commercial training to girls. However, these subsidies were soon granted. The people of Switzerland were desirous of keeping up with other nations in the commercial training of young men and women.

France. In 1820,[1] two French merchants who were anxious about the future of French commerce established a school in France in which young men would receive instruction preparing them to be merchants. At this early date this was considered a very bold enterprise. Few believed that the commercial sciences as such could be made subjects of scholastic instruction, owing to the great number of special branches of which these sciences were composed. This institution met with the greatest obstacles because of lack of interest of the French in that type of education. This school changed hands many times until 1830, when Adolph Blanqui

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1. Ibid., pp. 222-231.

undertook to revive the school. He met with great success and after his death in 1869, the Paris Chamber of Commerce took possession of it. The commercial school developed rapidly from this time.

The schools of Italy and Belgium followed much the same pattern as those of France and Germany.

CHAPTER III

EARLY BACKGROUND IN THE UNITED STATES

Apprenticeship System

Tonne[1] explains in his book that the apprenticeship system did not develop extensively in the United States. It was eliminated by the factory system. The late development of organized business education as compared to industrial education can probably be explained by the fact that until recent years trade was simple and required few specialized techniques. The big problem was production. Once people could make commodities, selling them was a comparatively simple problem. Thus while there had been apprentices in industrial occupations, apprentices in business life developed much later, and lasted only a short time. As late as the Civil War emphasis was on production of products and their transportation to the consuming public.

Business Education in Colonial Times--1635-1820[2]

There are but few evidences of formal business education in the American Colonial period. Penmanship and

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1. Herbert A. Tonne, Principles of Business Education, (Gregg Publishing Co., 1947) p. 5.

2. Ibid., p. 5.

arithmetic were taught, but this rudimentary training can hardly be considered the origin of contemporary business education. Some bookkeeping, primarily the copying of records, was taught in the Latin Grammar schools. It is also probable that there were a considerable number of private teachers of bookkeeping and penmanship, especially in the larger cities along the seaboard.

About the time of the American Revolution the academy began to develop and soon replaced the Latin Grammar school as the typical secondary school in America. The Latin Grammar school had been purely preparatory for college. Some new subjects were incorporated into the curriculum, such as bookkeeping, navigation and surveying.

The American Academy adequately met the educational needs of the American people until the Civil War. It was a private institution, only rarely subsidized by the states. Local communities encouraged the academies for they attracted other business. Young women were as welcome as men if they could pay their bills.

The academy had to maintain the interests of the students so any subject was taught that might attract them. They taught the literary subjects and also political economy, bookkeeping, navigation, and surveying. There is evidence that some shorthand was taught. However, there was little use for shorthand. Even the judges and justices made their own notes. The proceedings of Congress and the state

legislatures were not kept in any detail. The academy was willing to teach business subjects, but the quantity and quality of the teaching might be questioned. Evening schools were established in some cities to supplement the informal training and these schools included such subjects as writing, bookkeeping, and arithmetic.

Typewriter Causes Growth of Business Education

As Tonne[1] tells in his book, business education in the schools developed with the perfection of the typewriter in the early 1870's. Typewriting mechanisms had been planned in England as early as 1714, but had not been successful. In the nineteenth century typewriting mechanisms were invented, but the operator of the machine could not write any faster than he could in longhand. The machines remained cumbersome until Christopher Sholes and two associates became interested in the possibilities of the typewriter. They completed their first model in 1867, and by 1873, had improved it so that it was a proficient aid in business offices. By 1878, it was possible to write lower-case characters as well as capitals. For many years the typist had to use the shift key for capitals as well as numerals and special characters. It was also impossible to see the copy while working. It was not until the close of the twentieth century that the mechanism was perfected and the four-finger system of typing proved to be efficient.

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1. Ibid., p. 6.

The keyboard constructed by Sholes was designed so that there would be as little chance as possible for keys to stick at the printing point. Even today this problem has not been completely overcome. Many attempts have been made to devise a more scientific keyboard. August Dvorak has invented a keyboard more efficient than the standard one, but whether it will ever be adopted is a question. A changeover from the standard keyboard to a more scientific one would require tremendous training.

Many adaptations have been made of the typewriter. The noiseless machine has caused comparatively few learning problems. The development of the portable typewriter has encouraged wide personal use of the typewriter, but it has brought about learning procedures that are not very efficient. The portable machine is not so efficient as the standard, and those using it cannot obtain such high speeds as with the standard, but they are not generally interested in speed.

The development of mechanisms combining the typewriter with calculating and adding machines has created innumerable savings in office procedures. Training in these specialized machines is not too difficult provided the student already knows how to type and how to use a calculating machine.

The Development of Shorthand Instruction

Shorthand, as discussed by Tonne,[1] was used

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[1] Ibid., p. 8.

occasionally before the invention of the typewriter. The ancient Greeks had a system of shorthand, and stenographic notes were taken of the proceedings of the Roman Senate. When the Gurney shorthand was adopted as the official system for preserving the proceedings of the British Parliament it was given prestige far beyond that of the scores of systems that preceded it.

Pitman.[1] In 1837 Isaac Pitman invented a shorthand system that became widely popular. Nevertheless, the value of shorthand remained restricted until the typewriter was perfected. With the perfection of the typewriter and its consequent wide use in business offices, shorthand also increased in importance. Typing and shorthand as a concomitant skill did not develope suddenly. They had to achieve their place as a means of communication against the antagonism to the typed letter. For some time the more conservative firms considered it an insult to their customers to send typed letters; and customers reciprocated by resenting typed letters as questioning their ability to read longhand. They felt that the personal element was taken out of the communication. Businessmen often added longhand postscripts to their typed letters in order to give them a personal touch.

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[1] Ibid., p. 8.

Gregg.[1] About 1890, John Robert Gregg brought his system of shorthand to the United States and this has since become the predominant system and is widely used not only in the United States and other English-speaking countries, but has also been successfully adapted to eleven foreign languages, among them French, Spanish, Russian, and Japanese. Gregg Shorthand is taught in 99.25 per cent of the cities and towns in the United States where instruction in shorthand is offered.

Thomas Shorthand.[2] Charles A. Thomas produced another type of shorthand which he had copyrighted in 1935. He claimed that this shorthand was easier and more natural to use than the previous ones. A very few schools have used it, but it has not achieved anywhere the popularity of Gregg, probably because most of the business teachers know Gregg and do not want to change unless there is a more marked improvement than this system has shown.

Machine Shorthand.[3] In 1912, Ward Stone Ireland introduced the first Stenotype, but long before that there had been various more cumbersome machines in limited use. During World War I, the factories making these machines were diverted to manufacture of wartime necessities and it was not

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1. Ibid., p. 9.
2. Charles A. Thomas, Thomas Natural Shorthand, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1942.
3. Mary Burton, United Business Education Association Journal, March, 1951, pp. 27-28.

until several years afterwards that the making of the Stenotype was resumed.

The Stenograph is a shorthand machine similar to the Stenotype. Both are small, light weight and practically noiseless in operation. The keyboard is the same on both machines and is so simple it can easily be memorized. Key operation is by touch, differing from typewriting in that several keys are struck at the same time. Initial and final consonants or words are supplied by combinations--two or more keys struck simultaneously.

Whether written at 20 words or 200 words the notes never change shape or position. They are always readable any time or place by any stenotypist, in plain English letters. Notes are recorded on continuous narrow paper tape which folds into a pull-out tray at the rear.

Skilled operators of the Stenograph and Stenotype are filling specialized positions in legal and medical work, Federal and state services, trade associations, manufacturing, publishing and reporting.

Forkner Shorthand.[1] This is a new system of shorthand. It was copyrighted in 1952. The author states that it is a scientific application of a combination of longhand and symbols to a system of rapid writing. It is too new to make any further statement about it.

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1. Hamden L. Forkner, Experimental Edition, Forkner Shorthand, Forkner Publishing Company, 1952.

Growth of Bookkeeping in American Business

With the growth of the size of business units, as told by Tonne,[1] bookkeeping became a necessary skill in the control of business. When few businesses had gross incomes of over $100,000 a year, double-entry bookkeeping was not needed. When the Civil War brought with it a great concentration of business enterprise caused by the necessity of supplying the armies with food, clothing, and munitions, large mercantile establishments developed.

This organization of large industrial and financial units continued after the Civil War and resulted in a steady demand for competently trained bookkeepers. Then when government became more concerned with the inner workings of railroads and banking houses, accountancy developed; and it became more difficult for the young accountant to learn his art on the job. This development also encouraged business education.

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1. Herbert A. Tonne, Principles of Business Education, (Gregg Publishing Co., 1947)

CHAPTER IV

THE GROWTH OF THE PRIVATE BUSINESS SCHOOL

Early Business School

Tonne[1] explains in his book that the private business school was the first institution devoted exclusively to business education. The date of the first private business school is not known, but there is evidence that by 1820 several teachers were offering instruction in bookkeeping and penmanship. One of the first schools is known to have been established in Philadelphia by Mr. R. M. Barlett. He also started schools in Pittsburgh and Cincinnati. James Gorden Bennett maintained a similar school in New York City around 1824. Benjamin Franklin Foster taught penmanship, published a book on the subject, and attempted to give training to women in several eastern cities during the second quarter of the nineteenth century. Another pioneer in the field of private business schools was George W. Eastman of Rochester, New York. Many textbooks published by these early instructors are still available. Most of them are of the copybook type. The existence of these schools shows that the

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1. Ibid., pp. 386-399.

apprenticeship system of training workers for commercial occupations was declining.

One of the forerunners of the private business school was the itinerant teacher of handwriting. The flourishing and elaborate handwriting was one of the fads of the nineteenth century. These teachers would migrate from town to town and offer to make skilled penmen of anyone who would take their course for one or two weeks. Some were fakers, but many did their best.

There is little evidence of the number of persons and of the quality of training given in the private business schools in the pre-Civil War period. Private business schools were prevalent in Europe before the Napoleonic Wars. It is probable that the American private business school of this period was in part an imitation of the European business school. Business schools did not become accepted and prosperous institutions in this country until the Civil War period.

Tonne says that according to R. C. Spencer, writing in 1888[1], the earliest step toward formal organization was taken about 1850 by R. C. Bacon who founded Bacon's Mercantile Colleges in Cincinnati, Cleveland, and Madison. This unified management lasted only a short time. The Bryant-Stratton chain was started in Cleveland in 1852. By 1865, this was composed of forty-four schools in forty-four cities,

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1. Ibid., pp. 397, quoting A Brief History of the Business Education Associations of America. Proceedings, Business Educators Association, 1888, pp. 6-8.

all under the same general management. The first meeting of the proprietors of the chain was held in New York in 1863, and in the following year a conference of the leading teachers took place. At a general convention in Chicago in 1865, James A. Garfield, who later became President of the United States, made a powerful speech in favor of business education.

The Bryant-Stratton schools carried on a fairly uniform system of instruction. Training was given in bookkeeping, penmanship, business arithmetic, the rudiments of commercial law, and allied subjects. Each school was under the control of a local manager or resident partner in the firm. A program of interchangeable scholarships permitted students to transfer from one school to another. The result was that students often enrolled in schools in small towns at low fees, then transferred to the larger cities where opportunities for future employment were better. The income went to the small-town school and the burden of training to the school in the larger community. This chain of schools and the smaller chains patterned after them rendered efficient service and in some ways set a pattern of training that has not been surpassed. Today, the successor schools of this chain, under the same or similar names, still exist in several cities. This chain has had a profound influence upon the development of business education in the United States.

Increase of Schools Following The Civil War

Tonne[1] explains that a great opportunity for the private business school came during the period of reconstruction following the Civil War. Thousands of young men, mustered out of the armies where they had tasted various experiences, did not care to go back to the farms. They wanted speedy and efficient preparation for some kind of employment in the cities. The best opportunities were apparently to be found in bookkeeping and related clerical occupations.

With only occasional losses during the depression years of the 1870's, the private business school continued to grow. Some of these schools were exceedingly efficient. Many of them had well-paid teachers, excellent promotional plans, informal but sensible entrance requirements, and sound standards for graduation. They utilized most of the modern methods of teaching such as the project method, student activity, and visual aids. They did not realize that they were the forerunners of a significant change in the spirit of education.

There was an enormous turnover in stenographic positions. Young men stenographers soon found advancement to official or semiofficial positions. Women who were employed as stenographers usually left when they married.

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1. Ibid., p. 388.

Society was not yet willing to recognize the right of married women to have gainful employment. This situation caused a constant increase in private-business school entollment, which carried over into the public schools.

The increase of business students in the secondary schools did not materially halt the growth of private business schools. Just before World War I the teaching of business subjects in secondary schools improved; and this improvement temporarily checked the expansion of private schools. The war itself reversed the trend. In less than two years, over two million people were trained for army service. Thousands of them were instructed in shorthand, typewriting, and allied subjects. At the same time thousands of male stenographers and bookkeepers had to be replaced by women. This emergency supplied the private schools with a superb opportunity for service, as the public schools at that time were not adapted to the training of adults. The capacities of the private schools were taxed to the utmost.

After World War I, the Federal Government participated in the program of educational rehabilitation and paid the tuition fees for veterans. Again private business schools profited.

Present Status of Private Business Schools

Tonne[1] continues his discussion of private business

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1. Ibid., p. 390.

schools by stating that in 1940, there were about 1, 500 private business schools and it has been estimated that there were close to 500,000 students in these schools. The great majority of these were young women, for at that time the greater part of the training in the private business schools consisted of shorthand and typewriting. Before 1900, most students in private business schools took the bookkeeping program, and of these students the great majority were men.

Abuses of Private Business Schools[1]

In earlier days, many private business schools offered dubious education. Some charged inadequate tuition fees. Others spent so much of their income on advertising that little remained for instruction. Most schools admitted pupils whenever they applied for admission.

High-pressure salesmanship was common. These salesmen solicited elementary as well as high school pupils, creating a desire in young people to leave school and take short courses that would enable them to enter business and earn their own living. Misrepresentations were many. Overzealous solicitors guaranteed positions at the completion of short courses, regardless of the ability of the school to carry out such promises.

The inefficient, incompetent and inadequately financed

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1. Ibid., p. 392

schools have, in general, disappeared. Only those schools that render efficient service and possess a reputation for obtaining positions for their students have, as a rule, survived.

The Efficient Private Business School Renders an Invaluable Service

Tonne[1] believes that many private business schools render efficient service, employ teachers of high caliber, refuse to take immature persons who are not ready for vocational training, charge adequate fees for their services and spend the major part of their income on instruction. These schools do not guarantee positions and often reject applicants unlikely to obtain jobs.

Large numbers of rural high school students who wish to become stenographers or bookkeepers need additional technical training to obtain office positions in the larger cities. The business school offers a genuine service to both the student and the community.

Private business schools build their reputation on their results; that is, the success of the students whom they train. These schools maintain a close association with the local business organizations, planning their courses to meet the needs of the prospective employers. Some businesses even pay the tuition of their employees at private schools.

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1. Ibid., p. 392.

Private schools concnetrate on the training most needed by the community and the student. In addition to the required skills, the curricula often include economics, accounting, management, finance, insurance, credit and collection, and marketing. Only a very large high school could offer such a broad program.

The Problem of State Control

Certain state departments of education require private schools to register with them, explains Tonne.[1] A certificate of approval is granted to those meeting the requirements. The idea is spreading that any kind of school that performs a public service should be controlled by a public agency. Some proprietors of private schools oppose this, but others welcome state control because they believe it will lessen undesirable and unfair competition.

In New York and Pennsylvania, the registration of private business schools is on a voluntary basis. If a school is solvent, has effective equipment, employs teachers with substantially the same academic background as public-school teachers, and offers an adequate program of study, it may register with the state department of education. Certification carries certain obligations, but on the other hand, it gives the school a standing with the public that becomes valuable asset.

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1. Ibid., p. 393.

Business schools have set up a self regulation system for themselves. The National Council of Business Schools has set up criteria covering faculty, courses of study, administration, buildings, and equipment and other considerations of an ethical and general nature. They have set up minimum requirements for membership in the Council.

The Key Service of the Private Business School

The private business school has been the backbone of business education, says Tonne,[1] although subjected to a great deal of unjustifiable as well as justifiable criticism. It sets the pace for the secondary school, providing the latter with a model of efficiency. The better type of business school should not be regarded as an undesirable competitor of the public school. Many private schools demand that their students possess at least a secondary-school education; others will not take students with less than a college degree. Private schools offer training that many public schools cannot undertake.

The American Association of Commercial Colleges, the National Association of Accredited Commercial Schools, and the National Council of Business Schools provide national organization. There are also a considerable number of state associations working for the improvement of private-school business education.

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1. Ibid., p. 397

CHAPTER V

GROWTH OF BUSINESS EDUCATION IN THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL

English Classical School For Boys

As Tonne[1] states in his book, the first genuine American High School, the English Classical School for Boys, at Boston, Massachusetts, was organized in 1823. A course in bookkeeping was included in its curriculum. A single-entry bookkeeping course was provided for by law in the secondary school in 1827. New York recognized bookkeeping as a part of the secondary-school program. These beginnings did not greatly influence the later development of business education in the secondary level. The American high school like the American academy, is a native institution. In spite of its emphasis on classical subjects, the American public high school has always been democratic in spirit. Its curriculum was molded, not only by what the schoolmaster thought was desirable, but also by public opinion.

The public did not see the need for teaching shorthand or bookkeeping in the early decades of the nineteenth century so little effort was made to give extensive training in the public high schools.

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1. Ibid., p. 10.

Post Civil War Period

In the post Civil War period,[1] as a result of expanding business, the demand for trained bookkeepers and stenographers grew tremendously and with it the private business school. Parents then began to realize the need for business training and wondered why it was necessary for them to send their children to private schools when public schools were available. Business education then became a major influence in the secondary school and was modeled closely after that of the private school. In some cases, public pressure compelled the board of education to give commercial training. In other cases, the principals found business training a way of increasing their enrollments. In still others, teachers in the private business schools were anxious to obtain public employment and encourage training in the subject matter with which they were acquainted. Most of the early teachers received all, or nearly all, their training in the private business school.

Committee of Ten Report

As late as 1890, the famous Committee of Ten[2] gave some attention to commercial courses and it was not until 1893 that the first regularly licensed teacher of commercial subjects was appointed in New York City.

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1. Ibid., p. 10.
2. Ibid., p. 11.

Report of the National Education Association of 1903

In 1901,[1] the National Education Association appointed a committee on commercial education. The report published in 1903 recommended a four year course in place of the three year course previously offered and suggested a separate commercial high school be organized, although only large cities could afford to do so. The committee advocated that a large number of academic subjects be included in the commercial high school curriculum.

The report of the committee stated that:

> The commercial course in the high school should be equal in time of instruction, in educational content and in disciplinary power to any course in the school and any course not following this standard is not to be regarded by the department as complete.
>
> That we hail with satisfaction the increasing facilities for the commercial education offered by colleges and universities. That we urge upon the normal schools of the country the necessity of at once undertaking the preparation of commercial teachers to meet the growing demand.[2]

The report mentioned that there were four courses offered in the high school. They were English, classical manual training, and commercial. The members of this committee felt that a child should not have to choose definitely at age fourteen what his future vocation would be so the courses should be interrelated or flexible enough so that the child could change at a later date.

They believed at this time that the study of typewriting and shorthand had great possibilities for mental

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1. National Education Association, Address and Proceedings, 1903, p. 732.
2. Ibid., p. 735.

development and their disciplinary value was very great.

The high school of commerce[1] mentioned in this report appeared early in the twentieth century. There are more than twenty of these schools located in various large cities, especially on the eastern seaboard. Few have been added to this number since World War I.

When these schools were first established, shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping offered the best occupational opportunities for boys and girls. Times have changed, but not all high schools of commerce have adjusted their programs to meet present occupational conditions. In order to obtain an adequate enrollment, many high schools of commerce have been converted into cosmopolitan high schools. Some give formal college-preparatory curricula; others fail to provide for drop-out job training or co-operative instruction. Only a small number offer education in distributive occupations, contenting themselves with a few courses in selling and advertising. Consequently most high schools of commerce do not differ markedly from ordinary metropolitan schools, except for a larger enrollment in shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping courses. The better high schools of commerce have, for all practical purposes, become full-time vocational business high schools.

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1. Tonne, op. cit., p. 440

Report of the National Education Association of 1915

In a report[1] of the National Education Association meeting for 1915, Mr. W. S. Stone, Director, Department of Commerce, Tamalpais High School, Sausalito, California, stated that the business world of today demands a more efficient worker than the bookkeeper who can merely perform the mechanical routine of recording facts and preserving records--one who from his set of accounts can tell how the business stands, what progress it has made since the last period of closing, and one to whom the facts in the balance sheet stand as symbols forecasting the success or failure of the enterprise. The modern bookkeeper needs to be something of an efficiency engineer and must know the theory underlying his work. It is necessary that we teach the fundamentals of accountancy in our bookkeeping classes. This will be one of the best means of training students to think. The cultural value of such a subject lies chiefly in the fact that it develops rapid and clear thinking.

In the same report, Mr. Robert A. Grant,[2] Department of Business, Heatman High School, St. Louis, Mo., reported that the chief field for the amanuensis (one who writes at the dictation of another) was in the business office. He brought to the attention of the committee the importance of training in shorthand and typewriting for both

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1. National Education Association, Addresses and Proceedings, 1915, p. 884.
2. Ibid., p. 897

boys and girls. Heretofore it had been thought that shorthand was not important for boys, but he showed how young men with stenographic training had advanced rapidly in the business world because by being secretaries to executives they learned the business and were ready to take over when a vacancy occured.

It was at this same meeting that the subjects of night school and linking the school work with business enterprises were discussed. Two school men present recommended this.

The report of the committee on research, standardization, and correlation for this meeting recommended a four year high school course with two schedules, one emphasizes accounting, and the other emphasizes stenography and typewriting. A system of grouping for the electives was recommended.

Mr. John E. Trelenen,[1] Associate Professor of Business Training, University of Texas, Austin, Texas, felt that the rapid increase in the number of high schools giving business training was a cause for both congratulations and apprehension--congratulation that commercial education had so rapidly won recognition, and apprehension lest too rapid progress result in poorly formulated courses of study and a low grade of instruction. There was also the question of whether or not business subjects should be taught in all

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1. Ibid., p. 893.

high schools. He felt that business training should be given in the high schools of all cities and industrial towns, but questioned the advisability of this training in the high schools of the rural areas. He believed that the complete commercial course was not closely enough related to rural life to justify its introduction into the average rural high school.

Report of the National Education Association of 1919

In the report of the National Education Association[1] meeting in 1919, F. G. Nichols, Assistant Director for Commercial Education, Rederal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C., said that emphasis should be placed on the fact that the Federal Board of Vocational Education is quite as much concerned in the advancement of business training as it is in the promotion and development of other lines of vocational work. That while the Board is not in a position under the law to extend the same kind of cooperation to all phases of commercial education as it does to agricultural, industrial, and home-economics work, it is thoroughly committed to the policy of doing everything in its power to help commercial educators in the further development of a type of vocational commercial education that will meet the needs of boys and girls who desire to prepare for commercial occupations, or who are already employed in such occupations.

In keeping with this policy, the Board has ruled that

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1. National Education Association, Addresses and Proceedings, 1919, p. 260.

financial aid may be extended to part-time commercial classes, among others, in states where provision is made for giving aid to this kind of training in the state plans. Details regarding the requirements that must be met by those who desire to organize such courses may be obtained from the state vocational directors.

It should be emphasized that there are two kinds of part-time classes included under the Federal Board's ruling: first, those that are made up of boys and girls who are devoting a part of their time to high-school commercial work and a part of their time to office or store employments; second, those who are regularly employed in commercial positions and are enrolled in continuation classes for a certain amount of instruction on the employer's time.

The Board recommends that students have contact with actual business through a cooperative plan during at least one year of their course, preferably the last year.

The Board feels that teacher training for this type of education is not adequate and that teacher-training courses should be set up so that teachers will be prepared for this kind of work.

Although federal aid has been extended, under the vocation-education law to include the training of special teachers to give retail selling courses, supplementary legislation will be needed before financial aid can be extended to the training of commercial teachers in general.

The Board thought that there should be a specialist

in commercial education in each state who could cooperate with the state authorities in the proper development of commercial education, especially along vocational lines.

Lillian Neipert,[1] Department of Commercial Teacher Training, State Normal School, Whitewater, Wisconsin, in her report at this meeting stated that office training in the high school was important. While our high schools have taught the subjects of typing, shorthand, and bookkeeping, they have not trained the student in practical knowledge of filing, mailing, and general office routine. She explained that the employer did not have time to teach the new employee these things and therefore it was necessary for the high school to bridge the gap between the theoretical and practical.

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1. Ibid., p. 262.

CHAPTER VI

PRESENT STATUS OF BUSINESS SUBJECTS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Typewriting

Tonne[1] believes that typewriting is by far the most popular business subject in the high school. Many students take this subject with little or not intention of using it vocationally. This nonvocational group is increasing, for the development of the portable typewriter has encouraged the use of the typewriter in the home.

Successful experiments have been made in the use of typewriters in the elementary schools, from the kindergarten through the eighth grade. The aim has not been to teach typewriting, but rather to motivate and aid in the learning of reading and of written expression. The result has been an improvement in the learning of other subjects, including arithmetic, in which writing plays a part. This may be proof only of the value of a more efficient writing instrument, such as the typewriter, over a less efficient one, such as the pen or pencil.

To what extent faulty typewriting technique, acquired on an elementary level, might interfere with the mastery of

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1. Herbert A. Tonne, Principles of Business Education, (Gregg Publishing Co., 1947), p. 306.

of typewriting on the job level has not been completely determined.

In some high schools students are segregated. Those who take vocational typewriting are put in one class and those who take it for personal use in another. This, however, is unndecessary as the first semester or the first year is the same for both. Those who are definitely interested in vocational typing should take the second year of typing.

Shorthand

Shorthand has an established place in the high school curriculum, asserts Tonne.[1] In the past ten years, (1935 to 1945), over one million students have studied this subject every year. In spite of the pressure exerted by some academic teachers to persuade some students not to take this subject; in spite of the strong efforts of some commercial teachers to discourage certain types of students; and in spite of the sometimes superficial evidence given by guidance teachers about the excessive number of stenographers, students evidently feel that the subject has great utility and continue to insist, usually with the support of their parents, upon enrolling in shorthand and typewriting.

Few, if any, other subjects in the high school program have been subjected to such bitter criticism as stenography. Some antagonists of the subject, even some leaders in business education, seem to go out of their way

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1. Ibid., p. 299.

to find reasons why instruction in this subject should be minimized. They point out that many students who take shorthand never complete the subject and this is quite true. They feel that this indicates an unsatisfactory selection of trainees.

This is true. Attempts have been made to make a better selection, but existing tests to prognosticate stenographic ability are not satisfactory. They are little more useful than a good intelligence test. To date there is only one sound means of determining a person's ability to succeed in shorthand, and that is to let him take it. However, this procedure is not entirely satisfactory, for many students have studied the subject at one level of the learning process and have been unsuccessful. Later on, when motivation became stronger, they have taken the subject again and have succeeded.

In spite of criticisms shorthand has a definite place in the high school curriculum.

Some New Avenues of Communication

While shorthand must remain basic in any communication system, a number of new aids have been developed, this source reveals.[1]

The dictating machine. This is one of the most promising means of communication. There are three suggested advantages in this machine:

1. A reduction in the cost of writing a letter, including dictation and transcription.

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1. Ibid., p.296.

2. Opportunities for standardization.

3. A saving of time for the dictator and for the transcriber.

The dictating machine, like all mechanical devices, has its limitations. The dictating machine cannot take the place of a secretary or stenographers, for many stenographic duties cannot be performed by machine. The machine, therefore, is largely a supplement to shorthand rather than a substitute for it.

The secondary school usually should not train its students in the use of these machines without also providing training in shorthand. If dictating-machine operation is learned as a supplement to stenography, it may become a valued skill to the prospective employee.

In larger vocational high schools in metropolitan communities there may be some justification for training dictating-machine operators without preliminary training in shorthand, but this should be done only if there is good evidence that company schools are not training operators or are doing it inadequately. The use of this type of machine is expanding rapidly.

Machine shorthand in schools. The shorthand machine, a device by which notes are typed on a tape, has some advantages. As with shorthand, dictation can be taken at a high rate of speed by skilled workers. Corrections cannot always be made so easily as in written shorthand, and the value of such machines in court reporting has been questioned by some. This

machine is probably most suitable for reporting convention speeches. However, the shorthand machine usually serves as a supplement to shorthand rather than as a substitute for it. Some teachers believe that the cost of the machine is prohibitive for most stenographers, and hence training in its use is not justified in the high school.

This is not a new machine. It was developed around 1880. As people become accustomed to its use and as it becomes less expensive, its popularity undoubtedly will increase.

Bookkeeping

It is the opinion of Tonne[1] that the high schools of today are probably teaching bookkeeping to over half a million students. He feels that the subject of bookkeeping as it has been and still is taught in the high schools does not meet the needs of the present day business world. When bookkeeping was first introduced into the high school, its objective was primarily vocational. The content of the courses and the method of teaching were patterned after those of the private business school, where the emphasis was placed, and still is, on the immediate vocational efficiency of the student. As soon as bookkeeping had established a place for itself in the high school, administrators and teachers began to feel that its position was not justified by its mere job-getting value. They wished to endow it with cultural purposes. They felt that it was just as useful

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1. Ibid., p. 275.

to the student as the more traditional subjects because of its disciplinary or transfer-of-training value and its help in making the student a better citizen. They believed that the careful thinking required in the keeping of accounts would carry over into other fields. Because bookkeeping stressed neatness in writing and honesty in recording, these traits should carry over into other activities for those taking this subject. However, by 1925, the disciplinary objectives of bookkeeping had become unimportant. Educational psychologists had shown that transfer-of-training value was inherent in no subject, but that it existed in any subject where genuine provision was made for such transfer to outside activities.

Until just recently bookkeeping received far more attention from business educators than the stenographic program. This was justified because at that time bookkeeping was the open-sesame to service in business either as a worker or as an entrepreneur. Today, however, the general bookkeeper has disappeared from many business offices. His place has been taken by the auditor and accountant, who are required to have professional knowledge; by numerous ledger clerks, who need specialized instruction based on duties performed; and by bookkeeping-machine operators, whose numbers have increased rapidly. Many small businesses now hire an accountant for a day or two a month to work out their records for them. This is a much less expensive procedure than the full-time services of any bookkeeper they could hire. Because

of this the objectives of bookkeeping in high schools today have changed.

Present Objectives. After searching through the prefaces of many current textbooks, Tonne[1] finds the following objectives for present-day bookkeeping:

1. To learn how to make better records for personal and home use.
2. To be able to interpret and analyze business papers and records in the capacity of consumer.
3. To study bookkeeping records and reports as an aid in the management of business enterprise.
4. To train students for positions in bookkeeping occupations.

Tonne[2] concludes that bookkeeping retains its popularity in the high school in spite of the fact that its objectives have, in a large measure, been discounted. The subject has virtues that many courses lack: Its subject matter is concrete, involves organized thinking, and is developed by means of related units from the first topic to the last. The content also offers the student a learning challenge.

Secretarial Training

Secretarial training is increasingly favored in secondary schools believes Tonne.[3] It is offered as a finishing

1. Ibid., p. 276.
2. Ibid., p. 289.
3. Ibid., p. 308.

course for stenographic students in the twelfth grade or just prior to job placement. Stenographic skills should be developed still further, and some acquaintance with, and use of, office equipment and appliances should be included. The instruction should be given as nearly as possible under job conditions. In secretarial training students are given practice in doing those things that are actually done on the job in addition to taking dictation and transcribing. In this course students are taught how to change a typewriter ribbon efficiently, to erase without damage to the machine, to correct the sticking of type bars. They also learn how to make multiple carbon copies and how to make corrections by crowding and expanding letters. Students must not merely be taught these skills, but they must have a great deal of practice in order to be able to use them efficiently under actual job conditions. There are many phases of office procedure and the mechanics of office work that there is not time to teach in the regular shorthand class.

Clerical Work

In his book, Principles of Business Education, Tonne[1] says that there are more than two and a half million clerical workers in the United States--more than the number of bookkeepers and stenographers combined. Clerical workers are sometimes called "general clerks", but actually there are few general clerks in the original sense of the term. For

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1. Ibid., p. 314.

practical purposes, clerical occupations may be defined as the occupations that include the duties not generally assigned to bookkeepers, stenographers, salespeople or managers.

Tonne[1] quotes John G. Kirk, director of business education in Philadelphia schools, when he says that the objectives that should be included in a general clerical major are:

1. Knowledge of business organization as it applies directly to each major department of a business.
2. Knowledge of the use made of business forms in each department.
3. Adequate practice in recording business forms.
4. Increased knowledge of business terms and their spelling.
5. Improvement in the quality and speed of handwriting.
6. Improvement in speed and accuracy in making calculations.
7. Facility in the operation of office machines.

To provide the clerical training in high school for vocational needs a two-year major beginning in the eleventh year is required; in vocational schools more specific training in the use and operation of office machines can be provided because of the longer school day.

In the period after World War II says Tonne[2] there was a considerable increase in clerical workers of all types.

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1. Ibid., p. 314.
2. Ibid., p. 316.

During the war period these types of workers were kept at a minimum, but after the war there was a need for a better control of workers, and a more careful treatment of new ones. Because of the release of people from industrial work, there was an increase in clerical workers. This made an effective program of clerical training all the more important.

Can the School Train Clerks? Tonne[1] believes that this question cannot be answered by a simple "Yes" of "No." Because of the numerous combinations of duties assigned to clerks, it is impossible for the school to give complete and specific training on a pre-employment basis. Thousands of opportunities develop each year in various clerical occupations requiring little or no specific training, and thousands of more or less specially trained applicants apply each year for such positions. If the secondary school gives too highly specialized training, the chances are greatly reduced of matching the specifically trained person with a job requiring his specific abilities.

In most general clerical opportunities, specific knowledge and skill requirements are few, while personality requirements are rather high. The prospective employer, therefore, places more emphasis on personal qualifications and less on special training.

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1. Ibid., p. 316.

Lewis Toll, of State College, Pullman, Washington, in a personal statement, is quoted by Tonne as believing that:

> The general clerical courses will never be offered in a high percentage of public schools, and parents and school administrators are probably correct in determining that the economic, social, and individual pressures are greater for many other high school courses than they are for this course.
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> The general clerical course cannot be considered as a vocational course in the strict sense of the term since the specific tasks performed in such a course will not be used on the job by the majority of the students of such a course, even if every one of the students enters an office occupation upon completion of school. Furthermore, most of the information and tasks included in this course can more profitably be learned on the job.
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> Probably the best argument for such a course is that there is a large number of high school students who need remedial work in arithmetic, penmanship, and spelling, and who are lacking habits of neatness, orderliness, and thoroughness.[1]

On the other hand, Tonne quotes Benjamin R. Haynes, of the University of Tennessee, in a personal statement when he says:

> Too little attention has been paid to the specific training of boys and girls to enter specific clerical jobs. This gap exists in spite of the fact that census figures show that there are more general clerical office employees than other office groups.
>
> It would seem appropriate, therefore, to establish at least one course whose content should be based upon the findings of job analyses. This course would serve as an introductory or initial course for the spedific preparation of those many students who will, at least temporarily, go into business via "general office" positions.[2]

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1. Ibid., p. 317.
2. Ibid., p. 318.

From these two statements one could probably draw the conclusion that a clerical course does have value even though the school often cannot provide specific training.

Distributive Education

Distributive occupations rank third in the number of persons employed states Tonne.[1] Nearly eight million people are employed in some form of selling or distribution. As American economy becomes more expert in the production of goods, consumers are asking for comparable expertness in the manner in which goods are presented to them. Consumers want to know how to use goods, how to make them last as long as possible, and how to repair them when that becomes necessary. The sad deterioration in merchandising practice that consumers had to tolerate during World War II has made them all the more insistent on improvement of services. Improved distribution techniques will, however, require more workers, and, even more important, better-trained workers.

Difficulties in Offering Distributive Training. Tonne[2] believes that there are difficulties in offering distributive training, desirable and necessary as such training is. First, the field cannot be charted easily. There are many different types of salesmen, each one requiring different skills and knowledge. When the precise steps involved in the selling of a particular piece of merchandise are listed, it is found

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1. Ibid., p. 318.
2. Ibid., p. 343.

that the person is following a formal or theoretical, rather than a realistic, presentation of the sales process. In addition to knowledge of the article or service, selling involves attitudes more than specific ability.

Second, selling is only one phase of a general field. Because of the many occupations listed under the title of sales positions, it must be recognized that training for most of these cannot and should not be given. Some require no formal training, and in others training can be given only on a promotional basis. Furthermore, those for which training might be given in high school often do not fit into the typical classroom picture. They cannot be taught to large classes, from texts, and by a teacher sitting at his desk.

Tonne[1] continues his discussion of distributive education by stating that one of the major reasons for the underemphasis on this training is the inadequate preparation of many of the teachers who give instruction in selling and kindred subjects. If teachers lack experience they are not likely to offer successful courses. Most courses do not deal with salesmanship but with practical psychology. Psychology should be taught to all students rather than only to those who are interested in salesmanship, and practical, or business psychology should be frankly labeled as such, not disguised as a course in salesmanship or distributive

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1. Ibid., p. 343.

training. Many teachers are unable to make this work attractive, although there are abundant opportunities for doing so. In those communities where teachers do make the work realistic, retail training has been highly successful.

Another reason for the inadequacy of distributive training reports Tonne[1] is the failure of schools to enlist the co-operation of selling organizations, such as department stores, in giving salesmanship courses. Without co-operative training, distributive education is often ineffective. As the funds made available by the Federal Government under the George-Barden Act of 1947 can be used in secondary schools only on a co-operative basis, no help for the secondary school prevocational distributive program can be expected from this source.

Federal Aid for Distributive Training. To continue from Tonne's[2] book, the George-Deen Act of 1937, made money available, $2,500,000, from the Federal Government for this type of education. Even when state governments match the Federal contribution dollar for dollar, the total sum available is small compared with that allowed for other vocational fields. Yet, in 1943,[3] 314,666 persons received training in federally aided distributive education. Supervisors of distributive education have been appointed in forty-six states, in the District of Columbia, and in

1. Tonne, Ibid., p. 344.
2. Tonne, Ibid., p. 352.
3. Tonne, Ibid., p. 352.

Porto Rico. While it is true that a considerable portion of the money is still being spent for supervision and control, the amount spent on actual training is increasing every year. Though most of the training has been given in the department-store area, efforts are being increased to train for small-store distributive services.

Training is to be given to persons over sixteen who are full-time workers and who are attending extension or evening classes; for brief periods, to full-time students who are spending as much time on the job as they are in school.

To qualify for employment under the George-Barden Act, teachers and supervisors must have adequate occupational experience. While the state formulates the regulations, the Federal authorities have the right to refuse to accept programs they deem inadequate.

How Much Distributive Training in High School? Tonne[1] feels that it is clearly impossible for the high school to give specific training in most distributive occupations. This school must confine itself to preservice goals and supply the fundamental knowledge of retailing that is useful to anyone who will engage in a distributive occupation. Transfer of most skills to specific job situations is difficult. Nevertheless, a limited amount of marginal vocational ability can be found in distributive courses, particularly when they are taught by teachers with broad experience in merchandising

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1. Ibid., p. 347.

who present the material in a realistic fashion. Salesmanship and advertising as taught in the high school program present the same problems. Except for the marginal benefit they are justified on the grounds of personal use and informational need.

Co-operative training. Tonne[1] tells us that although much of the material taught in distributive education is theoretical rather than practical, the solutions seem to depend on some form of co-operation between schools and industry. The value of co-operative training was first demonstrated in professional schools. When co-operative training was first introduced into the public schools, it was applied only to industrial education.

As private industry always furnished the practical experience, the reciprocal relation between school and office permits the student to make the fullest use of office equipment. The time schedule is an administrative detail. From the employer's point of view, the most important elements of the co-operative plan are wise selection of workers and thoroughly co-ordinated instruction. From the standpoint of the school and the student, the most important feature is the understanding of theory through practical application. In the literal sense, knowledge is applied.

In business education, co-operative training has been most effective in retail selling. Efficient preparation for this occupation can be given only on a co-operative

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1. Ibid., p. 441.

schedule. Selling aptitudes can be developed only if the learner works part time, actually engaging in the basic activities characteristic of this occupation.

How the Co-operative Training Plan Operates. This plan works in various ways explains Tonne[1]. Students may attend school in the morning and work in a store in the afternoon and on Saturday; or, students may attend school for a month or six weeks and work the same length of time. The present trend is to insist that co-operating workers receive the same hourly wage as full-time workers doing the same type of work. In carrying out this program, sound labor standards must be maintained; and pupils should not be exploited. However, in many cases, the wages paid to pupils are so low that they tend to undermine the wage scale in the community. This is particularly true if students are placed in jobs before they reach the age of eighteen. Although co-operative vocational education seems promising, it is possibly more suited to the junior-college level than to the high school level of job training. Possibly the most important element in the plan is the ability of the co-ordinator to articulate school education and job training.

Many business houses do not care to co-operate because they have their own training programs and would not gain anything by the co-operative arrangement. Thus, co-operation is often narrowed to organizations whose primary

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1. Ibid., p. 441.

objective is to reduce pay-roll expenses. Sometime students are kept too long at one job. The educational purpose is soon attained, and thereafter the job becomes only a means of earning a little money.

Tonne says that some educators regard co-operative training as a cure-all for the ills and shortcomings of vocational education. It is often asserted that any program that does not include job training is superficial. This has not been proved. Worth-while education may be given on a preservice, non-co-operative basis in shorthand, typewriting, bookkeeping, and distributive trade areas. Inadequate co-operative programs, which are by no means uncommon, have little or no value. On the other hand, valuable education can be given without formal co-operative work.

J. Marshall Hanna, professor of education, Ohio State University, in a personal comment, makes the following indictment, as quoted by Tonne:

> Probably no other phase of business education has received, in the last few years, as much ballyhoo with as little concrete results as has the so-called trend toward co-operative business education. For the most part these co-operative programs that have been established on the secondary school level are little more than work-experience programs. They resemble true co-operative education on paper only, but not in practice. With rare exceptions, these programs have been merely a convenient source of part-time help for employers who neither understand nor are fundamentally interested in training youth.
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> While there may be some values in just plain work experience, these values can and are being over-estimated. The advantages must be measured in terms of the price the student pays for his

> work experience. That price is acceptance of a restricted education program in school, limited participation in extra-curricular activities, and a decrease in leisure and recreational experience. It all sums up to nothing short of a much over-publicized program for the exploitation of student time.[1]

Tonne[2] sums up his reaction to Mr. Hanna's criticisms by saying that Mr. Hanna limits his judgment to those programs that sound good on paper, but in practice are not what they purpose to be. With this point of view the most ardent advocate of co-operative training would be in agreement. The difference possibly is that Hanna sees the difficulties and limitations of the program, while those who advocate the plan see its opportunities and possibilities. The answer may be somewhere in between.

The Junior High School Business Program

First Business Courses Offered. Tonne[3] tells us that as early as 1890, the Committee of Ten advocated that secondary-school training start after six years of elementary-school work instead of after eight years as was then the general practice. Not much was done with this idea, however, until it was revived in modified form by the Committee on Reorganization of Secondary Education just before World War II and has since become very popular. At first there was little inclination to institute business courses in the junior high schools, but as the tendency to transfer the work of the

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1. Tonne, Ibid., p. 442.
2. Tonne, Ibid., p. 443.
3. Tonne, Ibid., p. 374.

traditional secondary school to the junior high school developed, beginning courses in shorthand and bookkeeping were shifted from the tenth or eleventh grade to the eighth or ninth grade.

It soon became obvious to administrators, though, that these subjects had no vocational justification in the junior high school. Not only are students too young to understand their content, but even if they do learn the material, by the time they are in a position to utilize these skills, the skills have been forgotten. Instruction in formal occupational subjects has been unsatisfactory in many junior high schools; and in these cases the instruction has had to be repeated in the senior high school causing unnecessary duplication of effort, disinterest on the part of the students, and inefficiency in the educational program.

There was, therefore, a strong tendency to modify these courses to meet the needs of junior high school students. Courses in junior high school bookkeeping and shorthand were developed by textbook publishers. This procedure was not too successful, and the attempts to set up special courses in shorthand on the junior high school level generally have been dropped. In some schools the work has been retained as a phase of a try-out program. The elimination of bookkeeping as a formal junior high school subject has been much slower. There are, however, very few

junior high schools in which formal courses in bookkeeping sill persist, though record-keeping courses are not uncommon.

Attempts were also made to include commercial geography, business arithmetic, and other social-business subjects in the junior high school, but the regular courses in these subjects have been so vitalized that there is little difference between the traditional subjects and the business course. Consequently, the special business subjects have also been eliminated.

Typewriting has survived in the junior high school because it involves manipulative skills that appeal to students of that age.[1] As the personal-use aspect of typewriting is steadily increasing, the course may well be given in the junior high school. Although typewriting may be taught for personal use, it should not be taught superficially or by untrained teachers. Typewriting instruction in the junior high school is justified only if it offers opportunities for the acquisition of skills that may be used as the basis for advanced training in the senior high school, where the subject is given vocationally. This can be correlated with other subjects. For example, pupils can work out their school newspaper at the typewriter and mimeograph it as a part of their typing instruction. Typewriting is a popular subject in the junior high school and undoubtedly will continue

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1. W. T. Gruhn and H. R. Douglas, The Modern Junior High School, (The Ronald Press Co., 1947) p.169.

to draw considerable enrollment.

Subsequent development. The next stage in the development of business education in the junior high school, as explained by Tonne[1], was the bringing together of the various phases of business into one course. In some localities, this course consisted of little more than a fusion of penmanship, spelling, and arithmetic; in others, it supplemented general business and clerical training. Efforts were made to co-ordinate the content; formal drill in the tool subjects was replaced by emphasis on business relationships.

Tonne[2] makes the interesting observation that studies reveal that penmanship, arithmetic, and spelling can be taught efficiently when fused with the rest of the content of this course.

An increasing appreciation of junior business training was manifested. The emphasis on different objectives for the course varied with the schools. The elementary portion of the subject was frequently required of all seventh- or eighth-grade pupils. In addition, many schools offered the advance portion as an elective clerical-training course.

Present objectives of Junior Business. The objectives of junior business as given by Tonne[3] are as follows:

1. It aims to give students an elementary understanding of business and to show that this aspect of human endeavor has, like other social institutions, both desirable and undesirable characteristics.

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1. Tonne, op. cit., p. 376.
2. Ibid., p. 376.
3. Ibid., p. 378.

2. It delineates the manner in which business services may be used and attempts to make the students a more skillful user of these services.

3. It emphasizes a guidance program. It answers such questions as: What are the various business occupations into which a boy or girl may enter? What is an accountant? How much salary does he receive? What kind of training should he be given? What is the tenure of this kind of position? What are its desirable and undesirable features? What are the opportunities for women in accountancy and other occupations.

4. It serves as an introduction to other courses in business.

Future Status of Business Subjects in the Junior High School. Enrollment in junior business training grew rapidly during the 1920's and 1930's, says Tonne[1]. In more recent years, however, it has become more stationary; in fact, in some areas the enrollment has decreased. There apparently has been a failure to make use of business-education experiences on the junior high school level to the extent to which they fit into the junior high school pattern of instruction. All too often the fault is due to the fact that business teachers in the junior high school are interested in teaching shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping and know little about the objectives of the junior high school.

Tonne[2] explains that a survey of the programs of junior high schools will show that many aspects of business

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1. Ibid., P. 382.
2. Ibid., p. 383.

have been made integral parts of the total unified core program of the junior high school. For example, in the social-studies core of the junior high school, such units as trade will be found to be receiving prominent attention. Typing, record keeping, advertising, banking, and similar business activities will be found among the more usual and more satisfying pupil cocurricular activities.

While formalized attention to the junior aspects of business training may be losing ground, the consideration of business as an aspect of our social system is receiving increasing consideration. In some respects, therefore, the tendency to drop the formal presentation of business subjects in the junior high school has its desirable aspects.

CHAPTER VII

COLLEGES AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS

College School Of Business

Brief Early History. From the book, American Universities and Colleges,[1] we learn that the Wharton School of Finance and Economy of the University of Pennsylvania, organized in 1881, was the first formal collegiate school of business instruction in the United States. Its original program consisted of academic courses with a considerable addition of economic subjects dealing with such general topics as money and banking, the business cycle, general taxation, principles of commerce, and the business aspects of law. The program of business training was merely an adjunct to the department of economics.

Around the opening of the twentieth century, several other collegiate schools of business appeared in widely separated areas--the University of California, the University of Chicago, Dartmouth College, New York University, the University of Wisconsin, and the University of Michigan. At present most large universities and many smaller institutions have schools, or at least departments,

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1. American Universities and Colleges, 1940 Edition, (Published by American Council on Education, 1940) pp. 103-104.

of business.

Subject matter in collegiate schools of business. As explained by Tonne[1], the collegiate school of business is a new institution; and therefore, some of the course content is still not too well integrated. Some of the teaching material consists merely of descriptions of business practices, personal and possibly irrelevant business experienc of the instructor, superficial applications of economic theory, generalizations about management not based upon research, and incompletely digested ideas about psychology often based upon outworn theories. As management concepts become more professionalized and as futile subject matter is gradually eliminated, this work will improve.

Many specialized curricula are offered: Accounting, advertising, banking, brokerage, business law, foreign trade, hotel management, insurance, journalism, management, real estate, retailing, secretarial training, taxation, teacher training, and traffic management. There are also general curricula, which are similar to the liberal-arts program for those who have not decided upon a subject in which to specialize.

Often the courses and curricula are organized on the basis of careful analysis; but such factors as faculty availability, good will of the liberal-arts college, and

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1. Herbert A. Tonne, Principles of Business Education, (Gregg Publishing Co., 1947) P. 406.

vested interests are at times permitted to be more influential in program making than the needs of students. This short-sightedness may be a serious hindrance to the growth of the collegiate school of business.

No significant emphasis is given to small-business enterprise in colleges of business. Smaller business is typical of the American system, and many young men with initiative engage in it. Yet the school of business gives almost all attention to large-business management and neglects the small business into which many of its graduates eventually or probably should go.

Collegiate training in secretarial science. The school of business says Tonne,[1] has been traditionally opposed to training in shorthand and typing because it was deemed that these subjects were not truly professional in character. It is true that the average college graduate would not make a life's work of secretarial service. Nevertheless it is an excellent entering wedge into business. During the depression years of the 1930's, therefore, several collegiate schools that wished to give added service to their students included training in secretarial work in their four-year propram in the school of business offerings.

The school of business faces a dilemma in regard to these subjects. If it gives all of them in the freshman and sophomore years, these skills are likely to be weakened, if

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1. Ibid., p. 409.

not lost, by the time the students go out to practice. On the other hand, if they are bunched into the junior and senior years, they definitely conflict with the concept of the school of business where only advanced work is presented. Some schools solve the problem, in part, by offering the basic courses in the first two years and then giving courses in secretarial training, speed dictation, and in practical secretarial experience in the last two years; in this way the basic skill is maintained, and the professionalized elements of the work are developed. Schools of business are further encouraged to give secretarial training as a service to prospective teachers of shorthand and typing because in some cases the schools of education are not permitted, or do not wish, to give that training.

The Graduate School of Business

Tonne[1] reveals in his book that graduate schools of business administration have developed in some of the larger universities. As a rule the bulk of their student body is composed of graduates from liberal-arts colleges; therefore much of the work is similar to that of the undergraduate school of business, though possibly offered on a more intensive basis. In all these graduate schools, however, definite efforts are being made to create an environment for genuine advanced work. Research facilities are gradually

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1. Ibid., p. 410.

being provided, and within recent years studies of serious merit have been produced. Several of the schools have organized institutes for the study of specialized phases of business. Most of those who receive their doctorate in graduate schools of business do so with the intention of teaching business in schools of business.

In spite of the problems confronting collegiate and graduate schools of business the enrollment in these courses has definitely increased.

Junior-College Business Education

Types of junior colleges. Walter C. Ellis,[1] author of the book, Why Junior College Terminal Education? explains that there are various forms of public juhior colleges, such as junior colleges supported by city public-school systems and those supported by junior-college school districts. These junior colleges usually, as in California, receive state aid, but are also dependent on local taxation. Then there are the state junior colleges directly under the state department of education or a special board supported by the state government. Finally there are those junior colleges that are branches of the state university, either off the main campus or directly on it. Those junior colleges belonging to a university usually are not classified among junior colleges because they are considered merely the first two years of the

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1. Walter C. Ellis, Why Junior College Terminal Education? (George Banta Publishing Co.) pp. 1-13.

full four-year program, even though they may operate just like independent schools. Among private junior colleges are the denominational colleges; nondenominational, nonprofit schools; branches of privately controlled universities; and proprietory, or profit-motivated,schools. Some private business schools resemble junior colleges, and a few have actually taken the designation.

Functions of the junior college. The basic function of the junior college as revealed by Ellis[1] is to make post high school instruction available to students for whom it would otherwise not be offered, either because of geographical placement or because of cost. Supplementary to this purpose is that of extending secondary training to those who can profit by it. The college is not able or willing to give many subjects that the high school is finding it wise to shift beyond the twelfth year. Most high schools, for example, have decided that they are not fitted to give training for junior accountancy, and that their students are too immature to profit from it. The college of business is very much concerned with preparation for accountancy as a senior profession rather than as a junior occupation, and with training in the various ramifications of accounting. Nevertheless there are many opportunities for the junior accountant, and thousands of young men are interested in entering the work at this level. Here is a unique service for the junior collegiate type of school.

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1. Ibid., pp. 1-13.

Furthermore, a group of business occupations is developing for which training should be given on a post high school level, but which the senior college is unwilling or unable to provide. In presenting training for these semi-professional services, the junior college has a major service to render. Junior colleges serve as job-preparation institutions, so that economically there is sound justification for this type of school.

Business education in the junior college. Business education has not yet found a fixed place in all junior colleges, says Tonne,[1] for many junior collegiate institutions are continuing to give a purely academic education. The junior college can successfully offer a preprofessional business curriculum, since it is commonly agreed that the first two years of college should stress general education, permitting the student to specialize in the last two years. Junior colleges still emphasize transfer to senior colleges, as shown by the curricula listed in their catalogues. Yet only twenty-five per cent of the students enrolled in junior colleges in Chicago, for example, go to institutions of higher learning.[2]

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1. Herbert A. Tonne, Principles of Business Education, (Gregg Publishing Co., 1947) p. 424.
2. Ibid., p. 424.

Furthermore, Shields, as quoted by Tonne,[1] found that thirty-three per cent of the students who finished junior-college courses went to college, and sixty-two per cent entered employment. It would appear, therefore, that excessive emphasis is placed on college-entrance curricula and not enough on terminal education.

Terminal Training in the Junior College. Ellis[2] believes that the terminal program is gradually entering the junior college. In fact over a third of the terminal programs--for those not preparing for entrance into senior colleges--are vocational in nature. There is every reason for all but a portion of the terminal curricula to have vocational objectives, but that will require considerable adaptation in the thinking of parents, students, and instructional staff. A considerable number of business occupational subjects are taught shorthand, for example although the extent to which shorthand should be given in the junior college has not been determined. Measurable amounts of salesmanship, bookkeeping, and junior accountancy are also offered in the junior college. General business durricula tend to predominate in junior-college business training with secretarial training a close second. The number of specialized programs in accounting, merchandising, management, legal secretarial, and medical secretarial is far less frequent.

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1. Ibid., p. 424, H. G. Shields, Junior College Business Education, pp. 26-30.
2. Walter C. Ellis, Why Junior College Terminal Education? (George Banta Publishing Co.) pp. 285-323.

There are several other specializations offered in junior colleges in terms of the local needs and opportunities for employment for graduates.

Job training in the Junior College. Tonne[1] is of the opinion that the junior college can render an excellent service in the field of general clerical work. As the ordinary secondary school cannot afford to install the numerous machines now used in offices, the junior college can probably take over this type of education, particularly in metropolitan areas.

A vocational skill subject is best learned just before it is to be used. The interest is keener at that point, the methods and subject matter are more up-to-date, and there is no loss of skill due to disuse. The upgrading of skill subjects, however, will be a gradual process, because many high school graduates still find employment and teachers and counselors have not yet convinced parents that a high school education is often insufficient preparation for a stenographic or bookkeeping position with its promotional opportunities. In time, however, parents will realize that better positions are obtained by those with more training; and, as post high school public education is extended, they will acknowledge the advantage of deferring technical training until boys and girls have had a broader education.

Since terminal curricula are not bound by tradition or college-entrance requirements, the courses should be

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1. Tonne, op. cit. p. 427.

functional. To this end the employment possibilities of the community should be surveyed, and the abilities of present and prospective students should be studied. Then the work should be planned to fit both the students and the vocational needs of the community. The fact that the junior college is free to adjust itself to community needs enables it to render a distinctive service. Work experience should be an essential phase of junior-college training.

Business courses offered by Junior Colleges. The business courses offered in junior colleges declares Ellis[1] are not markedly different from those in the senior high school or the collegiate school of business. The most common subjects are economics, accounting, banking, and finance. Typewriting, shorthand, office practice, business law, and merchandising rand next in popularity. Courses in economic geography, consumer education, and real estate problems are also taught.

Adult Education For Business

Tonne[2] is of the opinion that just as it is desirable for the community, either through its industrial plants or possibly in its schools, to train people for initial service in skilled occupations, it is likewise often helpful to provide retraining programs for those jobs made unnecessary by new developments in industry. The speed of change in our

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1. Walter C. Ellis, Present Status of Junior College Terminal Education. (George Banta Publishing Co.) pp. 75-76.
2. Herbert A. Tonne, Principles of Business Education, (Gregg Publishing Co., 1947) p. 447.

system of production is such that there is a constant resultant of unemployed due to technological developments. It is most unwise for us to put people of the age of sixty, fifty-five, and in many cases, even forty-five, on the shelf just because their particular skills are no longer vocationally significant.

Industrial organizations are frequently willing to give initial training to young workers, but are often reluctant to give this type of training to the older workers. For this reason it may often be even more desirable to give school training to the older worker who has lost his particular trade due to technological changes than it is to give it to the younger worker. There can be little doubt that a significant growth in adult school education is of value.

The adult-education movement functions through many vehicles--through adult institutes, labor lyceums, evening schools, recreation centers and specialized schools. In most cases, existing educational facilities can be adapted to meet the needs of adults.

Special classes for adults in full-time vocational schools, colleges, and other institutions must be provided because the training offered to adolescents is not suited to persons of mature years.

The adult-education movement is too recent to possess particular characteristics so far as business education is concerned. Considerable experimentation is needed, therefore;

but unquestionably adult education for business offers splendid opportunities and will undoubtedly become widespread in the future.

On-The-Job Training For Business

Need for on-the-job training. Tonne[1] asserts that the outstanding deficiency of vocational training has been inadequate on-the-job instruction. The result of this failure of employers to give good on-the-job instruction has caused secondary school and post high school vocational administrators to attempt to provide job training for many types of work that could be better learned on the job. This has been especially true of business education. Except for a limited number of office-machine workers and a considerable number of stenographers, there is little specific preemployment training required for business occupations. Some training supervisors in department stores have little patience with preemployment training in merchandising. They are often quite willing to participate in co-operative training programs, not, however, because of the unique quality of the training received in school, but because it provides them with able and willing young workers for the initial jobs that people are reluctant to take on a full-time basis. Furthermore, they are able through this procedure to select from among the part-time workers the more desirable ones for full-time employment. The marginal organizations co-operate because

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1. Ibid., p. 454.

they get workers for lower salaries, and, in many communities, obtain free service. The real solution, says Tonne,[1] to this problem is not to attempt to put all forms of job training for business into the secondary school or into the thirteenth year or to provide co-operative training, but rather to provide competent on-the-job training.

Industry has tried for some time to have effective on-the-job training, but it has proved difficult because of lack of standards, and lack of good instructors who knew how and what to teach and how to make the workers enthusiastic for such training. Because of this Tonne[2] gives us the criteria by which business and industry are now trying to set up good on-the-job training programs. They are as follows:

1. On-the-job training must be promoted. No matter how good a training program is, if people are not sold on its value, they will not appreciate it.

2. The purposes of training must be determined. The trainer must know why he is giving the training; he must have varied evidence of what it can do; and he must make certain that the means for carrying through the training program are available.

3. Training standards must be determined and based upon specific evidence of job performance.

4. Selection is basic to effective training. Personnel must be selected as efficiently as possible in order to make training result in maximum usefulness.

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1. Ibid., p. 454.
2. Ibid., pp. 463-471.

5. There must be incentive for improvement. Office workers must be convinced that they will benefit personally by improving their performance.

6. Facilities should be adequate. Unless the office manager is willing to provide adequate training facilities, the training program will be severely handicapped.

7. Qualified instructors are needed. The trainers must be convinced of the value of their work, and they must be able to stimulate interest in all those concerned with the training program.

8. Training must be well-planned. The procedure for training must be thought out carefully, and every step must fit into its proper place. Needs must be determined, facilities provided, and trainers obtained.

9. Techniques must be determined. It must be decided whether there shall be group instruction or at-the-desk instruction.

10. The trainer must participate in the process of creating good office personnel relations as personality adjustments are even more significant in causing poor office performance than lack of technical knowledge.

11. Integration of training is necessary. The worker must not only know her isolated duties, but also how her work is related to the work of the rest of the office.

12. Training must be used. Unless trainees find that there is to be immediate application of their training, they become disinterested and transmit this disinterest to their superiors.

13. Follow-through is essential. The initiator of the on-the-job training program must make certain that the purpose is attained.

14. Evaluation is fundamental. Top management wants to know that the money it is spending on training is producing results.

During the war, TWI, a service of the War Manpower Commission set up a course in Job Instructor Training. The results of this to war industry and the armed forces office training were tremendously effective.

Training Teachers of Business Subjects

> The success of the educational process depends, in large measure, on the teacher. No doubt, some people are born teachers; but there are not many of them. Consequently, it is necessary to utilize the services of thousands of persons who become successful teachers through training and experience.[1]

Early Training of business teachers. From the book, Problems in Business Education,[2] Eighteenth Yearbook, we learn that when business subjects were first introduced into the high school the private business school was usually the only available source for teachers. Although those teachers knew their subjects thoroughly, they did not always understand the educational objectives of the public school and were apt to follow the methods of the private business school.

The next step in business education was to draw

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1. Ibid., p. 475.
2. Problems in Business Education, Eighteenth Yearbook, 1947-1949. Published by The Columbia Education Association of the City of New York and vicinity, 1949. pp. 8-16.

teachers from one- and two-year normal schools. Normal-school graduates would attend a private business school for a few months to learn shorthand, typewriting and bookkeeping, preparatory to taking positions as business teachers in the high schools. Later the normal schools introduced business education. In general though, they found it difficult to give prospective teachers the business education they needed because of the difficulty of including more than a few technical business courses in a program planned primarily for elementary-school teachers.

At the opening of the present century, business teachers were occasionally recruited from newly established collegiate schools of business. These schools, as a rule, offered courses only in accounting and allied subjects. Secretarial teachers, therefore, had to be procured elsewhere. However, improved business training was by this time given in some three-year normal schools, which graduated many qualified teachers.

In general, lack of adequate training and limited outlook were characteristic of most of these earlier programs. In addition, the business courses were considered practical rather than cultural, and this also tended to lower the prestige of business education.

One of the early devices for the improvement of teachers in service was the teachers institute. The extent of improvement in quality that can be attained in a one- or two-day program planned to meet the needs of all teachers

regardless of previous exposure was, of course, limited.

Another early practice was the certification of teachers on the basis of examination. When the county superintendent of schools with little or no background in business set the examination, it is obvious that the check-up was not very valid. In some cases the examinations were given under the auspices of the state department and were quite efficiently handled.

Until about 1925, less than a quarter of the business teachers had earned the baccalaureate degree. Since 1925, a great advancement in the profession standing of business teachers has taken place.

Present training. In the book, Synchronizing Business Education with Business Needs,[1] Nineteenth Yearbook, we find that today few business teachers acquire their preparation in private business and normal schools. The majority attend teachers colleges and universities that specialize in business and education. This is as it should be, for private business and normal schools cannot, as a rule, offer all the training that the business teachers need.

The following are given as the minimum requirements for teachers of business subjects:

1. The skills and attitudes desirable for all educated persons.

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1. Synchronizing Business Education with Business Needs, Nineteenth Yearbook. Published by The Commercial Education Association of the City of New York and Vicinity, 1950.

2. Training in business or in some phase of it.

3. A knowledge of principles and methods of teaching.

4. A general cultural education.

Many schools now require business experience for teachers. If the business experience of the teacher is of the right kind then it is very valuable. If, however, the experience is not good and the teacher gains the wrong impression of the true procedures in an office then by giving this information to students she is doing more harm than good. However, there is no quarrel with the importance of business experience of the proper kind.

Graduate training for business teachers is now almost a must. There is also an increasing emphasis upon in-service training, as well as pre-service training. Now the fifth year is widely recognized as a phase of the pre-service work; and hence it is quite different from the true graduate study. Some states require a certain number of graduate credits before a certificate is given. Summer school and extension training are also providing important phases of teacher training.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY

From the material read, it was learned that man has always had some sort of commerce. Informal training for business is probably as old as business itself. In this study the writer has traced business training from the apprenticeship form in ancient times to present-day business education. This apprenticeship training reached its pinnacle during the period of the Middle Ages.

Although there were some formal schools for business training in some of the Hanseatic cities during the Renaissance, their programs of instruction had little influence on present-day training either here or in Europe.

With the coming of the factory system of production, the effectiveness of the apprenticeship system as an organized thing gradually decreased. Apprentices became merely hands working for an employer at lower wages. This brought about the beginning of business training.

In the 1800's, Germany, France, Austria,

England, Switzerland, Italy, and Belgium had developed some form of commercial training to take care of the needs of the men in the business field at that time. Courses were given in commercial arithmetic, discount, bookkeeping, and science of government.

The apprenticeship system did not develop extensively in the United States as it was eliminated by the factory system. Organized business education did not develop as fast as industrial education because until recent years trade was simple and required few specialized techniques. Some bookkeeping, primarily the copying of records was taught in the Latin Grammar School.

There is evidence that bookkeeping, arithmetic, and some shorthand were taught in the American Academy. However, shorthand was not in much use as proceedings of legislatures and courts were not kept in any detail.

With the advent of the typewriter in the early 1870's, business education in the schools developed. However, it was not until the close of the twentieth century that the typewriter was perfected and proved to be efficient.

In 1837, Isaac Pitman invented a shorthand system that became widely popular, but the value of shorthand remained restricted until the typewriter was perfected.

About 1890, John Robert Gregg brought his system of shorthand to the United States. This is the system most widely used in the United States and English-speaking

countries. It has also been adapted to eleven foreign languages. Gregg Shorthand is taught in 99.25 per cent of the cities and towns in the United States where instruction in shorthand is offered.

Thomas Shorthand was produced in 1935, and Forkner Shorthand in 1952. These have not as yet received anywhere near the popularity of Gregg.

Machine Shorthand was developed in 1913. This is now used in specialized work in Federal and state services, trade associations, manufacturing, publishing, and reporting.

With the organization of large industrial and financial business units after the Civil War, there was a steady demand for competently trained bookkeepers. Because of this need for trained workers the private business schools developed. The Bryant-Stratton chain was started in Cleveland in 1852. By 1865, this organization had forty-four schools in forty-four cities.

During World War I, it was necessary to train thousands of people in shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping. This gave further impetus to the private school. Before this time the public had not seen the need for teaching shorthand, typing, and bookkeeping in the high school so little effort was made to give extensive training in the public schools.

After the demand for trained bookkeepers and stenographers grew to such proportions, parents began to realize

the need for business training, but did not see why it was necessary for them to send their children to private schools when public schools were available. Because of the demand, most high schools now teach business subjects.

Distributive education, (George-Deen Act, 1937) a fairly new subject in secondary schools, is assuming greater importance. There are difficulties in offering this training, but as teachers are being trained for it and business is becoming interested and will co-operate these difficulties will be removed.

Some business training has been given in the junior high school, but most of it has been eliminated because students of that age are not ready for this type of work. Typewriting has survived in the junior high school because it involves manipulative skills that appeal to students of that age.

Because business training has assumed such importance there are other special schools offering business courses. Most colleges and universities now offer some of this training. The Wharton School of Finance of the University of Pennsylvania, established in 1881, was the first formal school of college business instruction in the United States. Our present college and graduate school of business courses have developed from this.

The junior college is developing a business course for those students who do not plan to go on to college.

In many cities, retraining programs are now offered in the adult education classes, so that people from age forty-five through sixty-five can be trained for some type of business work. This offers splendid opportunities for these people and will undoubtedly become widespread in the future.

Industry and business are now offering on-the-job training for people already employed. Where this has been carefully worked out, it has proved of great value to the organizations concerned.

Teacher training for business has developed since 1925. Now the majority of business teachers attend colleges and universities that specialize in business education. Graduate training for teachers is now almost a must. There is also an increasing emphasis upon in-service training, as well as pre-service training.

Perhaps no better general summary of the status and development of trends in business education exists than that presented by Tonne[1] when he discusses the offerings, progress, social aspects, job training, and teacher training for this branch of education.

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1. Herbert A. Tonne, Principles of Business Education, (Gregg Publishing Co., 1947) pp. 554-557.

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