

A HISTORY OF CLERICAL PRACTICE
IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

By

EDWARD FRANCIS BOCKO
Bachelor of Science
State Teachers College
Salem, Massachusetts

1949

Submitted to the Department of Business Education
Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of
Master of Science

1950

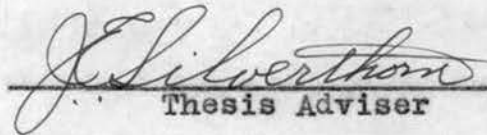
A HISTORY OF CLERICAL PRACTICE
IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

EDWARD FRANCIS BOCKO


MASTER OF SCIENCE

1950

THESIS AND ABSTRACT APPROVED:


Thesis Adviser


Faculty Representative


Dean of the Graduate School

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Acknowledgment is made to Dr. J. Andrew Holley, Head of the Department of Business Education, and Mr. James E. Silverthorn, Head of the Department of Secretarial Administration, who gave their time so willingly to render valuable advice and guidance in the writing of this study.

Sincere gratitude is extended to my wife Ruth for her patience, understanding, and encouragement.

Edward Francis Bocko

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	vi
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem	1
Need for the Study	2
Definition of Terms	3
Method and Procedure	5
II. EVIDENCES OF CLERICAL PRACTICE IN EARLY BUSINESS TRAINING	8
The Colonial Period	8
The Early National Period	9
The Experimental Period	9
The Monopolistic Period	11
Early Business Training in Public High Schools.	13
Factors Affecting the Growth of Early Business Training	15
Clerical Practice in Early Business Education.	16
Early Business Education Curricula	19
Summary	21
III. CLERICAL PRACTICE IN THE FIRST HALF OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY	23
Variety of Titles for Clerical Training Courses	23
The Clerical Practice Course in the Business Education Curriculum	25
The Clerical Practice Curriculum	48
Findings and Recommendations Concerning the Advancement of Clerical Practice	50
Federal Aid and Clerical Training	57
Summary	58
IV. THE GROWTH OF CLERICAL PRACTICE ACCORDING TO PUPIL ENROLLMENTS AND THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS OFFERING THE COURSE	60
Enrollments in Office Practice and in Other Business Subjects	60
Number of Schools Reporting Office Practice and Pupil Enrollments in Office Practice in Various Years	67
Summary	82
V. FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS	87
Findings	87

Conclusions	Page 89
BIBLIOGRAPHY	92

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. Number of Students Enrolled in Certain Business Subjects in Public High Schools of the United States, 1922-1934	61
II. Number and Percentage Distribution of Gainful Workers, Male and Female In Clerical Occupations in the United States, 1870-1930	63
III. Offerings and Enrollments in Selected Business Courses in 1684 Public Schools and 113 Nonpublic Schools in the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1925	65
IV. Enrollment Figures for Certain Business Subjects in Virginia's 293 High Schools, 1948	66
V. Number of Secondary Students in Public High Schools Pursuing Office Practice in 1921-1922	68
VI. Number of Secondary Students in Public High Schools Pursuing Office Practice in 1927-1928	70
VII. Offerings and Registrations in High School Office Practice Courses in the United States, 1933-1934.	72
VIII. Total Number of Students Pursuing Machine-Operating and Office Practice Courses in Private Commercial and Business Schools in 1924-1925	75
IX. Total Number of Students Pursuing Machine Operating and Office Practice Courses in Private Commercial and Business Schools in 1928-1929	77
X. Total Number of Students Pursuing Machine Operating and Office Practice Courses in 543 Private Commercial and Business Schools in 1932-1933.	79
XI. Reports by 100 High Schools in the United States on Courses Primarily Clerical in Content and on Length of Course Offered, 1933	83
XII. Number and Per Cent of Pupils Enrolled in Office Practice in New Jersey High Schools During the Ten-Year Period from 1929-1930 to 1938-1939	84

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

With the advent of the Industrial Revolution new commercial activities came into existence, and the business world became more complex. As a result of the above-mentioned economic changes, the need for a different sort of occupational training became more apparent. To meet this demand academic programs of study were modified to include vocational business education and general business education. In the years that followed, several subjects were incorporated into the business education curriculum. One of these subjects was clerical practice.

Statement of the Problem

1. What circumstances brought about the introduction of clerical practice into the secondary school curriculum?
2. What has been the content of clerical practice in the secondary school?
3. What has been the growth and development of clerical practice courses based on (a) number of schools offering course, and (b) enrollment trends?
4. How are the course titles characterized?

An effort has been made to produce "a faithful record of"¹ the growth of clerical practice in order to make known the answers to these questions. This study serves as an aid in analyzing and interpreting the present status of clerical practice in the secondary school curriculum. A sketch of the early advancement

¹Carter V. Good, A. S. Barr, and Douglas E. Scates, The Methodology of Educational Research, p. 239.

of business education in the United States as well as references to historical events of our country and the world that influenced the growth of business training have been included in the study to provide background for the specific subject.

Need for the Study

Elvin S. Eyster has said, "In the field of business education there are several areas about which knowledge is incomplete and regarding which facts and relationships are not clearly established."² One phase of business education that is still in the developmental stages is clerical practice.

To further justify the need for a study of the history of clerical practice, two significant quotations are offered. In 1927 Frederick G. Nichols and his associates said, "Office procedure has undergone great changes since business courses were first offered, and yet these courses, which are supposed to train for the performance of office duties, have undergone little change as far as the majority of secondary school commercial pupils are concerned."³ Twenty-two years later, in 1949, another leader in the field of business education expressed himself in similar words.

Many social and economic changes in our national life have occurred which have made it clear that our traditional business curriculum no longer adequately prepares students for modern social and business conditions. Instruction solely in

² Elvin S. Eyster, Some Factors in the Training of Clerical Workers, by Alton B. Parker Liles, Foreword, p. 2.

³ Frederick G. Nichols and Others, A New Conception of Office Practice, Harvard Bulletins in Education, No. 12, p. 20, Quoted in Liles, op. cit., p. 17.

shorthand, typewriting, bookkeeping, and arithmetic cannot possibly be accepted as meeting the requirements of sound vocational business education today.⁴

The facts that are revealed in the study have been presented in an effort to help trace the development of clerical practice in our educational systems.

Definition of terms

The term vocational business education is "the business education (specific skill training) needed by business students in preparation for working in business occupations."⁵

Clerical practice, also known as office practice, means that part of business education in which the student is given training in the use of office equipment and the execution of customary office procedures. Such a course also includes learning the fundamentals regarding personality traits and manners expected of an office employee. To further clarify the meaning of the word clerical, the following information is added:

The clerical field is a specialized curriculum, devoted to the training of clerical workers for business and industry. In addition to background subjects, it generally includes typing, filing, general office work, some record keeping. It does not provide training for bookkeeping or secretarial or selling majors.

⁴ Paul L. Salsgiver, Curriculum Construction in Business Education, Syllabus, (Boston University Visiting Professor, 1949) p. 1.

⁵ M. Herbert Freeman, Basic Business Education Research Study, Preliminary Report No. 5, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education. Division of Vocational Education, Business Education Service, p. 4.

⁶ M. Herbert Freeman, "The Clerical Field and the Youth Problem--As a Business Teacher Sees It," Thirteenth Yearbook, Eastern Commercial Teachers Association, 1940, p. 90.

The term clerk was defined by Frederick G. Nichols and his associates as "one who performs office duties other than taking and transcribing dictation or keeping of a set of books. Therefore, any non-stenographic or non-bookkeeping worker may be regarded as a clerk."⁷

Herbert A. Tonne has stated, "For practical purposes, clerical occupations may be defined as the occupations that include the duties not generally assigned to bookkeepers, stenographers, salespeople, or managers."⁸

The Dictionary of Education says the following concerning the duties of a general clerk: "as used in business education, the designation of one of a large group of office workers who are not employed in the more clearly defined occupations, such as stenography, bookkeeping, or accounting, but who do a variety of office tasks, including the preparation of office forms and statistics and the operation of various office appliances."⁹

Secondary schools, as described in the Dictionary of Education, are institutions, "public or private, which usually consist of grades seven to twelve or nine to twelve, during which pupils learn to use independently the tools of learning that they have previously mastered, in which education is differentiated

⁷ Frederick G. Nichols and Others, A New Conception of Office Practice, Harvard Bulletins in Education, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1927, p. 74, quoted in Liles, op. cit., pp. 26-27.

⁸ Herbert A. Tonne, Business Education, Basic Principles and Trends, p. 202.

⁹ Carter V. Good, Dictionary of Education, p. 77.

in varying degrees according to the needs and interests of the pupils, and which may be either terminal or preparatory."¹⁰ For the purpose of this study, the meaning is extended to include the thirteenth and fourteenth years of schooling.

The term course of study is defined as "strictly an official guide prepared for use by administrators, supervisors, and teachers of a particular school or school system as an aid in teaching in a given subject or area of study for a given grade, combination of grades or other designated class or instruction group."¹¹

Curriculum means "a systematic group of courses or sequence of subjects required for graduation or certification in a major field of study."¹²

Method and Procedure

In conducting this survey, the historical method of research was used as the method best suited to the nature and purposes of the study. In recent years researchers have utilized the survey, experimental, and statistical methods of study more frequently than the historical method to shed new light on the various phases of our educational system. However, "in the field of education there is every indication of returning to the historical method as an ally of the scientific movement rather than to depend so largely for a solution of educational problems upon a questionnaire canvass of practice, a battery of standardized

¹⁰ Carter V. Good, Dictionary of Education, p. 364.

¹¹ Ibid., p. 109.

¹² Ibid., p. 113.

tests, a survey program, majority opinion, or statistical calculations.¹³

The plan suggested in The Methodology of Educational Research was adopted as a framework of the research outline: (1) collection and criticism of data, (2) presentation of the facts in a readable form.¹⁴

For the collection of the data notes were taken on 4" by 6" cards of the information included in both primary and secondary sources. The primary sources consisted of statements by some of today's leading business educators, acts of Congress pertaining to vocational education, and statistical publications of the United States Office of Education. The secondary sources included selected articles in business education periodicals, various clerical practice and business education texts, certain commercial courses of study, yearbooks on business education, and related studies.

The authorship and genuineness of the sources were determined by application of the questions: Who was the author? What was his character? What was his position? When was the material written? For what purpose was the material written?

After the facts on the history of clerical practice were collected and evaluated, they were classified topically and then arranged into chronological order in preparation for their presentation in essay form. The following chapters are devoted

¹³ Good, Barr, Scates, op. cit., p. 282.

¹⁴ Ibid., p. 241.

to the four questions set down in the "Statement of the Problem" at the beginning of this chapter. Certain tables deemed pertinent to the study have been inserted in the proper places.

CHAPTER II

EVIDENCES OF CLERICAL PRACTICE
IN EARLY BUSINESS TRAINING

In order to set the stage for a discussion of the early evidences of clerical practice, the circumstances that brought about the introduction of business education courses must be considered. A brief history, therefore, of business education up to the beginning of the twentieth century and the factors affecting its growth are presented.

The Colonial Period

During the colonial period of economic history in the United States (1635-1789) business was simple, personal, and unorganized in form, consisting for the most part of home industries, agriculture, and some trade.

Their general education having been completed, persons intent on a business career received their training in one or more of the following ways: (1) through apprenticeships in business houses; (2) from private teachers who taught handwriting, arithmetic, and bookkeeping; (3) from the reading of textbooks composed by private teachers; (4) by attendance at evening schools, usually by those enrolled in apprenticeships who felt the need for supplementary study. Records show schools of this type in existence as early as 1668.¹ It is also known that bookkeeping was included in the curriculum of the grammar schools of

¹ Robert F. Seybolt, The Evening School in Colonial America, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin, No. 24 (University of Illinois, 1925), p. 9.

Alexander Malcolm in New York in 1732 and of David James Dove in Philadelphia in 1759.²

The Early National Period

The agencies of business education that existed in the colonial period continued to operate during the early national period from 1790-1820. These years were characterized by a new sense of economic independence, the Louisiana Purchase, the westward movement, adoption of the protective tariff, and the laissez faire policy of the government toward business.³

The Experimental Period

The next era in the expansion of business education is referred to as the experimental period and extended from 1820-1850. During these years intense nationalism, heavy immigration, increased wealth, and new industries were seen. In keeping with the increase in industrial activities more noticeable advances in business education were made, for the first schools devoted exclusively to business training were established in this period. These were the private business schools and colleges.

The first business schools. There is some disagreement as to which school deserves the honor of being the first institution founded for the purpose of training persons for business careers. One source claims "the 'business-college' age in American education began about 1827, at which time 'Benjamin F. Foster's Commercial

² I. L. Kandel, History of Secondary Education, p. 169.

³ Jessie Graham, Evolution of Business Education in the United States, Southern California Education Monographs, 1933-34 Series, No. 2, p. 23.

School' was opened in Boston."⁴ Accounts, arithmetic, and penmanship were the subjects offered at the school. Other information states the first school of this type was begun by R. Montgomery Bartlett in 1834.⁵ He was a bookkeeper who saw the need for instruction in that field. Reports of the United States Commissioners of Education give credit to Dolber's Commercial College, New York City, instituted in 1835, as the first school designed exclusively for commercial training.⁶

Other early business education leaders. Other pioneer business educators who started their careers during these years include James A. Bennett, who featured short-term courses and unlimited attendance in his schools; Thomas Jones, who was the first to outline a plan for the organization of business education on the collegiate level; Peter Duff, whose school has the longest continuous history of any business school in existence; and George Newhall Comer, who, in his school advertisements, mentioned he could usually procure employment for the students needing it.

These first business schools did much to fill the great demand for clerical workers. One writer described the private business schools as follows:

....peculiarly American, the product of a young, eager, and gradually maturing people. It was of spontaneous origin, roughly adapted to the satisfaction of immediate and pressing

⁴ Benjamin R. Haynes and Harry P. Jackson, A History of Business Education in the United States, p. 22.

⁵ L. S. Packard, "Commercial Education," an address in the Practical Age, January, 1897, p. 5, quoted in Cloyd Marvin, Commercial Education in Secondary Schools, p. 13.

⁶ Haynes and Jackson, op. cit., p. 24.

needs in utter disregard of all save a direct response to current demands.⁷

The Monopolistic Period

War needs and the new high tariff provided for in the Morrill Act of 1861 combined to stimulate business during and immediately following the Civil War. Known as the monopolistic period in the development of business education, the years 1850-1890 saw the rapid growth of two types of private business schools: the independent business school and the chain schools.

The independent business schools. Among the first independent business schools was Crittendon's Commercial Institute, founded by A. F. Crittenden in 1844 and incorporated in 1855.⁸ Its faculty was comprised of nine professors and lecturers. A more notable independent school was that of Harvey G. Eastman established in Poughkeepsie, New York in 1859. Mr. Eastman, through much advertising, was able to increase his school's enrollment figures to as much as 4,800 students. "The distribution of what was claimed to be a million circulars to Civil War soldiers still in the field" was considered to be one of "his greatest strokes."⁹ Thomas May Pierce, Silas S. Packard, and Platt Rogers Spencer were also founders of independent business schools.

The chain schools. The most prominent of chain schools was the Bryant-Stratton chain. The first school was started in

⁷ Edmund J. James, Commercial Education, Monograph prepared for the St. Louis Exposition in 1904, quoted in Graham, op. cit., p. 24.

⁸ North American and United States Gazette, September 5, 1855, quoted in Edwin Knepper, A History of Commercial Education in the United States, p. 38.

⁹ Haynes and Jackson, op. cit., p. 29.

Cleveland, Ohio, in 1853 by H. B. Bryant, H. D. Stratton, and James W. Lusk under the name, Bryant, Lusk, and Stratton Business College.¹⁰ Ten years later more than fifty schools were under the management of Bryant and Stratton. Lusk withdrew from the partnership a few years after its formation because of doubts concerning the success of the chain schools.

The owners arranged for uniform textbooks, a feature hitherto never undertaken, and scholarships that would be honored at any of the schools under their management. The curriculum for their courses which covered three to four months included penmanship, bookkeeping, commercial arithmetic, and business law. Heads of the various schools were given the title of managers and were awarded part ownership in the school as remuneration for their efforts. However, trouble arose over unfair agreements of ownership and most of the partnerships were dissolved by 1870. Two other chains--less well-known--were R. C. Bacon's Mercantile College in Cincinnati and its branches which were opened in 1848,¹¹ and the National Union of Business Colleges organized in 1866 in opposition to the Bryant-Stratton Schools.¹² Both were short-lived.

The invention of the typewriter. An important phase of this period was the introduction of the typewriter. In 1873, after a series of more than thirty models had been provided, a machine invented by Christopher Latham Sholes was placed with E. Remington

¹⁰ Marvin, op. cit., pp. 13-14.

¹¹ Knepper, op. cit., p. 40.

¹² Haynes and Jackson, op. cit., p. 28.

and Sons, gunmakers of Ilion, New York.¹³ The Remington Model I was shortly produced, and during the 1880's the typewriter business was established. In fact, by 1885 the typewriter was recognised as a business necessity. With the adoption of the typewriter as an essential office appliance the use of shorthand was greatly increased. Nevertheless, bookkeeping remained the center around which other business subjects developed.

Early Business Education in the Public High Schools

During the 1800's business education did not invade the public high school with the same intensity as it did the private school. The first public high school in the United States was established in Boston, Massachusetts, in 1821 to "furnish the young men who are not intended for a collegiate course of studies, and who have enjoyed the usual advantages of the public schools, with the means of completing a good English education and of fitting themselves for all the departments of commercial life."¹⁴ The school introduced bookkeeping into the curriculum in 1823 but no other business subjects save arithmetic and penmanship were incorporated in any public high school course of study until 1863. In that year shorthand was made a part of the curriculum in Central High School, Philadelphia, and the St. Louis High School.¹⁵ Between 1875-1890 commercial law, commercial arithmetic, and business

¹³ Knepper, op. cit., pp. 59-60.

¹⁴ J. Edmonds, English High School Semi-Centennial Anniversary in Boston, 1871, p. 76, quoted in Emit Duncan Grizzell, Origin and Development of the High School in New England Before 1865, p. 42.

¹⁵ Leverett S. Lyon, Education for Business, p. 239.

forms were added to some high school courses.

The formation of separate business courses. Separate business courses were formed in some public high schools between 1880 and 1885. "Joseph F. Johnson, in his article in A Cyclo-pedia of Education, stated that about 1881 a number of public high schools offered two-year courses for commercial students."¹⁶ It was in the same year that Joseph Wharton gave an endowment to the University of Pennsylvania for the founding of a school of commerce and finance.

Another source revealed the commercial department was organized in the Pittsburgh High School as early as 1872.¹⁷ Its purpose was to provide schooling for those who desired training beyond grade school but who could not spend four years in high school. The two-year course prepared students for business positions.

The establishment of high schools of commerce. In the latter part of the nineteenth century, numerous high schools introduced one-, two-, three-, and four-year courses to enable those who wished to leave after any one of the four years of schooling to go into business. The shorter ones were found of little value but three and four-year courses were kept, finally resulting in the formation of separate high schools of commerce. The first such school established as part of a public school system, was the Business High School of Washington D. C. started in 1890.¹⁸ In

¹⁶ Haynes and Jackson, op. cit., p. 46.

¹⁷ Ibid.

¹⁸ Ibid., p. 65.

1898 the department of commerce in Central High School of Philadelphia was reorganized into the High School of Commerce offering a four-year business course. By 1910 high schools of commerce were in operation in many other cities.

Factors Affecting the Growth Of Early Business Education

The following list of aids and hindrances that affected the expansion of business education up to the twentieth century is offered.

Aids.

1. Long apprenticeships became too slow, inefficient, and costly in the complex business life that developed, thus necessitating the establishment of business schools.
2. The rush from rural to urban life of untrained workers resulted in the need for training facilities.
3. Due to the surplus of workers, child-labor laws and compulsory schooling were brought into being.
4. Business establishment heads required that their employees have some business schooling prior to their employment.

Hindrances.

1. Many educators held the point of view that business education lacked the cultural values.
2. Businessmen contended that "business training could not be obtained in the classroom."¹⁹
3. The students enrolled in the early business courses were

¹⁹ Chessman A. Herrick, "Meaning and Practice of Commercial Education," p. 35, quoted in Marvin, op. cit., p. 47.

often:

- a. too immature to properly prepare for business
- b. inferior, having been discouraged from taking the classical course due to their lack of scholastic ability
- c. of foreign descent and consequently lacked training in English grammar necessary in business

4. The first business teachers did not have proper teacher-training, having only their own business experience as material for their instructions.

5. The equipment available to pioneer business teachers was scant--poorly-written texts or none at all and their own business experience.

6. Some private schools were established for the sole purpose of making money.

Clerical Practice in Early Business Education

Although no courses under the name "clerical practice" were mentioned in early business education curricula, some of the principles embodied in the course as it exists today were evident in the early growth of business training. Before these principles are cited, a review of the meaning of clerical practice seems appropriate. As stated in the first chapter, clerical practice embraces the training of persons in the use of office equipment and in the performance of the usual office techniques. Instruction in filing, business machines, record keeping as well as in proper office etiquette is given. In many schools actual office work is executed.

The apprenticeship system. The early apprenticeship system

of instruction resembled the modern clerical practice course in many ways, but apprenticeships had certain drawbacks. The persons who became apprentices had had no previous business training, and the quality of instruction they received depended on the business experiences of the employer and his ability to convey his business knowledge to others. Furthermore, there was little opportunity for comparison or improvement of methods. Notwithstanding, the apprenticeship system was a beginning in providing practice for future business employees.

The teaching of practical penmanship. More progress in the advancement of business education was made with the establishment of business schools to supplement and replace the apprentice system. In day business schools as well as evening business schools which began as early as 1668, penmanship was an important subject "for good handwriting was needed by bookkeepers, scribes, and for general clerical purposes. Ornamental handwriting was also in demand for the drawing up of deeds and wills."²⁰ Many years later the wide use of the typewriter in offices made good penmanship a less important skill.

The teaching of practical bookkeeping and arithmetic. In 1759 a book, The Modern Elements of Numeral Arithmetic, mentioning no author, was known to contain "demonstrations of the theory and practice of the several branches of commercial arithmetic."²¹

An advertisement by Thomas Byerley and Josiah Day in New York

²⁰ Haynes and Jackson, op. cit., p. 10.

²¹ Charles G. Reigner, "Beginnings of the Commercial Schools," Education, XLIII, p. 134, quoted in Haynes and Jackson, op. cit., p. 12.

in 1774 offered to teach "bookkeeping after the Italian method, and the practice of the most regular Counting Houses."²²

In his history of Commercial Education in the United States, Edwin G. Knepper reported that in the early national period from 1790-1820 the three subjects--penmanship, arithmetic, and book-keeping--continued to dominate the business training field. "Late in the period there was beginning to be evidence of a broadening of the training to include more general business information, bordering very closely on the field of clerical training."²³

To James A. Bennett is given the credit for being the first to make records of transactions from actual business papers and documents or copies of the same. He thought the schoolroom should duplicate the practices of the counting house, with respect to the manner of proposing transactions for the students' consideration. This was in 1820.²⁴

In an announcement concerning his System of Rapid Writing in 1835, Benjamin F. Foster said, "the Clerk acquires a masterly use of the pen and reaps the benefit in an increased salary ... Commercial Book-Keeping is taught in a practical manner; the learner is exercised in buying and selling, in making out bills, invoices, and account sales."²⁵

²² Seybolt, Source Studies in American Colonial Education; The Private School, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin, No. 28 (University of Illinois, 1925), p. 48.

²³ Knepper, op. cit., p. 16.

²⁴ Haynes and Jackson, op. cit., p. 18.

²⁵ Ibid., p. 21.

The adoption of actual business methods. Foster, and later, George W. Eastman, introduced a change in subject matter in bookkeeping by the use of practice in order to make the instruction comparable to the actual business situation. This innovation of connecting systematic bookkeeping with actual transactions was later adopted in the public high schools.²⁶

Some few commercial educators, such as B. F. Foster and Thomas Jones, "exercised a wholesome influence in attempting to give real information regarding the requirements and opportunities of business."²⁷

That the actual business method was regarded with importance may be concluded from the following account of an attempt to patent the plan which appeared in the Poughkeepsie Eagle in the year 1864:

Important Patent!

A patent has just been issued from the patent office granting to Professor Eastman (proprietor of Eastman's Business College) the full privilege of his mode of instruction, combining theory and practice in a business education, of which he is the originator, securing to him, the exclusive right of fitting schoolrooms or college buildings with offices and apparatus for school purposes, covering the entire system of practical instruction as applied to commercial or mercantile colleges or schoolrooms where a practical mode of business instruction is introduced.²⁸

Early Business Education Curricula

A committee on curriculum for the Bryant-Stratton Organization

²⁶ Knepper, op. cit., p. 26.

²⁷ Ibid., p. 28.

²⁸ William J. Hamilton, "Changing Patterns in Business Education," American Business Education, III (October, 1946), p. 58.

during one of the early conventions, made the following suggestions for a schedule of studies for what they called "The Collegiate Course: orthography (proper writing of words); arithmetic, mental and written; penmanship, practical; bookkeeping; law (civil, international, commercial); business correspondence; business customs, ethics, etiquette; commercial geography and statistics; science and wealth (political economy); actual business training in such fields as agriculture, mining, manufacturing, commerce, and finance."²⁹ Of these subjects which were proposed by the Committee, the fundamentals of business correspondence; business customs, ethics, etiquette; and actual business training are incorporated in the modern clerical practice course.

First commercial department. Edmund James, in his statement about the first commercial department which was established at Pittsburgh High School in 1872, said: "A practical department containing various kinds of offices has been established which the students must work through in time."³⁰

An office practice course. In 1898 the Central High School in Philadelphia offered a four-year commercial curriculum which included, besides the common cultural studies, the following business subjects: "business technique, penmanship and business forms, commercial arithmetic, commercial geography, bookkeeping, economics and political science, political economy, modern industrial and commercial history, industrial chemistry, transportation,

²⁹ Knepper, op. cit., p. 49.

³⁰ Edmund J. James, "Commercial Education," Monographs on Education in the United States, pp. 27, 669, quoted in Haynes and Jackson, op. cit., p. 47.

banking and financing statistics, ethics in business, commercial law, office practice, stenography, and observation of business methods."³¹ This body of courses was one of the earliest found to list office practice as a separate unit in the curriculum. Though no explanation as to its content was presented, the assumption is made that the office practice course covered some of the techniques which are included in the clerical practice course today. It is to be noted, however, that business techniques, ethics in business, and observation of business methods, phases of the present clerical practice course, were treated separately in the curriculum just quoted.

Summary

The following statements relate the events of paramount interest in the development of business education up to the twentieth century and, more particularly, the early growth of clerical practice.

1. The early growth of business education during the colonial period (1635-1789) and the early national period (1790-1820) was characterized by business training through apprenticeships, by attendance at evening schools, by instruction from private teachers, and from the reading of business texts.

2. The first schools designed exclusively for business training were established during the experimental period from 1820-1850.

3. Independent business schools and chain schools dominated

³¹ Haynes and Jackson, op. cit., p. 53.

the field of business training in the so-called monopolistic period which extended from 1850-1890.

4. The public high schools offered no business education other than arithmetic, penmanship, and bookkeeping until the 1870's when shorthand, commercial law, and other business subjects were introduced into the curricula.

5. By 1885 the typewriter was recognized as a business necessity.

6. The first high school of commerce was established in Washington, D. C., in 1890.

7. The early apprenticeship system resembled the modern clerical practice course in many respects.

8. Frequently, the early teachings in penmanship, arithmetic, and bookkeeping included instruction comparable to the actual business situation.

9. Early business education curricula listed many courses, the fundamentals of which are now incorporated in the clerical practice course.

10. A course entitled "office practice" was offered at the Central High School in Philadelphia in 1898.

CHAPTER III

CLERICAL PRACTICE IN THE FIRST HALF
OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

This chapter relates primarily the development of the clerical practice course during the first fifty years of the twentieth century. Discussions of the aims, the subject matter and equipment, the grade placement, the time allotment, the credit toward graduation, the teacher requirements, and the various plans of presentation of the clerical practice course in the business education curriculum are included. The discussions are prefaced by an explanation of the variety of course titles under which clerical practice has been taught. The conclusion of the chapter presents findings and recommendations concerning the advancement of clerical training.

Variety of Titles for Clerical Training Courses

Frederick G. Nichols asked in his column, "Criticism, Comment, and Challenge," in 1933 concerning office practice:

Does this term mean anything definite? No other subject is so befuddled with alleged synonyms as this one. Some items which are included in "office practice" or "secretarial practice" belong in typewriting; others belong in advanced shorthand; others belong in junior business training; and still others belong in separate units of instruction in preparation for specific office jobs. Is clerical practice a better term than "office practice"? Or should we use "stenographic practice" for the units of instruction required by prospective stenographers, "bookkeeping practice" for prospective bookkeepers, and "machine clerical practice" for those who wish to develop skill in the operation of office machines? Should we speak of "general office practice," "calculating machine practice," "dictating machine practice," and "filing practice"? The writer doesn't know. Do you? Can this kind of work be standardized and given a name that

will mean something?¹

In a study of 186 titles used to designate the courses which train for office positions, twenty-five different titles were found in existence in 1935.² The most commonly used terms were office practice, office training, secretarial practice, secretarial training, office appliances, and secretarial office practice.

A report made by James S. Carter³ in 1946 revealed the following variations of instruction in courses entitled office training:

1. Some schools teach from a secretarial training text, with no machine work required at all.
2. Another school teaches advanced typewriting under the same name.
3. Another teaches advanced typewriting, duplication, and some filing.
4. Another teaches advanced typing, shorthand, transcription, and voice writing.
5. Another teaches the general clerical problems, filing, duplication, office practice theory, and voice writing.

A fairly recent development in business education which may help standardize the terminology concerning practice courses has been the introduction of a clerical practice curriculum to parallel the traditional bookkeeping and stenographic curricula. The clerical curriculum is considered in more detail further on in

¹ Frederick G. Nichols, "Criticism, Comment, and Challenge," Journal of Business Education, VIII, (February, 1933), 30.

² F. W. Loso, "Trends in Office Practice," Journal of Business Education, XI (October, 1935), 12.

³ James S. Carter, "Modern High School Office Training," American Business Education, II (March, 1946), 152.

this chapter.

The Clerical Practice Course in the Business Education Curriculum

It may be seen from the paragraphs immediately preceding that a large variety of titles have been used to designate a course in office training. In view of this the reminder is given that not all the courses mentioned in the following paragraphs were named "clerical practice" but that the courses embodied some or all of the features of clerical practice as defined in Chapter I.

Aims and objectives. Through the years there has been little agreement by most business education leaders on the purposes of the clerical practice course. The main issues seem to be:

1. Should office practice be primarily a machine course, or should it be primarily a course in office information, or should it combine the two?
2. Should office practice be a broad general course in which students are given introductory training in a variety of office procedures, or should it be a rather narrowly-planned specialized course?⁴

The source material for this study on a history of clerical practice revealed various opinions on the two foregoing questions.

Kahn and Klein, writing in 1914, stated, "Our public schools must content themselves with offering instructions of a general nature. Still a real bridging of the gap between school and office is possible and feasible."⁵ Ten years later, Edward R. Loveland held the viewpoint that "we must have ample opportunity in a

⁴ Peter L. Agnew, "Recent Trends in Office Practice," The National Business Education Quarterly, VIII (October, 1939), 15.

⁵ Joseph Kahn and Joseph Klein, Principles and Methods in Commercial Education, p. 145.

separately organized class to teach, emphasize, and practice those things which the business office demands aside from the technical taking of dictation or the operation of a typewriter." He went on to say, "we should give them, also, a finishing course, to whatever degree possible, in order to minimize their 'greenness,' to give them something of the office atmosphere, to enable them quickly and intelligently to fit into the organization they will enter."⁶

In 1925, when speaking of the office practice course for a business college, Jay Wilson Miller said, "It should be so conducted that the students will have ample opportunity not only to acquire skill in dictation and transcription but to acquaint themselves with all the mechanical appliances and equipment now used in modern business for making, transferring, and keeping office records."⁷

F. W. Loso⁸ expressed the opinion in 1930 that the office practice course should be a finishing-up process of training clerical workers in which all isolated knowledges and skills gained from previous education are united, reviewed, and consolidated. He recommended that the pupil be given the opportunity of becoming acquainted with some of the more common methods and procedures that are observed and practiced in the modern business office and to develop skill in performing various tasks.

⁶ Edward R. Loveland, "Office Practice," Teaching Business Subjects in the Secondary School, edited by Conner T. Jones, p. 169.

⁷ Jay Wilson Miller, Methods in Commercial Teaching, p. 385.

⁸ F. W. Loso, "What is Office Practice?" The Balance Sheet, XII (September, 1930), 6 and 9.

A similar outlook was expressed by Alfred Sorenson in an editorial published in 1933. He declared, "Through office practice, it is possible to revitalize, bring up to date, and correlate with current business problems and practices the previous education of the student and thus aid him in making the transition from the school to his first business job."⁹

The aims outlined by Peter L. Agnew in his workbook "Principles and Problems of Office Practice", printed in 1937, were:

1. A general knowledge of business and office organization from the point of view of the office worker
2. A reasonable skill in the operation of the more widely used office machines and a knowledge of their place in the business office
3. A thoroughgoing knowledge of filing techniques and methods
4. A knowledge of the work of the various general service and special departments of the business office with special emphasis on the office routine, business forms, reference materials, and special equipment used by each
5. A complete understanding and appreciation of the personnel problems of the business office with special reference to the employment and training of office workers and to problems of personality and ethics¹⁰

"The development of those personal qualities so necessary for desirable contacts with other members of society"¹¹ was one of the main objectives of office practice at Armstrong College in 1939.

⁹ Alfred Sorenson, "Editorial Comment," Journal of Business Education, IX (December, 1933), 6-7.

¹⁰ Peter L. Agnew, Principles and Problems of Office Practice, p. 1.

¹¹ L. L. Deal, "Office Practice at Armstrong College," Journal of Business Education, XIV (June, 1939), 14.

Rufus Stickney stated in 1945, concerning office practice, that "some training (and beyond the acquaintanceship stage) should be provided in the operation of the more commonly used office machines."¹²

Speaking of the aims of office practice in 1945, Edwin A. Swanson said:

The objectives and purposes of office practice instruction will and should vary from situation to situation, and this variance undoubtedly should be greater in office practice than it is in most other business subject offerings. Community needs, individual needs, type of institution, character of offering, grade level, and other significant factors should be considered. The result should be a set of defensible objectives growing out of and reflecting the circumstances that characterize the given situation.¹³

Subject matter and equipment. "Several years ago, office practice courses, if given at all, were for the most part informational courses dealing largely with telephone and telegraph, travel facilities, filing, and such other things that might be included in an office practice textbook. Some of these classes were just recitation courses; others included jobs that could be done on the typewriter."¹⁴

The author of one source dated 1914, in explaining about a course entitled Business Practice and Office Routine, declared that "the work in office routine ought to familiarize the student with such factors as the preparation of the letter for mailing, postal laws and regulations, the use of the copying press, and

¹² Rufus Stickney, "Courses in Vocational Business Schools," Journal of Business Education, XXI (October, 1945), 16.

¹³ Edwin A. Swanson, "Instruction in Office Practice," The National Business Education Quarterly, XIV (December, 1945), 4.

¹⁴ Peter L. Agnew, "Recent Trends in Office Practice," The National Business Education Quarterly, VIII (October, 1939), 16.

filing systems."¹⁵ Another course discussed by the same authors was "practicum." The course consisted of discussion periods during which the students, who had been afforded the opportunity to visit business establishments to observe methods and processes in use, reported their findings to the class.

In a chapter on "Office Practice and Routine," Kahn and Klein said of office equipment, "If funds are available, it is undoubtedly good policy to acquire as complete a set of modern appliances as possible." For those institutions that could not aim at completeness in this matter, the following pieces of equipment, in the order given, were suggested: "a filing cabinet, a letter copying press or a rotary copying press, an envelope sealer, and an automatic addresser. Minor furnishings need not be specifically indicated."¹⁶ The authors added the note that in the absence of certain equipment, graphic illustrations or inspections of the appliance in actual business use were suitable substitutes for personal experiences with the piece of equipment.

An example of the fact that office machines were not too readily accepted at first is the notation by Eaton and Stevens¹⁷ that in 1915 the manager of a private commercial school in Cleveland refused to introduce the dictating machine because, in his opinion, it was bad for the operator's nerves and it made for mechanical work. Correspondence with Felt and Tarrant

¹⁵ Kahn and Klein, op. cit., p. 11.

¹⁶ Ibid., p. 145.

¹⁷ Jeanette Eaton and Bertha Stevens, Commercial Work and Training for Girls, p. 31.

Manufacturing Company, L. C. Smith & Corona Typewriters, Incorporated, and Marchant Calculating Machine Company revealed that typewriters, calculators, and comptometers were used in some schools for clerical training purposes between 1905-1920. However, "not until during the twenties was a very definite movement felt to introduce office machines."¹⁸

In 1921, Claude B. Wivel declared, "Students pursuing the bookkeeping course should be taught the use of adding machines, calculating machines, billing machines, protectographs, and the various mechanical appliances to be found in different business offices."¹⁹

In 1924, William Bachrach reported, "the Chicago schools use some five hundred calculating machines in centers and give a practical course in their operation. They also use the dictaphone, multigraph, adding machine, and filing devices in large centers where a large number of machines are accessible, rather than a few machines in each school."²⁰

In 1924, Edward Loveland²¹ stated that the office practice course should be varied according to local needs in business. For lecture room equipment he suggested a model business office

¹⁸ Agnew, "Recent Trends in Office Practice," The National Business Education Quarterly, VIII (October, 1939), 16.

¹⁹ Claude B. Wivel, "The High School Curriculum in Business Subjects," The Balance Sheet, III (November, 1921), 9.

²⁰ William Bachrach, "Vocational Convention, St. Louis," The American Shorthand Teacher, IV (April, 1924), 309.

²¹ Loveland, op. cit., p. 177.

setup, consisting of a set of desks, typewriters, filing cabinets, printed blanks to illustrate usual departmental forms, copying and duplicating machinery, mail room specialties, a small switch-board, listing machines, calculating machines, a check protector, rubber stamps, a numbering machine, copy holders, a stapler, a dictating outfit, and a collection of reference books such as directories and credit rating books.

The writer of a magazine article published in 1927 described the office practice course at the Roosevelt High School in Seattle, Washington, as taking the form of an actual office, the personnel of which performed actual work for school organizations, faculty members, and community organizations such as the Parent-Teachers Association.²²

John G. Kirk, in describing office equipment instruction in Philadelphia, explained that the equipment used in the course included comptometers, a Burroughs calculator, a Monroe calculator, a Dalton adding machine, an Elliott-Fisher billing machine, a Burroughs bookkeeping machine, an Underwood bookkeeping machine, Dictaphone equipment, an Elliott addressing machine, an A. B. Dick Mimeograph, a Graphic duplicator, a Mimeoscope, standard typewriters, wide-carriage typewriters, a stapling machine, a perforating machine, a numbering machine, a postal scale, a paper cutter, filing equipment, and a supply cabinet.²³ In another

²² J. E. Chamberlin, "Office Training," The Balance Sheet, VIII (May, 1927), 13-14.

²³ John G. Kirk, "How Philadelphia Planned Its Office Equipment Instruction," Journal of Business Education, III (February, 1930), 27.

article Kirk presented a classification of the twelve units of work covered in the office training course.²⁴ The units were:

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Books of reference | 7. Billing machines |
| 2. Telephone | 8. Posting machines |
| 3. Typewriters | 9. Filing |
| 4. Duplicating machines | 10. Correspondence |
| 5. Dictaphones | 11. Personal qualifications |
| 6. Adding machines | 12. Miscellaneous office work |

Peter L. Agnew stated in 1932 that the choice of equipment for a clerical training course depends on "(1) how long the course is to be and when it is to be given, (2) what the probable proportion of bookkeeping and stenography students who will take the course is, (3) on what plan the course is to be operated."²⁵ He suggested that the most desirable types of equipment to secure were duplicating devices, dictating machines, adding and calculating machines, bookkeeping and billing machines, filing equipment. "The exact make of machine to be selected and the number of each to be used will depend on local usage in business offices, the number of students taking the course and their field of specialization whether secretarial, bookkeeping, or general office worker."²⁶

According to a report by Elizabeth A. Nash in 1932, Roxbury High School in Massachusetts presented three office practice courses, each one adapted for the three fields of specialization:

²⁴ Kirk, op. cit., (March, 1930), 25-27.

²⁵ Peter L. Agnew, "Machines, Equipment, and Supplies," Journal of Business Education, VII (January, 1932), 8-9.

²⁶ Ibid., 9.

the bookkeeping, the secretarial, and the clerical fields. The office practice course for bookkeepers was correlated directly with the work carried on in the fourth year bookkeeping class. Emphasis was placed on the operation of calculators and bookkeeping machines. The secretarial office practice course was connected with the shorthand and typewriting classes. Instruction on the Ediphone, the Dictaphone, filing systems, duplicators, calculators, and individual secretarial jobs was stressed. The third office practice course treated of teachings of a general clerical nature such as filing, duplicating, calculator work, Dictaphone, work, simple billing, and certain secretarial problems. The following eight units were presented:²⁷

1. Unit on Burroughs calculator or Comptometer
2. Unit on Monroe or Marchant
3. Unit on the Burroughs listing machine
4. Unit on the Dictaphone or the Ediphone (for those showing skill in typewriting)
5. Unit on filing
6. Unit on billing (simple operations)
7. Unit on duplicating work
8. Unit on secretarial problems
 - a. Mailing procedure (incoming and outgoing mail)
 - b. Postal information
 - c. Sources of information
 - d. Technique of telephoning
 - e. Routine of the office clerk (reception of callers and making appointments)
 - f. Personality in business
 - g. Steps in securing employment

A type of office practice not yet mentioned in this study is the actual job situation. In an article printed in 1934

²⁷ Elizabeth A. Nash, "Office Practice in Roxbury, Massachusetts," Journal of Business Education, VII (March, 1932), 17-18.

entitled "Trying Out for the Job--A Course in Office Practice,"²⁸ Alice Bell explained that the clerical practice students of the Senior High School of Michigan City, Indiana, spent two weeks in each of five business offices in the city, thus covering ten weeks of work. Reports on the work of the students were submitted to the clerical practice teacher by the various office managers. The students received no compensation. At the time the high school possessed no equipment for office training classes.

For the selection of equipment Peter Agnew²⁹ stated four factors which should be considered: the method of instruction, time available in relation to objectives of the course, equipment necessary to meet objectives, and availability of funds for purchasing the equipment.

Three classifications of equipment were suggested by Agnew: necessary equipment, desirable equipment, supplementary equipment. Under necessary equipment the following items were listed: bulletin and blackboard space, desks, chairs, storage cabinets, a teacher's desk, a dictionary, waste baskets, a paper stapler, a paper cutter, a pencil sharpener, wire baskets, and adequate typing facilities. Other items listed under desirable equipment were: reference books, filing equipment, Mimeograph, portable Mimeoscope, gelatin or offset duplicator, and a model of each general type of adding and calculating machine. Supplementary

²⁸ Alice Bell, "Trying Out for the Job--A Course in Office Practice," The Balance Sheet, XV (May, 1934), 412.

²⁹ Peter L. Agnew, "Teachers' Service Column, Office Practice," The Balance Sheet, XVIII (October, 1936), 88.

Supplementary equipment included a Multigraph machine, complete dictating unit, billing machine, posting machine, bookkeeping machine.

A later publication of the "Teachers' Service Column" carried a description of the ideal office practice room:³⁰

1. A larger than ordinary room (22' x 45')
2. Well-lighted, properly heated, correctly ventilated facilities
3. Sufficient wall and floor sockets for electrically operated machines
4. A master switch to control all electric equipment
5. No wires across the floor (as a preventative of accidents)
6. A wash basin and necessary supplies
7. Two or more closets in different parts of the room for small equipment (aids to getting and putting away materials)
8. A bulletin board for display of students' work and items of interest to office training students
9. Sound-proofed walls (or sound-absorbing ceiling at least)

During the years of World War II, office training programs were adjusted to wartime needs. The public high schools of Atlanta, Georgia; Boston, Massachusetts; Greensboro, North

³⁰ Peter I. Agnew, "Teachers' Service Column--Office Practice" The Balance Sheet, XXI (February, 1940), 281.

Carolina; New York, New York; and Washington, D. C. trained stenographers and typists for the War Department.

To assist the armed forces in meeting their needs for stenographic and clerical help, preinduction training outlines in Army clerical procedure were made available for school use by the Office of Education in cooperation with the Adjutant General's School, Fort Washington, Maryland, and the Civilian Preinduction Training Branch of the War Department. This preinduction course was based upon clerical procedures as followed in a headquarters office and was designed to train young men and women for service in clerical military jobs held by soldiers, members of the Women's Army Corps, and civilian employees at Army posts.³¹

In 1945 in an article entitled "Duties of the General Office Clerk," M. Herbert Freeman set down a list of seventy general clerical duties to be learned in school. These duties are listed in order of importance.³²

1. Compose letters
2. Type letters
3. Take dictation
4. Keep bank balances on check stubs
5. Figure interest
6. File alphabetically
7. Receive cash and record receipts
8. Meet office callers
9. Figure discounts
10. Make change
11. Make cash reports
12. Operate key-driven calculator
13. Prepare bank deposit
14. Figure percentage
15. Use cross references in files
16. Check postings
17. Make original account entries
18. Keep expense account
19. Operate card index file
20. Prove bank balances
21. Operate adding machine

³¹ U. S. Federal Security Agency, Annual Reports of the United States Office of Education for the Fiscal Years 1941-42, 1942-43, pp. 60-61.

³² M. Herbert Freeman, "Duties of the General Office Clerk," American Business Education Digest, I (May, 1945), 211.

22. Post original entries
23. Operate comptometer
24. Operate bookkeeping machine
25. Make out receipts
26. File numerically
27. Type simple tabulations
28. File geographically
29. Make telephone calls
30. Check and verify bills
31. Cut stencils
32. Figure and check invoices
33. Answer telephone
34. Operate petty cash fund
35. Keep a sales record
36. Operate billing machine
37. Figure pay rolls
38. Classify materials to be filed
39. File by subject
40. Transcribe shorthand notes
41. Make out statements
42. Make long distance calls
43. Make out checks by hand
44. Inspect mail before sending out
45. Make duplicating master copies
46. Get material from files
47. Operate dictating machine
48. Type information on blank forms
49. Operate mimeograph
50. Operate telephone switchboard
51. Operate duplicating machine
52. Make out pay roll records
53. Type routine records
54. Operate numbering and dating machines
55. Operate envelope sealer
56. Send telegrams
57. Make bank deposits
58. Check copies of data with original
59. Make out bills or invoices
60. Find data in reference books
61. Prepare folders for filing
62. Keep perpetual inventory
63. Make out credit memoranda
64. Operate crank calculator
65. Make out purchase orders
66. Make graphs
67. Operate listing machine
68. Copy printed matter in longhand
69. Operate multigraph machine
70. Do lettering of show cards or signs

The Business Education World carried in its pages in November, 1949, a writeup of the non-stenographic office training program

developed in Virginia. For the content of the course, the following general informational units were suggested: "(1) the office worker and his job, (2) handling the office mail, (3) communication facilities, used by the office, (4) transportation facilities used by the office, (5) receiving office callers, (6) finding and keeping an office position."

The proposed skill-training units included:

1. A forty-period course in vertical filing
2. Stencil duplication
3. Fluid process duplication
4. Transcribing machine operation (disc type)
5. Transcribing machine operation (cylinder type)
6. Training on rotary calculator
7. Training on key-driven calculator
8. Vocational competence in the use of selective and ten-key adding machines
9. Special typewriting problems
10. Miscellaneous office appliances--date stamp, automatic numbering machine, stapler, postage scales, copy-holders, and so on³³

Grade placement, time allotment, and credit toward graduation. Kahn and Klein reported in 1914:

It is advocated that office duties shall be a subject of instruction during the first year, not as a special course, but correlated with some other subject. In this

³³ Louise Moses and A. L. Walker, "Virginia Develops a Program of Nonstenographic Office Training," Business Education World, XXX (November, 1949), 117-119.

connection it is necessary to point out that certain office appliances must be secured. Finally, much of the work in connection with office routine and practice belongs to the course in stenography and typewriting, and should there receive proper attention.³⁴

The same authors mentioned a course entitled "practicum" which was devoted to discussions by students of their field trips to business establishments. This class met one period a week in the fourth year of high school.

The Biennial Survey of Education for the years 1916-1918 listed a course in simple office procedures in the second year of high school.

A commercial curriculum for cosmopolitan high schools was adopted by Boston in 1917.³⁵ The curriculum was divided into three distinct sections in the third and fourth years of high school--accounting or bookkeeping, stenography, and merchandising. Office practice was a required subject in the fourth year of the accounting curriculum. Two or three points of credit toward graduation were given. During the fourth year of the secretarial curriculum, office practice was offered as an elective and carried two or three credits toward graduation. Office practice was a required subject for those enrolled in merchandising and yielded the same number of credits as were given the accounting and secretarial students.

³⁴ Kahn and Klein, op. cit., p. 148.

³⁵ U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Biennial Survey of Education, 1916-1918, Bulletin 1919, Volume I, Number 88, pp. 110-111.

In a chapter on "The Nature and Importance of Office Practice," written in 1924, Loveland recommended that the office practice course be given in the last semester of the senior year, five periods a week with each period lasting forty-five minutes.³⁶

In his outline for an eight-month shorthand course for private business schools in 1925, Jay Miller listed office practice for presentation during the two concluding months of the course. Instruction was given in thirty-minute periods and in all covered twenty-four hours of study.

In 1931 the curriculum of the John Hay High School in Cleveland, Ohio, offered office appliances I and II in the eleventh year and office production I and II in the twelfth year. Each of the courses was one semester in length and carried one-half credit toward graduation. Also presented in the twelfth year was a filing course which covered one semester of instruction and for which one credit was given.³⁷

Writing in 1932, Peter L. Agnew said, "There seems to be a general feeling now that the office practice course should be offered in the twelfth year and that it should be a full-year course required of all students. Less than a full-year course will not be adequate." He went on to say the course must be given in the twelfth year to articulate the work of the school with the work of the business office.

In an article on office practice at Roxbury High School in Massachusetts, the information was given that office practice

³⁶ Loveland, op. cit., p. 170.

³⁷ William L. Moore, "Our Curriculum Emphasizes Training for the Job," Journal of Business Education, VI (May, 1931), 17.

was presented five periods a week and carried five points of credit toward graduation.³⁸

In 1936, Stanley S. Smith gave a detailed account of the office practice courses at the Fordson public schools in Dearborn, Michigan. "Office practice is required of all stenographic students in the twelfth grade. The first five weeks are spent in teaching the students to become good operators of the Mimeograph, the Ditto, and the Ediphone machines. . . The next fifteen weeks are spent working in various school offices one hour daily. The second semester is spent working two hours daily in several business offices in Dearborn."³⁹

According to Bernice Engels,⁴⁰ in 1939, the business curriculum in Chicago, Illinois, high schools offered one unit of work in clerical practice for which one unit of credit was given. The course, which covered a year of work, was presented in the eleventh or twelfth grades.

In 1942, Alan C. Lloyd⁴¹ suggested the postponement of clerical practice courses until the student's thirteenth or fourteenth year of schooling. He stressed the advantage of presenting such business subjects as clerical practice in junior colleges when

³⁸ Nash, op. cit., p. 12.

³⁹ Stanley S. Smith, quoted in Practical Cooperative Training in Commercial Education, Monograph 30, South-Western Publishing Company, p. 13.

⁴⁰ Bernice Engels, "The Business Curriculum in Cosmopolitan High Schools," The Business Curriculum, National Commercial Teachers Federation Sixth Yearbook, p. 221.

⁴¹ Alan C. Lloyd, "Grade Placement of Business Education," American Business Education Digest, VI (May, 1942), 103.

the student has reached a more mature age.

According to Kahn and Klein⁴² office practice was frequently offered in the ninth or tenth grades because of the fact that students often withdrew from school before completing four years of study. Thus the students were afforded some clerical training in preparation for their office positions. Gradually, however, four years of high school education became a standard requirement of employers, and office practice was moved to the eleventh or twelfth grades of the curriculum.

Teacher requirements. The Commercial Education Circular No. 4 of the Bureau of Education recommended that the subject of office practice be under the direction of a teacher who has had practical office experience, preferably in one or more of the leading lines of business.⁴³

In 1925, C. M. Yoder⁴⁴ pointed out that many of the early commercial teachers were not equipped with the same amount of education as teachers in academic work, some business teachers having only business experience. Yoder expressed the opinion that as teacher requirements were raised by the state departments of education the quality of the training course would improve.

J. O. Malott, in the Biennial Survey of Education for 1928-1930, related various changes in teacher requirements made by the different state departments during the biennium. In California

⁴² Kahn and Klein, op. cit., p. 135.

⁴³ Loveland, op. cit., p. 181.

⁴⁴ C. M. Yoder, "The First Commercial Courses," Methods in Commercial Teaching, edited by Jay Wilson Miller, p. 13.

new standards including practice teaching and business experience were established for the certification of commercial teachers. New York abolished the three-year commercial teacher-training program and organized a four-year program. The State Department of Education in New Jersey lengthened the commercial teacher-training curricula from three to four years. Certification requirements for a commercial teacher were raised from two to three years of post-secondary training. The department also stated that after June, 1932, four years of training would be required.⁴⁵

In 1944, Bernard F. Baker listed the essentials for successful office practice among which was "teachers with business experience of consequence or with a deep interest in the subject and a desire to keep close to current office practices."⁴⁶

In 1948, the Office of Education proposed some plans for "helping surmount the obstacles in providing actual business experience in the pre-service, in-service, and graduate training of teachers, coordinators, department heads, supervisors, and directors of business education."⁴⁷ One plan suggested the acquirement of business experience for those in teacher-training. Another proposal was the requirement of a certain amount of actual wage-earning experience for business education majors. A

⁴⁵ J. O. Malott, Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-1930, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1931, No. 20, p. 189.

⁴⁶ Bernard F. Baker, "Modernized Office Practice in the Chicago Public High Schools," American Business Education Digest, II (March, 1945), 118.

⁴⁷ Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Business Experience For Business Teachers, Miscellaneous Bulletin 3257, 1948, p. 2.

third plan was the granting of credits toward a degree for actual work experience. The cooperative plan, in which alternate work in the office and the school is carried on, was also mentioned.

Plans of presentation. Various plans are used for teaching office practice. The choice of a plan depends on the amount of equipment available, the number of pupils enrolled in the class, and the time allotted to the course. Descriptions of the more commonly used plans under which office practice is taught are presented in the following paragraphs.

For the general course in clerical practice in which instruction in a variety of areas is given, the rotation plan is often utilized. The plan of rotating groups of pupils from one type machine to another is ideal when the number of machines of one type is insufficient for an entire class. It is possible under this system to use all the equipment all of the time. Peter L. Agnew has stated, "There is no other plan for handling an office practice class that takes care of the individual difference problem as effectively as does the rotation plan. Individual differences are taken care of by planning many more jobs than can reasonably be completed even by the best students and then by requiring a minimum number of jobs of the poorer students while the better students proceed to do as many as possible in the time allotted."⁴⁸ Agnew explained that job sheets are necessary when students are working on different type assignments so that the teacher may have more time to devote to individual help. He

⁴⁸ Peter L. Agnew, "New Trends in Office Practice," The National Business Education Quarterly, VIII (October, 1939), 36.

recommended that the job sheets contain instructions for the students concerning the equipment necessary for the various jobs and the actual operation of the jobs as well as any preparations that must be made before the jobs are started.⁴⁹

Another plan used in the teaching of clerical practice is the model office plan. The class is organized along the lines of a business office. Each pupil has an opportunity to work in the capacity of various office personnel. The duties of office manager, bookkeeper, file clerk, office boy, and other positions of a clerical nature are performed by pupils during the course. "A great deal of emphasis is placed upon office routine and the proper handling and preparation of business forms. The student also acquires an operating knowledge of a number of machines."⁵⁰

George P. Hillmer, while discussing one high school's clerical practice course, explained that two weeks of the half-year course provided for working experience in a model office. Each pupil entered as an office boy and advanced to junior clerk, senior clerk, and then office manager. The pupil remained at each position one-half of a week.⁵¹

In a model office class reported on by Nettie Black,⁵² the

⁴⁹ Peter L. Agnew, "Teachers' Service Column, Office Practice," The Balance Sheet, XXI (December, 1939), 184.

⁵⁰ Agnes Lebeda, "Recent Trends in Teaching Office Practice," Report, Oklahoma A & M College, 1945, p. 17.

⁵¹ George P. Hillmer, "Office Training for Graduating Students," Journal of Business Education, XIV (December, 1938), 23.

⁵² Nettie Black, "Creating an Office Atmosphere," Journal of Business Education, XVIII (September, 1942), 14.

pupils were marked in terms of the wages earned which were computed according to the quality and quantity of the work performed.

If office machines and other office equipment can be placed in one workroom, the service bureau plan of training clerical workers may be used. This plan is one in which the pupils, under the instructor's directions, perform various clerical jobs for the teachers and organizations in the schools. Such jobs as duplicating, typing, record-keeping, addressing, and filing may be performed by the class. "Care must be taken, however, to see that the pupils are learning and evaluating, not merely producing."⁵³

Schools possessing a large number of the various types of machines may utilize the battery plan of presenting clerical training. In this system the whole class is given instruction in one type of machine at one time. Most typewriting classes are conducted in this way. The plan lends itself well to the specialized office practice course; however most schools do not own enough machines of each type to make this plan a practical one.

For schools which are able to adopt the battery plan, Jeannie F. Shean offers the following four advantages:⁵⁴

1. The teacher has more time to devote to teaching the one kind of machine.
2. The pupils can better judge the amount of work they should perform by comparing their advancement with that of others.

⁵³ Lebeda, op. cit., p. 18.

⁵⁴ Jeannie F. Shean, "Drills for Calculating Machines," Journal of Business Education, XII (September, 1936), 23.

3. The teacher is able to keep a better check on the progress of the class.
4. Individuals are permitted to advance according to their ability as there can be a maximum and a minimum amount of work prescribed.

The integrated plan is most appropriate for schools in which there is little equipment or in which equipment has been distributed throughout the various rooms. Under this system the use of the various machines is taught in the different courses. For example, instruction in filing and communication may be given in the general business class and dictating-transcribing and duplicating machines may be utilized in the typing class.

The last plan to be described is the cooperative plan in which pupils "spend part of the time in school learning about the attitudes, skills, and knowledges that are needed in an office and part of their time in an actual office of a business firm learning how theories work out in practice."⁵⁵ The successful operation of the cooperative plan requires much preparation and cooperation from both the school authorities and the businessmen. Edna W. Cranna, of the Department of Secretarial Studies, Margaret Morrison Carnegie College, in speaking of their cooperative plan, said, "In many cases the students are employed, after graduation, in the offices in which they have had office practice. We are able to determine through interview with the students and the employers whether or not our training fits the students for

⁵⁵ Lebeda, op. cit., p. 19.

positions in the community."⁵⁶ Kitson stated, "This plan embodies one of the paramount principles of education--that theory should be accompanied by practice."⁵⁷

The Clerical Practice Curriculum

Some schools have made an honest effort for many years to provide clerical training by setting up a clerical curriculum comparable to the traditional stenographic and accounting curricula. According to Alton B. Parker Liles, the greatest growth in clerical curricula has probably taken place since 1930.

Liles stated in 1946, "The clerical curriculum should be designed to meet needs of students who will seek employment in the various types of clerical positions prevalent in business today." He continued, "Obviously, it is impossible to give specific skill training for each of the several hundred types of duties performed by clerical workers. Nevertheless, vocational skill can be developed for those duties and operations which comprise the majority of clerical positions."⁵⁸

Liles said that the most nearly ideal clerical curriculum was the one offered in Philadelphia. The curriculum is listed below showing the topics or units covered in each of the four

⁵⁶ Edna N. Cranna, quoted in Practical Cooperative Training In Commercial Education, Monograph No. 30, South-Western Publishing Company, p. 19.

⁵⁷ Harry D. Kitson, Commercial Education in Secondary Schools, p. 9.

⁵⁸ Alton B. Parker Liles, "Clerical Training in the High School, Part I," Journal of Business Education, XXII (November, 1946), 13-14.

semesters of the clerical practice curriculum.⁵⁹

9th Grade

General Business I
General Business II

10th Grade

Typewriting I
Accounting I
Business Arithmetic I
Typewriting II
Accounting II
Business Arithmetic II

11th Grade

Typewriting III
Clerical Practice I
Economic Geography
Typewriting IV
Clerical Practice II
Business Law

12th Grade

Office Practice I
Business Machines I
Applied Economics
Office Practice II
Business Machines II
Business Principles or Organization

11-L Clerical Practice I

The work of:

1. Purchasing Order Clerk
2. Receiving Clerk
3. Stock or Stores Clerk
4. Sales Order Clerk
5. Shipping Clerk
6. Cash Clerk
7. Billing Clerk
8. Posting Clerk

11-H Clerical Practice II

The work of:

9. Time and Payroll Clerk
10. Accounts Payable Clerk
11. Credit and Collection Clerk
12. Reception Clerk
13. Mailing Clerk
14. Personnel Department Clerk
15. Messenger

12-L Clerical Practice III

The work of:

16. Production Department Clerk
17. Cost Department Clerk
18. Statistical Department Clerk
19. Filing (using practice sets including alphabetical, subject, numeric, and geographic systems)

12-H Office Practice

Including:

1. Transcribing Machine Operation
2. Duplication Device Operation
3. Calculating Machine Operation
4. Adding Machine Operation
5. General Secretarial Duties

⁵⁹ Liles, op. cit., Part II, XXII (December, 1946), 13-14, 24.

Findings and Recommendations Concerning the
Advancement of Clerical Practice

In past years surveys have been conducted by associations and individuals for the purpose of improving the clerical training offered in the schools. The following paragraphs relate the findings and recommendations of some of the surveys.

Surveys conducted in Cleveland, Minneapolis, and Indianapolis revealed that commercial education in high schools was being presented without consideration for the business needs and conditions of the community.⁶⁰

The biennial report for the years 1920-1922 related the status of business education in more detail. It stated, "The courses were practically always confined to teaching bookkeeping or shorthand with related subjects, as if a knowledge of both or either of these subjects constituted the only information needed for success in the world of business occupations." Speaking of office training, the article continued by saying, "Instruction in the general office duties of a stenographer was seldom given. Some of the more progressive schools did have classes in office practice."⁶¹

The 1924-1926 biennial survey contained a report on the trend toward the standardizations of business occupations which

⁶⁰ U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Biennial Survey of Education, 1916-1918, Bulletin 1919, No. 88, p. 112.

⁶¹ U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Biennial Survey of Education, 1920-1922, Bulletin 1924, Volume I, No. 13, p. 318.

had a great effect on curriculum building. According to the report, the rapid development of this trend was due to such factors as division of labor in the offices, emphasis on the introduction of modern office appliances, and increased use of tests and measurements. For an example of the division of labor in clerical occupations, the survey had the following to say:

There are low levels where tasks are routine, such as classifying, filing, and recording under supervision. There are intermediate levels which require initiative, judgment, skill, and perhaps supervision of work of others. Then there are higher levels, requiring high degrees of skills and specific bodies of knowledge.⁶²

In 1923 Frederick G. Nichols and his associates at Harvard University, in cooperation with the National Association of Office Managers, began a study of clerical training needs. The study was based upon reports from 54 office managers and 6,050 clerks. Upon the completion of the survey four years later, thirty-one conclusions were presented, among which were the following:⁶³

1. that closer cooperation between businessmen and commercial teachers is essential to real progress in the solution of business training problems
2. that the general clerical training courses should be based on duties performed instead of on payroll titles
3. that specialization in clerical training should be possible if time limitation, individual interest, and local needs make more intensive training desirable
4. that teacher-training institutions should prepare teachers of clerical training

In the biennial survey for 1924-1926 the comment was made

⁶² U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Biennial Survey of Education, 1924-1926, Bulletin 1928, No. 25, p. 257.

⁶³ Ibid., pp. 265-266.

that recent commercial occupation surveys and researches contributed more than all other factors to the progress of commercial education during the biennium.

J. O. Malott,⁶⁴ in a report published in 1931, told about office equipment surveys that were carried on by various communities and individuals to develop syllabi for machine instruction. The chief problem confronting the researchers was to determine what phases of instruction on office equipment should be given in the schools and what phases could be learned satisfactorily on the job.

Lloyd H. Swart made a study in Rochester, New York, on The Place of Office Machines in the Commercial Curriculum. He stated that the commercial curriculum was not preparing pupils to become useful members of society unless instruction on the more commonly used machines was given. Speaking about the cost of office appliances, he said, "It is true that this type of equipment is expensive. However a full complement of machines for an office machine class would not exceed the cost of two lathes in a well-equipped machine-shop class."⁶⁵

In a survey of office practice courses in the New Jersey high schools during 1929-1930, Louis A. Rice found that only half of the schools offered machine-operating courses. He recommended that the smaller high schools acquire at least a variety of

⁶⁴ J. O. Malott, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-1930, Bulletin No. 20, 1931, p. 189.

⁶⁵ Ibid., 190.

office equipment even though the cost of equipment prevented them from purchasing many machines of one type.

The purpose of Ruth P. Holmdahl's study in 1931 was to ascertain by means of questionnaires sent to schools offering office practice the general status of the office practice course. Among the recommendations advanced by Miss Holmdahl were:

1. Eliminate the domination of stenography and bookkeeping and put office training on a par with these skills.
2. Make the course at least one year in length and develop some specific skill in duties to which the student seems best adapted.
3. Utilize the office practice department for enabling prospective drop-outs to develop skill for specific jobs.
4. Use actual business material more widely and make closer contacts between actual business procedure and school training.
5. Make the highest type of office atmosphere pervade the course and demand the highest quality of work at all times.⁶⁶

In May, 1938, R. S. Rowland reported seventeen findings concerning office training. Some of them are presented below:⁶⁷

1. Schools are becoming increasingly alert to the service the machine is performing.
2. Grade placement is advancing. Certain machines may well be deferred until post-graduate school or junior college.
3. There is an increasing tendency to form independent curricula for training non-stenographic and non-book-keeping majors.
4. Office practice courses now occupy two, three, or four

⁶⁶ Ruth P. Holmdahl, The Teaching of Office Practice in Public Secondary Schools of the United States, Unpublished thesis, p. 85.

⁶⁷ R. S. Rowland, Business Education Digest and Federation Notes, II (May, 1938), 55-57.

semesters in some schools. Time depends upon local factors.

5. Textbook publishers and machine manufacturers are improving instructional materials.
6. Standards of achievement are more and more being based on those which business desires.
7. Teacher-training institutions are giving more attention to the field.

Frederick Fox set up professional performance standards for different types of office operations. A number of widely scattered sources were used for the time and motion study which was made in 1941. The sources included the home office of a leading publishing firm, the offices of a large milling company, the offices of banks, and office equipment manufacturers and their representatives. The criteria as determined by Fox are presented here:⁶⁸

1. Typing. A widely adopted standard for straight copy work is a thousand lines a day or 7,400 lines per week, using a standard line as a basis.
2. Machine transcription. Ediphone and Dictaphone operators are generally expected to transcribe at the rate of 124 lines per hour or 900 lines a day. A transcribing rate of approximately twenty-five words per minute is considered reasonable.
3. Multigraph composition. An operator working on the Model 600 Typsetter should be able to set one line in two minutes (sixty stroke line). A good operator does a line a minute. The Setotype will set type as fast as the operator can write. Letter-shop standards call for 800-1000 lines a day.
4. Burroughs Calculator. Calculating items should be handled at the rate of 360 extensions of four-digit figures an hour; addition, 2,100 items per hour.
5. Adding machine. Banks frequently require applicants to record fifty checks a minute with one hundred

⁶⁸ Frederick G. Fox, "Performance Standards in Office Operations," The National Business Education Quarterly, IX (March, 1941), 15-16, 33-40.

per cent accuracy. Bank adding machine operators are allowed one error in 200,000 items.

In 1944 Thelma M. Potter⁶⁹ made a study "to determine the common elements in the work of general clerical employees in large businesses, and by so doing, to contribute to a general understanding of the common educational needs of business and education." Some of Miss Potter's recommendations were:

1. The core of the general clerical training program in secondary schools should be the development of skills in typewriting, filing, non-specialized clerical work, and simple adding-machine operation. Specialized training should be given only when certain jobs are assured students.
2. Secondary schools are the chief source of general clerical workers. They should assume the responsibility more effectively by constantly improving the offerings in general clerical training, by developing more direct relationships with the offices for which they are training workers, and by developing flexible training programs which can respond to rapid changes in the needs of business offices.
3. A continuous and intensive study of aptitude testing and employment testing is necessary to both business and education in their successful selection of the right workers for the right jobs.

The major purpose of the research conducted by Alton B. Parker Liles in 1947 was to determine the validity of representative clerical aptitude tests and to explore the value of a representative intelligence test for predicting clerical aptitude. Tests were administered to one hundred employees engaged in clerical work in various business firms in Atlanta, Georgia. A few of Liles'

⁶⁹ Thelma M. Potter, An Analysis of the Work of General Clerical Employees, p. 71.

findings are quoted here;⁷⁰

1. The factors which constitute success in clerical work, according to selected supervisors of clerical workers, have been isolated and determined. Analysis of these factors reveals that they may be divided into three classifications: efficiency factors, personality factors, and physical factors. The determination of these factors should be of value to the curriculum expert as a basis for determining curricular content and methods of instruction in clerical training programs in secondary schools.

It is recommended that these skills, knowledges, and personality traits which are embodied in the factors which constitute success in clerical work serve as the basis for the development of effective teacher-learning materials which will facilitate the training of adequately prepared clerical workers for business.

2. Related skills, such as dexterity in the handling of cards, bills, etc., organization of materials, economy of body motions, and the like, affect production of clerical workers. These related skills affect production in typewriting, the use of adding and calculating machines, filing, sorting and classifying, and many other routine clerical activities.

It is suggested that specific training in the related skills which characterize clerical work should be made a definite part of clerical training. The findings of time and motion studies in clerical work in business should be utilized in the development of instructional materials. Additional research should be conducted in this area.

A clerical test that was not included in Liles' study is the National Clerical Ability Test. This test was first given on a permanent basis in May, 1938, under the auspices of the Joint Committee representing the National Office Management Association and the National Council of Business Education. "About 1400 girls and boys took the test in twenty-five centers representing thirty-five cities in a territory bounded by Boston, Cleveland, St. Paul,

⁷⁰ Alton B. Parker Liles, Some Factors in the Training of Clerical Workers, pp. 108, 110.

Omaha, Cincinnati and Pittsburg. The scope of the testing program included the following divisions: stenographer, machine transcriber, typist, bookkeeper, file clerk, key-driven calculating machine operator.⁷¹ Each pupil was tested in the division he preferred, and all pupils were given work on general information and fundamentals. Another part of the test consists of a personality rating kept by the teachers of those tested over a period of time. The teachers are given a personality rating schedule to aid them.

Carl H. McKenzie said of the National Clerical Aptitude Tests in 1946, "These tests have done much to focus the attention of businessmen on the requirements for different types of office employees. Analyses of the tests, it is hoped, have given business education a clearer understanding of the requirements of different types of office training programs."⁷²

Federal Aid and Clerical Training

Investigation into the legislation of the Federal Government for the betterment of clerical training yielded the following facts. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 and the George-Deen Act of 1937, though formulated for the improvement of vocational education, sidestepped the clerical field. In the original George-Barden bill of 1946 was an allotment of \$4,000,000 to be used for office training programs. However, before the passage of the bill, the

⁷¹ Frederick G. Nichols, "Criticism, Comment, and Challenge," Journal of Business Education, XIV (November, 1938), 28-29.

⁷² Carl H. McKenzie, "Cooperation Between Business and Education," Journal of Business Education, XXI (June, 1946), 11-12.

provision for office training programs was taken out. "Failure to focus attention on the fact that office training is in dire need of improvement and that even a token allotment would have been a great help is a major cause of the elimination of the planned allotment for office training."⁷³

Herbert Tonne reported in November of 1946 that some money was being allocated to office training under the diversified occupations plan. "Under this procedure, however, the high school cooperating students who work in offices get their school training along with those who work in hotels, laundries, and industrial shops. As such, it does not take much imagination to discover how meaningless this school training is."⁷⁴

Summary

Research into the history of clerical practice during the first fifty years of the twentieth century has revealed many facts. A number of generalizations concerning these facts are presented here.

1. The clerical training course has been taught under a wide variety of titles including secretarial practice, office training, clerical practice, and, most commonly, office practice.

2. The aims and objectives of the clerical practice course vary from situation to situation. The subject matter and equipment used have depended upon community and individual needs, the type of school, and the funds available for clerical training.

⁷³ Herbert A. Tonne, "Notes by the Editor," Journal of Business Education, XXII (October, 1946), 7.

⁷⁴ Tonne, "Notes by the Editor," Journal of Business Education, XXII (November, 1946), 7.

3. Little similarity has existed concerning the time allotted to the teaching of clerical practice and the credits to be given upon completion of the course. The placement of clerical practice in the eleventh or twelfth year of schooling has become a generally accepted procedure. When many pupils did not continue their schooling to the twelfth year, clerical practice courses were offered in the junior high schools or the ninth and tenth grades of high schools.

4. Teacher requirements for the clerical practice course have been improved through the years by the raising of standards by state departments of education.

5. The clerical practice course is taught under different plans; the rotation plan, the model office plan, the service bureau plan, the battery plan, the integration plan, and the cooperative plan.

6. Through the years surveys of various types have been conducted--governmental biennial surveys of clerical training courses, clerical occupation surveys, association surveys of clerical training needs, reports by individuals on time and motion studies of clerical workers, and status surveys of office practice in certain cities or states, among others.

7. During the first fifty years of the twentieth century, Congressional appropriations for the support of office training programs have been very small.

CHAPTER IV

THE GROWTH OF CLERICAL PRACTICE ACCORDING TO PUPIL ENROLLMENTS
AND THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS OFFERING THE COURSE

This chapter relates the growth of clerical practice as revealed by various statistical surveys. The material has been organized under two main headings: (1) pupil enrollments in office practice as compared with enrollments in other business subjects and (2) number of schools reporting office practice and pupil enrollments in office practice in various years.

Enrollments in Office Practice and in Other Business Subjects

Table I gives figures on the number of students enrolled in certain business subjects in public high schools of the United States for the years 1922, 1928, and 1934.¹ In 1922, a total of 7,721 pupils were enrolled in office practice and 40,848 pupils were enrolled in the course in 1928, representing a 529 per cent increase. By 1934 the number enrolled in office practice had grown to 72,072, representing an increase of 933 per cent over the 1922 figure of 7,721 pupils.

According to the data in Table I, enrollments in each of the subjects which contribute to the preparation of students for bookkeeping and stenographic positions--bookkeeping, shorthand, and typewriting--far exceeded the enrollments in office practice

¹ Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1936-1938, Bulletin, 1940, No. 2, p. 24.

TABLE I

NUMBER OF STUDENTS ENROLLED IN CERTAIN BUSINESS SUBJECTS
IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES, 1922-1934

Subject	1922	1928	1934
Bookkeeping	270,517	309,138	442,938
Shorthand	191,901	251,631	404,237
Typewriting	281,524	439,379	749,315
Commercial Arithmetic	31,688	201,287	220,688
Commercial Law	19,611	76,434	144,342
Commercial Geography	36,616	140,246	178,408
Commercial History	8,307	5,321	8,614
Penmanship	36,667	21,647	11,665
Office Practice	7,721	40,848	72,072
Elementary Business Training	86,629	275,338

Note: In the Biennial Survey of Education, 1926-1928, it was stated that enrollment figures by subject in commercial courses were not collected by the bureau until 1915. The figures for 1915 have not been included in this table as bookkeeping was the only subject on which data were given. No tables on pupil enrollments by business subjects were compiled by the government after 1934.

in the years covered by the survey.

The popularity of the three subjects just named is in sharp contrast with Table II which gives the number and percentage distribution of male and female workers gainfully employed in office positions between the years 1890 and 1940.² It is to be noted that in Table II not only clerks but bookkeepers, cashiers, accountants, messengers, office boys and girls, stenographers, and typists are included under the category clerical occupations. Clerical, as used in this study, does not include bookkeepers and stenographers.

An examination of the figures in Table II shows that between 1870 and 1940 fifty per cent or more of those engaged in office occupations were clerks, except in the year 1910, when the percentage was about 44. Bookkeepers, cashiers, and accountants comprised a maximum of 29.8 per cent of the total number in office occupations during the seventy-year period. Stenographers and typists showed an even lower percentage than bookkeepers, cashiers, and accountants in the number employed, the highest percentage for stenographers and typists being 22.9 in 1940. Speaking on this point in 1949, Alton B. Parker Liles said, "In spite of the admonition of educational leaders, the facts revealed by research, and by employment trends, shorthand, bookkeeping, and typewriting have continued to lead the list in business enrollments in

² H. Dewey Anderson and Percy E. Davidson, Occupational Trends in the United States, p. 584.

TABLE II

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF GAINFUL WORKERS, MALE AND FEMALE
IN CLERICAL OCCUPATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1870-1930

Group		1870	1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940 ^b
Bookkeepers, Cashiers, and Accountants	No.	61,740	105,575	159,374	254,880	486,700	734,688	930,648	931,308
	P. Ct.	19.8	19.9	19.2	22.5	29.8	24.9	24.3	20.1
Clerks (except in stores) ^a	No.	241,432	396,810	586,164	696,338	720,498	1,487,905	1,997,000	2,555,886
	P. Ct.	77.4	74.7	70.6	61.3	44.2	50.4	52.1	55.5
Messengers, Errand Office Boys and Girls	No.	8,717	13,985	51,355	71,622	108,035	113,022	90,379	68,276
	P. Ct.	2.8	2.6	6.2	6.3	6.6	3.8	2.4	1.5
Stenographers and Typists	No.	14,713	33,418	112,364	316,693	615,154	811,190	1,056,886
	P. Ct.	2.8	4.0	9.9	19.4	20.9	21.2	22.9
Totals	No.	311,889	531,083	830,311	1,135,204	1,631,926	2,950,769	3,829,217	4,612,356
	P. Ct.	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: ^a Owing to census classification difficulties, figures for each decade prior to 1910 include some clerks in stores as well as general clerks. For that reason, the series is closely comparable only from 1910 to 1930.

Note: ^b Figures for this column were taken from the United States Department of Commerce, Sixteenth Census of the United States, 1940, Volume III, quoted in Liles, Some Factors in the Training of Clerical Workers, p. 13.

secondary business education even until the present time."³

A study of curricular offerings and enrollments in 1,684 public schools and 113 nonpublic schools in the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was made in 1925.⁴ The results are shown in Table III. The data in this table show that 9,627 students were enrolled in office practice in 1925. This number represented only 1.4 per cent of the total school enrollments and 3.1 per cent of those enrolled in the business departments. On the other hand, typewriting, stenography, and bookkeeping, collectively, attracted 34.5 per cent of the school enrollments and 75.7 per cent of the business department enrollments.

In reference to the information given in Table III, C. O. Davis explained that the subjects for which statistics were given were not the only business curricular offerings but were chosen as being representative of all the business subjects included in the study.

The enrollment figures for certain business subjects in Virginia's 293 high schools for 1948 are presented in Table IV.⁵ The tabulation shows that only 971 pupils in 29 of the 293 schools were pursuing office practice. It may be noted from the data in Table IV that bookkeeping, shorthand, and typewriting lead in the

³ Liles, Some Factors in the Training of Clerical Workers, pp. 17-18.

⁴ C. O. Davis, The Balance Sheet, IX (February, 1928), 4.

⁵ Louise Moses and A. L. Walker, "Virginia Develops a Program of Nonstenographic Office Training," Business Education World, (November, 1949), 117.

TABLE III

OFFERINGS AND ENROLLMENTS IN SELECTED BUSINESS COURSES IN 1,684 PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND 113 NONPUBLIC SCHOOLS
IN THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1925

Subject	Number of Boys Enrolled	Number of Girls Enrolled	Total Enrollment	Per Cent of Total School Enrollment	Per Cent of Total Business Department Enrollment
Typewriting	27,179	73,900	101,079	14.9	32.7
Stenography	12,851	56,840	69,691	10.3	22.5
Bookkeeping	24,760	38,574	63,334	9.3	20.5
Commercial Arithmetic	17,118	25,338	42,456	6.3	13.7
Commercial Geography	10,849	12,359	23,208	3.4	7.5
Office Practice	3,024	6,603	9,627	1.4	3.1
Totals	95,781	213,614	309,395	45.6	100.0

Note: This table should be read as follows: In typewriting 27,179 boys and 73,900 girls were enrolled, making a total enrollment of 101,079 pupils. The total enrollment in typewriting represented 14.9 per cent of the total school enrollment and 32.7 per cent of the total business department enrollment.

TABLE IV
 ENROLLMENT FIGURES FOR CERTAIN BUSINESS SUBJECTS
 IN VIRGINIA'S 293 HIGH SCHOOLS, 1948

Number of Schools	Subject	Number of Pupils Enrolled
281	Beginning Typewriting	13,967
232	Advanced Typewriting	5,351
220	Beginning Shorthand	4,254
109	Advanced Shorthand	1,574
166	Beginning Bookkeeping	5,065
43	Advanced Bookkeeping	460
98	General Business	4,488
1	Filing	22
29	Office Practice	971
19	Work-Study Program	100

number of enrolled pupils.

The results of this survey of business subject offerings in Virginia's high schools were used as a basis for the development of a program of nonstenographic office training. During the 1948-1949 school year, 15 high schools provided nonstenographic office-training programs for about 225 students. "It is expected that six, seven, or eight more high schools will be added to the program each year until all the communities evidencing a need for cooperative office-training programs have been serviced."⁶

Number of Schools Reporting Office Practice and Pupil

Enrollments in Office Practice in Various Years

The statistics in Tables V, VI, and VII reveal the number of high schools reporting office practice, as well as the number of pupils enrolled in office practice in each state of the United States and the District of Columbia for the school years 1921-1922, 1927-1928, and 1933-1934.⁷ It may be observed that in the 1922 survey only 21 states reported offerings in office practice, whereas in the 1928 survey Nevada and New Mexico were the only states which reported no office practice statistics. In 1933-1934 every state submitted figures on the number of schools reporting office practice and the pupil enrollments. A comparison of the 1921-1922 and 1927-1928 figures on the number of high schools reporting

⁶ Louise Moses and A. L. Walker, "Virginia Develops a Program of Nonstenographic Office Training," Business Education World, (November, 1949), 119.

⁷ U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Biennial Surveys of Education, 1920-1922, 1926-1928, 1932-1934; Bulletins 1924, p. 63; 1930, p. 1080; 1938, p. 76.

TABLE V

NUMBER OF SECONDARY STUDENTS IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS
PURSUING OFFICE PRACTICE IN 1921-1922

State	Number of Schools Reporting	Enrollment	
		Boys	Girls
Alabama
Arizona
Arkansas
California	27	170	506
Colorado	2	5	16
Connecticut	5	64	282
Delaware
D. C.
Florida
Georgia
Idaho
Illinois	3	9	85
Indiana	4	40	98
Iowa
Kansas	1	...	3
Kentucky
Louisiana
Maine	1	6	3
Maryland
Massachusetts	15	172	765
Michigan	2	50	78
Minnesota	4	33	40
Mississippi
Missouri	2	6	25
Montana
Nebraska
Nevada
New Hampshire	1	2	3
New Jersey	8	24	100
New Mexico
New York	8	169	3,216
North Carolina
North Dakota
Ohio	1	10	15
Oklahoma
Oregon	2	53	123
Pennsylvania	13	90	1,086
Rhode Island
South Carolina
South Dakota

(Continued)

TABLE V (Continued)

NUMBER OF SECONDARY STUDENTS IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS
PURSUING OFFICE PRACTICE IN 1921-1922

State	Number of Schools Reporting	Enrollment	
		Boys	Girls
Tennessee
Texas
Utah
Vermont	1	11	9
Virginia
Washington	5	8	92
West Virginia
Wisconsin	10	48	202
Wyoming	1	...	4
Total	116	970	6,751

TABLE VI

NUMBER OF SECONDARY STUDENTS IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS
PURSUING OFFICE PRACTICE IN 1927-1928

State	Number of Schools Reporting	Enrollment	
		Boys	Girls
Alabama	4	14	15
Arizona	5	10	23
Arkansas	2	2	8
California	127	598	2,480
Colorado	14	30	124
Connecticut	23	85	447
Delaware	2	10	52
D. C.	3	132	136
Florida	9	29	91
Georgia	7	40	147
Idaho	10	31	92
Illinois	64	902	4,553
Indiana	36	77	502
Iowa	23	102	360
Kansas	19	43	174
Kentucky	9	46	136
Louisiana	2	195
Maine	21	147	287
Maryland	12	219	398
Massachusetts	75	1,090	3,323
Michigan	61	384	1,157
Minnesota	25	110	747
Mississippi	4	14	33
Missouri	21	303	768
Montana	5	13	68
Nebraska	24	180	366
Nevada
New Hampshire	29	108	347
New Jersey	70	731	1,688
New Mexico
New York	47	965	4,845
North Carolina	5	31	90
North Dakota	1	1	66
Ohio	68	684	1,198
Oklahoma	14	38	159
Oregon	17	45	190
Pennsylvania	130	1,328	3,455
Rhode Island	7	150	541
South Carolina	1	4	6
South Dakota	5	11	24

(Continued)

TABLE VI (Continued)

NUMBER OF SECONDARY STUDENTS IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS
PURSUING OFFICE PRACTICE IN 1927-1928

State	Number of Schools Reporting	Enrollment	
		Boys	Girls
Tennessee	5	22	91
Texas	14	74	194
Utah	5	8	104
Vermont	6	16	45
Virginia	7	79	207
Washington	32	143	709
West Virginia	11	34	177
Wisconsin	32	209	681
Wyoming	6	26	31
Total	1,119	9,318	31,530

TABLE VII

OFFERINGS AND REGISTRATIONS IN HIGH SCHOOL OFFICE PRACTICE
COURSES IN THE UNITED STATES, 1933-1934

State	Number of Schools Reporting	Enrollment			
		Grades 7 and 8		High School	
		1-Yr. Course	$\frac{1}{2}$ -Yr. Course	1-Yr. Course	$\frac{1}{2}$ -Yr. Course
Alabama	1
Arizona	7	169
Arkansas	6	13	107
California	184	3,597	1,082
Colorado	23	130	10
Connecticut	41	1,806	1,083
Delaware	3	127	4
D. C.	10	527	325	246	273
Florida	7	70	23
Georgia	6	206	68
Idaho	19	14	171	43
Illinois	53	2,957	1,470
Indiana	69	772	508
Iowa	48	483	475
Kansas	42	459	138
Kentucky	15	97	156	395
Louisiana	6	395	19
Maine	26	430	351
Maryland	16	224	152	720	160
Massachusetts	103	85	...	8,537	754
Michigan	63	1,285	868
Minnesota	28	927	683
Mississippi	8	92	1
Missouri	26	1,471	614
Montana	10	97	28
Nebraska	49	1,044	258
Nevada	5	17	1
New Hampshire	49	766
New Jersey	117	5,037	889
New Mexico	5	103	2
New York	57	49	2,422	432
North Carolina	11	73	...	260	184
North Dakota	7	144	30
Ohio	131	80	...	5,032	1,906
Oklahoma	22	245	164
Oregon	18	362	65
Pennsylvania	233	4,600	5,046
Rhode Island	10	70	...	236	268

(Continued)

TABLE VII (Continued)

OFFERINGS AND REGISTRATIONS IN HIGH SCHOOL OFFICE PRACTICE
COURSES IN THE UNITED STATES, 1933-1934

State	Number of Schools Reporting	Enrollment			
		Grades 7 and 8		High School	
		1-Yr. Course	$\frac{1}{2}$ -Yr. Course	1-Yr. Course	$\frac{1}{2}$ -Yr. Course
South Carolina	2	50
South Dakota	9	137	1
Tennessee	5	137	55
Texas	30	33	105	413	287
Utah	10	473	142
Vermont	15	297	78
Virginia	12	722	270
Washington	68	1,410	523
West Virginia	24	24	...	533	93
Wisconsin	67	1,270	1,139
Wyoming	5	49	9
Total	1,781	1,116	742	51,075	20,997

office practice shows that the 1,119 schools reporting office practice in 1928 represented an increase of 965 per cent over the 116 schools which reported office practice in 1922. By 1933-1934, a total of 1,781 schools reported office practice, a 1,535 per cent increase over the 116 schools reporting office practice in 1922.

The pupil enrollments in the 1921-1922 and 1927-1928 surveys were broken down into the number of boys and the number of girls enrolled in office practice. The data given in Table V show that 970 boys and 6,751 girls were enrolled in office practice in 1921-1922. The data revealed in Table VI show that 9,318 boys and 31,530 girls were enrolled in office practice in 1928-1929.

The pupil enrollments for 1933-1934 shown in Table VII were classified according to the placement (junior high and/or senior high school) and the length of the office practice course. The larger enrollments in both the junior high schools and the senior high schools were in the one-year courses in office practice. In 1933-1934 junior high students enrolled in the one-year course numbered 1,116 which was 374 more students than the 742 students enrolled in the half-year course. The number of senior high school students enrolled in the one-year course in 1933-1934 was 51,075 or 30,078 more students than the 20,997 students enrolled in the half-year course.

Tables VIII, IX, and X give statistical information on the total number of students instructed in courses in machine operating and office practice in private commercial and business schools of the United States in the school years 1924-1925, 1928-1929,

TABLE VIII

TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS PURSUING MACHINE OPERATING AND
OFFICE PRACTICE COURSES IN PRIVATE COMMERCIAL
AND BUSINESS SCHOOLS IN 1924-1925

State	Number of Schools Reporting	Enrollment in the Machine Operating Course	Enrollment in the Office Practice Course
Alabama	6	160	474
Arizona	4	248	124
Arkansas	3	40	85
California	22	191	1,051
Colorado	9	189	2,448
Connecticut	12	375	1,346
Delaware	1	6	4
D. C.	4	450
Florida	6	4	232
Georgia	6	217	1,073
Idaho	2	9	81
Illinois	27	468	1,434
Indiana	18	238	2,372
Iowa	14	838	1,125
Kansas	8	155	1,166
Kentucky	12	391	1,779
Louisiana	3	1,159	908
Maine	6	82	220
Maryland	4	204	269
Massachusetts	21	951	1,353
Michigan	15	87	537
Minnesota	11	383	333
Mississippi	4	95	95
Missouri	14	884	1,877
Montana	13	569	180
Nebraska	7	204	408
New Jersey	6	14	175
New Mexico	1	3
New York	50	2,052	5,676
North Carolina	5	17	60
North Dakota	3	62	47
Ohio	29	1,078	2,557
Oklahoma	8	141	600
Oregon	4	91	212
Pennsylvania	36	1,129	4,237
Rhode Island	4	115
South Carolina	4	103

(Continued)

TABLE VIII (Continued)

TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS PURSUING MACHINE OPERATING AND
OFFICE PRACTICE COURSES IN PRIVATE COMMERCIAL
AND BUSINESS SCHOOLS IN 1924-1925

State	Number of Schools Reporting	Enrollment in the Machine Operating Course	Enrollment in the Office Practice Course
South Dakota	1	42	36
Tennessee	9	279	968
Texas	19	632	1,521
Utah	2	966	270
Virginia	4	46	103
Washington	10	454	869
West Virginia	9	508
Wisconsin	7	117	416
Total	453	15,270	39,897

TABLE IX

TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS PURSUING MACHINE OPERATING AND
OFFICE PRACTICE COURSES IN PRIVATE COMMERCIAL
AND BUSINESS SCHOOLS IN 1928-1929

State	Number of Schools Reporting	Enrollment in the Machine Operating Course	Enrollment in the Office Practice Course
Alabama	7	127	1,242
Arizona	1
Arkansas	7	13	448
California	11	321	1,033
Colorado	6	93	196
Connecticut	5	574
Delaware	1
D. C.	5
Florida	1	264
Georgia	4	369
Idaho	2	15	90
Illinois	18	632	710
Indiana	5	173	1,206
Iowa	10	305	933
Kansas	8	318	642
Kentucky	4	74
Louisiana	4	10	629
Maine	2	115	190
Maryland	2	66
Massachusetts	16	1,358	1,528
Michigan	14	409
Minnesota	3	37	170
Mississippi	2	62
Missouri	8	600	883
Montana	3	157	84
Nebraska	5	239	232
New Hampshire	1	39	39
New Jersey	4	275	162
New York	26	398	2,189
North Carolina	3	307	201
North Dakota	2	18	28
Ohio	23	602	1,677
Oklahoma	5	117	1,363
Oregon	3	23	128
Pennsylvania	30	627	2,452
Rhode Island	4	5	190
South Carolina	3	80	116

(Continued)

TABLE IX (Continued)

TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS PURSUING MACHINE OPERATING AND
OFFICE PRACTICE COURSES IN PRIVATE COMMERCIAL
AND BUSINESS SCHOOLS IN 1928-1929

State	Number of Schools Reporting	Enrollment in the Machine Operating Course	Enrollment in the Office Practice Course
South Dakota	2	47
Tennessee	12	484	797
Texas	14	803	1,211
Vermont	1	2
Virginia	3	25	92
Washington	7	103	1,215
West Virginia	5	625
Wisconsin	5	16	313
Total	307	8,437	24,879

TABLE X

TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS PURSUING MACHINE OPERATING AND
OFFICE PRACTICE COURSES IN 543 PRIVATE COMMERCIAL AND
BUSINESS SCHOOLS IN 1932-1933

State	Enrollment in the Machine Operating Course	Enrollment in the Office Practice Course
Alabama	56	139
Arizona	346	295
Arkansas	250	247
California	835	1,611
Colorado	149	113
Connecticut	557	967
Delaware
D. C.	400	470
Florida	33	246
Georgia	92	749
Idaho	12
Illinois	644	1,360
Indiana	154	690
Iowa	108	465
Kansas	195	1,008
Kentucky	204	404
Louisiana	52
Maine	353	312
Maryland	67	144
Massachusetts	457	1,034
Michigan	296	1,504
Minnesota	410	664
Mississippi	156
Missouri	50	1,516
Montana	201	204
Nebraska	51	181
New Hampshire	208	129
New Jersey	1,166	1,082
New York	2,571	4,702
North Carolina	432	343
North Dakota	465
Ohio	1,476	2,849
Oklahoma	631	1,730
Oregon	97	238
Pennsylvania	1,492	5,495
Rhode Island	51	867

(Continued)

TABLE X (Continued)

TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS PURSUING MACHINE OPERATING AND
OFFICE PRACTICE COURSES IN 543 PRIVATE COMMERCIAL AND
BUSINESS SCHOOLS IN 1932-1933

State	Enrollment in the Machine Operating Course	Enrollment in the Office Practice Course
South Carolina	59	138
South Dakota	177	187
Tennessee	265	520
Texas	678	2,171
Utah
Vermont	4	13
Virginia	323	520
Washington	359	682
West Virginia	120	467
Wisconsin	215	414
Total	16,244	37,543

and 1932-1933.⁸ The 1924-1925 and 1928-1929 records also contain figures on the number of schools reporting machine operating and office practice courses. The 1928-1929 record reveals a decrease of 146, or 32 per cent in the number of schools reporting machine operating and office practice courses as compared with the 1924-1925 figure. The drop in the 1928-1929 pupil enrollments in machine operating courses numbered 6,833 and in office practice, 15,018.

The 1932-1933 record in Table X reveals that the number of private commercial and business school pupils enrolled in machine operating courses surpassed the 1924-1925 figure of 15,270 by 974 or 6.4 per cent and the number enrolled in office practice fell 2,354 pupils or 5.9 per cent short of the 1924-1925 figure of 39,897 pupils.

For her master's thesis, Ruth Holmdahl sent questionnaires to four hundred high schools of the United States which offered office practice in their business education curricula. She received responses from 144 schools, 27 of which reported no office practice courses (despite the fact the 27 schools were classified as offering office practice in governmental surveys) and 12 of which gave too little information for the data to be used. The questionnaires of five other schools were discarded because some junior business training was taught in the office practice courses.

⁸ U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Biennial Surveys of Education, 1924-1926, 1928-1930, 1932-1934; Bulletins 1926, p. 20; 1930, p. 14; 1938, p. 20.

In her questionnaire Miss Holmdahl asked whether the office practice course offered was primarily clerical in content and, if so, what the length of the course was. The results of her findings on this question are shown in Table XI.⁹ Of the 100 schools reporting, 85, or 85 per cent, offered an office practice course which was primarily clerical in content. One semester courses were carried on in 55 schools and two semester courses, in 30 schools.

The growth in the number of pupils enrolled in New Jersey high schools in the ten-year period from 1929-1930 to 1938-1939 is depicted in Table XII.¹⁰ It may be seen from the data given in the table that there was a steady increase in the number enrolled in office practice during the ten-year period except for the school year 1932-1933, when pupil enrollments in office practice dropped 638 below the figure of 4,035 for the previous year. By 1938-1939 a total of 7,475 more pupils were enrolled in office practice than were enrolled in 1929-1930, representing an increase of 455.8 per cent.

Summary

To summarize the growth of clerical practice according to pupil enrollments and the number of schools offering the course, the following statements are presented.

⁹ Ruth P. Holmdahl, The Teaching of Office Practice In Public Secondary Schools of the United States, unpublished master's thesis, p. 30.

¹⁰ Charles W. Hamilton, "The Teaching of Office Practice and Office Machines," The National Commercial Teachers Federation Sixth Yearbook, p. 431.

TABLE XI

REPORTS BY 100 HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES ON COURSES
 PRIMARILY CLERICAL IN CONTENT AND ON LENGTH OF COURSE
 OFFERED, 1933

Size of School Group	Number of Schools Reporting	Number of Schools Offering Course	Per Cent Offering Course	Length of Course	
				One Semester	Two Semesters
Group A 1-449	10	5	50	2	3
Group B 500-999	32	29	90	15	14
Group C 1000-1999	39	32	82	23	9
Group D 2000 or More	19	19	100	15	4
All Schools	100	85	85	55	30

Note: This table should be read as follows: Of 10 schools reporting with less than 500 enrollment, 5 schools or 50 per cent offer a course primarily clerical in content. Two courses were one semester in length and three were two semesters in length.

TABLE XII

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN OFFICE PRACTICE
IN NEW JERSEY HIGH SCHOOLS DURING THE TEN-YEAR PERIOD
FROM 1929-1930 TO 1938-1939

School Year	Total Number of Pupils Enrolled in Office Practice	Percentage of All High School Pupils Enrolled in Office Practice
1929-1930	2,101	1.6
1930-1931	2,817	1.9
1931-1932	4,035	2.5
1932-1933	3,397	1.8
1933-1934	5,874	3.0
1934-1935	6,435	3.1
1935-1936	6,509	3.1
1936-1937	7,331	3.5
1937-1938	8,225	3.9
1938-1939	9,576	4.5

1. Governmental surveys on the number of students enrolled in certain business subjects in public high schools of the United States for 1922, 1928, and 1934 revealed that pupil enrollments in each of the subjects--bookkeeping, shorthand, and typewriting--far exceeded the pupil enrollments in office practice.

2. Table II which gives the number and percentage distribution of gainfully employed male and female workers in clerical occupations from 1870 to 1940 shows that a much larger number of clerks were employed than were bookkeepers, cashiers, accountants, stenographers, and typists. Despite these employment records, more pupils were enrolled in bookkeeping and stenographic courses than were enrolled in clerical practice courses.

3. A study of curricular offerings and enrollments of 1,684 public schools and 113 nonpublic schools in the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1925 disclosed the fact that office practice was taught to but 3.1 per cent of the total number of pupils enrolled in the business departments and to only 1.4 per cent of the total school enrollments.

4. In a survey of enrollments in certain business subjects of Virginia's 293 high schools in 1948, it was found that office practice was being taught in only 29 schools. Virginia has recently developed a new nonstenographic office-training program in order to provide office training for more pupils.

5. The number of high schools in the United States reporting office practice in 1927-1928 was 1,119, an increase of 965 per cent over the 116 schools reporting office practice in 1921-1922. In 1933-1934 schools reported office practice numbered

1,781, which represented an increase of 1,535 per cent over the 116 schools reporting office practice in 1921-1922.

6. Student enrollments in machine operating and office practice courses in private commercial and business schools for 1924-1925, 1928-1929, and 1932-1933 showed a noticeable decrease in the 1928-1929 survey as compared with the enrollments for 1924-1925. By 1932-1933 the number of pupils instructed in machine operating surpassed the 1924-1925 figure of 15,270 by 974, or 6.4 per cent, while the number of pupils enrolled in office practice fell 2,354, or 5.9 per cent, short of the 1924-1925 figure of 39,897 pupils.

7. Of the 100 high schools of the United States returning Ruth Holmdahl's questionnaire on office practice, 85 reported their office practice courses as being primarily clerical in content. Office practice was taught in one semester in 55 of the schools reporting and in two semesters in 30 of the schools reporting.

8. During the ten-year period from 1929-1930 to 1938-1939, the number of pupils enrolled in office practice in New Jersey high schools steadily increased except for the school year 1932-1933 when pupil enrollments in office practice dropped 638 below 4,035, the figure for the previous year.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The findings and conclusions presented in this chapter are based on the data given in the previous chapters of this study on a history of clerical practice in secondary schools.

Findings

1. The growth of business education during the colonial period (1635-1789) and the early national period (1790-1820) was characterized by business training through apprenticeships, by attendance at evening schools, by instruction from private teachers, and from the reading of business textbooks by individuals.
2. The rapid growth of business during the early and middle parts of the nineteenth century created a need for more clerical training facilities.
3. The first private schools designed exclusively for business training were established during the experimental period between 1820-1850.
4. Independent business schools and private chain schools dominated the field of business training in the monopolistic period which extended from 1850-1890.
5. The public high schools offered business training in only arithmetic, penmanship, and bookkeeping until the 1870's, when shorthand, commercial law, commercial arithmetic, and business forms were introduced into the curricula.
6. Teacher requirements for business courses have been

improved since 1928 by the raising of standards by state departments of education.

7. Instruction in penmanship, arithmetic, and bookkeeping in the latter part of the nineteenth century included, in certain cases, experiences comparable to those found in actual business situations.

8. The clerical practice course has been taught under a wide variety of titles including secretarial practice, office training, clerical practice, and, most commonly, office practice. Furthermore, the subject matter presented under the same course titles varies from school to school.

9. The clerical practice course has been taught under different plans: the rotation plan, the model office plan, the service bureau plan, the battery plan, the integrated plan, and the cooperative plan.

10. The aims and objectives of the clerical practice course have varied from situation to situation. The subject matter and equipment used have depended upon community and individual needs, the type of school, and the funds available for clerical practice.

11. Clerical occupations surveys, surveys of existing office practice courses, and time and motion studies of clerical occupations have been conducted for the purpose of improving clerical practice courses.

12. Congressional appropriations for the support of office training programs have been very small.

13. Governmental and association surveys on the number of

students enrolled in certain business subjects in public high schools of the United States in the years 1922, 1925, 1928, 1934, and 1948 revealed that pupil enrollments in each of the three subjects--bookkeeping, shorthand, typewriting--far exceeded the pupil enrollments in office practice.

14. Statistics by Anderson and Davidson on the number and percentage distribution of gainfully employed male and female workers in clerical occupations from 1870 to 1940 showed that a much larger number of clerks were employed than were bookkeepers, cashiers, accountants, stenographers, and typists.

15. According to United States Office of Education statistics, the number of high schools in the United States reporting office practice in 1933-1934 was 1,781 schools, which was a 1,535 per cent increase over the 116 schools reporting office practice in the 1921-1922 survey.

16. Student enrollments in machine operating and office practice courses in private commercial and business schools for 1924-1925, 1928-1929, and 1932-1933 showed a noticeable decrease in the 1928-1929 survey as compared with the enrollments for 1924-1925. By 1932-1933 the number of pupils instructed in machine operating courses surpassed the 1924-1925 figure of 15,270 by 974, or 6.4 per cent, while the number of pupils enrolled in office practice fell 2,354 or 5.9 per cent short of the 1924-1925 figure of 39,897 pupils.

Conclusions

1. The early apprenticeship system resembled the modern

clerical practice course in many respects.

2. The private business schools filled the need for trained clerical workers when the public high schools had not yet introduced business curricula.

3. Business education curricula of the 1890's listed many courses, the fundamentals of which are now incorporated in the clerical practice courses.

4. The existence of a wide variety of titles used in connection with clerical training courses denotes a need for a standardization of terms.

5. The adoption by schools of a clerical practice curriculum to parallel the traditional stenographic and bookkeeping curricula may help standardize clerical training course titles.

6. Little agreement has been reached on the number of semesters the clerical practice course should cover or the amount of credit that should be awarded for satisfactory completion of the course.

7. The cost of office equipment may have prevented many school systems from developing more desirable clerical practice courses.

8. The fact that proposed Congressional appropriations for office training programs have not been granted seems to indicate that business educators have failed to make known sufficiently well the need for the improvement and extension of existing office training programs.

9. Statistical reports on pupil enrollments by subject and by clerical occupations reveal that too few students have been

trained in clerical duties to meet the need for clerks. In contrast the schools have probably been producing a supply of bookkeepers, stenographers, and typists larger than has been necessary to meet the demand.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Agnew, Peter L. Determination of the Content of a Course in Office Practice. Unpublished Doctoral thesis; New York University, 1940.
2. Agnew, Peter L. "Machines, Equipment, and Supplies." Journal of Business Education, VII (January, 1932), 8-9.
3. Agnew, Peter L. Principles and Problems of Office Practice. New York: New York University Bookstore, 1937.
4. Agnew, Peter L. "Recent Trends in Office Practice." The National Business Education Quarterly, VIII (October, 1939), 15,16,36.
5. Agnew, Peter L. "Teachers' Service Column, Office Practice." The Balance Sheet, XXI (December, 1939), 184.
6. Agnew, Peter L. "Teachers' Service Column, Office Practice." The Balance Sheet, XXI (February, 1940), 281.
7. Agnew, Peter L. "Teachers' Service Column, Office Practice." The Balance Sheet, XVIII (October, 1946), 88.
8. Anderson, H. Dewey and Davidson, Percy E. Occupational Trends in the United States. Stanford University, California; Stanford University Press, 1940.
9. Bachrach, William. "Vocational Convention, St. Louis." The American Shorthand Teacher, IV (April, 1924), 309.
10. Baker, Bernard F. "Modernized Office Practice in the Chicago Public High Schools." American Business Education Digest, II (March, 1945), 118.
11. Bell, Alice. "Trying Out for the Job--A Course in Office Practice." The Balance Sheet, XV (May, 1934), 412.
12. Black, Nettie. "Creating an Office Atmosphere." Journal of Business Education, XVIII (September, 1942), 14.
13. Bucher, K. Ezra. "How We Put 'Practice' Into Office Practice." The Balance Sheet, XXIII (September, 1941), 9-11.
14. Carter, James S. "Modern High School Office Training." American Business Education, II (March, 1946), 152.
15. Chamberlin, J. E. "Office Training." The Balance Sheet, VIII (May, 1927), 13-14.
16. Cranna, Edna N. Quoted in Practical Cooperative Training in Commercial Education, Monograph No. 30, South-Western Publishing Company, p. 19.

17. Davis, C. O. The Balance Sheet, IX (February, 1928), 4.
18. Deal, L. L. "Office Practice at Armstrong College." Journal of Business Education, XIV (June, 1939), 14.
19. Eaton, Jeanette and Stevens, Bertha. Commercial Work and Training for Girls. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1915.
20. Engels, Bernice. "The Business Curriculum in Cosmopolitan High Schools." The Business Curriculum, National Commercial Teachers Federation Sixth Yearbook, p. 221.
21. Fox, Frederick G. "Performance Standards in Office Operations." The National Business Education Quarterly, IX (March, 1941), 15-16.
22. Freeman, M. Herbert. "Basic Business Education Research Study." Preliminary Report No. 5. Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, Division of Vocational Education, Business Education Service.
23. Freeman, M. Herbert. "Duties of the General Office Clerk." American Business Education Digest, I (May, 1945), 211.
24. Freeman, M. Herbert. "Research Notes." American Business Education Digest, II (October, 1945), 52.
25. Freeman, M. Herbert. "The Clerical Field and the Youth Problem--As a Business Teacher Sees It." Thirteenth Yearbook, Eastern Commercial Teachers Association, (1940), 90.
26. Freeman, M. Herbert and Melofsky, Sylvia. "Office Practice Courses in Westchester County, New York." Journal of Business Education, XIV (March, 1939), 11-12.
27. Good, Carter V. Dictionary of Education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1945.
28. Good, Carter V., Barr, R. S., Scates, Douglas E. The Methodology of Educational Research. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Incorporated, 1935.
29. Graham, Jessie. Evolution of Business Education in the United States. Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press, 1934.
30. Hamilton, Charles W. "The Teaching of Office Practice and Office Machines." The National Commercial Teachers Federation Sixth Yearbook, p. 431.
31. Hamilton, William V. "Changing Patterns in Business Education." American Business Education, III, (October, 1946), 58.

32. Haynes, Benjamin R. and Jackson, Harry P. A History of Business Education in the United States. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Company, 1935.
33. Hillmer, George P. "Office Training for Graduating Students." Journal of Business Education, XIV (December, 1938), 23.
34. Holmdahl, Ruth P. The Teaching of Office Practice in Public Secondary Schools of the United States, unpublished master's thesis, University of Southern California, 1933.
35. Jones, Conner T. Teaching Business Subjects in the Secondary Schools. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1924.
36. Kahn, Joseph and Klein, Joseph. Principles and Methods in Commercial Education. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1924.
37. Kandel, Isaac L. History of Secondary Education. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1930.
38. Kirk, John G. "How Philadelphia Planned Its Office Equipment Instruction." Journal of Business Education, III (February, 1930), 27.
39. Kitson, Harry D. Commercial Education in Secondary Schools. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1929.
40. Knepper, Edwin. A History of Commercial Education in the United States. Ann Arbor: Edward Bros. Incorporated, 1941.
41. Lebeda, Agnes. "Recent Trends in Teaching Office Practice." Report, Oklahoma A & M College, 1945, pp. 17, 18, 19.
42. Liles, Alton B. Parker. "Clerical Training in the High School, Part I." Journal of Business Education, XXII (November, 1946), 13-14.
43. Liles, Alton B. Parker. "Clerical Training in the High School, Part II." Journal of Business Education, XXII (December, 1946), 13-14, 24.
44. Liles, Alton B. Parker. Some Factors in the Training of Clerical Workers. Stillwater, Oklahoma: Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, 1949.
45. Loso, F. W. "Trends in Office Practice." Journal of Business Education, II (October, 1935), 12.
46. Lyon, Leverett S. Education for Business. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1931.
47. Marvin, Cloyd. Commercial Education in Secondary Schools. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1922.

48. McKenzie, Carl H. "Cooperation Between Business and Education." Journal of Business Education, XXI (June, 1946), 11-12.
49. Miller, Jay Wilson. Methods in Commercial Teaching. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Company, 1925.
50. Moore, William L. "Our Curriculum Emphasizes Training for the Job." Journal of Business Education, VI (May, 1931), 17.
51. Moses, Louise and Walker, A. L. "Virginia Develops a Program of Nonstenographic Office Training." Business Education World, XXX (November, 1949), 117-119.
52. Nash, Elizabeth A. "Office Practice in Roxbury, Massachusetts." Journal of Business Education, VII (March, 1932), 17-18.
53. Nichols, Frederick G. "Criticism, Comment, and Challenge." Journal of Business Education, XIV (November, 1938), 28-29.
54. Pim, Harold E. "Use of Office Machines in Business and Industry." The Business Education Digest, II (October, 1938), 8.
55. Potter, Thelma M. An Analysis of the Work of General Clerical Employees. Contributions to Education No. 903, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944.
56. Rowland, R. S. Business Education Digest and Federation Notes, II (May, 1938), 55-57.
57. Salsgiver, Paul L. Curriculum Construction in Business Education Syllabus, Boston: Boston University, 1949.
58. Seybolt, Robert F. "Source Studies in American Colonial Education; the Private School." Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 28, (University of Illinois, 1925).
59. Seybolt, Robert F. "The Evening School in Colonial America." Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 24, (University of Illinois, 1925).
60. Shean, Jeannie F. "Drills for Calculating Machines." Journal of Business Education, XII (September, 1936), 23.
61. Shean, Jeannie F. New Era in Office Practice and the Place of the Subject in the Curriculum, unpublished master's thesis, Boston University, 1930.
62. Smith, Stanley S. Quoted in Practical Cooperative Training in Commercial Education. Monograph 30, South-Western Publishing Company, p. 13.
63. Sorenson, Alfred. "Editorial Comment." Journal of Business Education, IX (December, 1933), 6-17.
64. Stickney, Rufus. "Courses in Vocational Business Schools." Journal of Business Education, XXI (October, 1945), 16.

65. Swanson, Edwin A. "Instruction in Office Practice." The National Business Education Quarterly, XIV (December, 1945), 4.
66. Tonne, Herbert A. Business Education, Basic Principles and Trends. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1939.
67. Tonne, Herbert A. "Notes by the Editor." Journal of Business Education, XXII (October, 1946), 7.
68. Tonne, Herbert A. "Notes by the Editor." Journal of Business Education, XXII (November, 1946), 7.
69. U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. Biennial Survey of Education, 1916-1918. Bulletin 1919, Vol. I, No. 88.
70. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Biennial Survey of Education, 1920-1922, Bulletin 1924, No. 7.
71. U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. Biennial Survey of Education, 1924-1926, Bulletin, 1928, No. 25, p. 257.
72. U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. Biennial Survey of Education, 1926-1928, Bulletin, 1930, No. 16.
73. U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-1930, Bulletin 1931, Vol. I, No. 20.
74. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Biennial Survey of Education, 1932-1934, Bulletin 1938, No. 6.
75. U. S. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1936-1938, Bulletin 1940, No. 2, p. 24.
76. U. S. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Annual Reports of the United States Office of Education for the Fiscal Years, 1941-42, 1942-43.
77. U. S. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Business Experience for Business Teachers. Miscellaneous Bulletin 3257, 1948.
78. Wivel, Claude B. "The High School Curriculum in Business Subjects." The Balance Sheet, III (November, 1921), 9.
79. Zeller, Bernard S., C. S. V. History and Development of Office Technique, unpublished master's thesis, Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C., 1945.

STRATHMORE PARCHMENT

100% RAG U.S.A.

TYPIST: Mary Fiegel

PARCHMENT

ST