TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

Volume I

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the
Graduate School of The Ohio State
University

By

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1954

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer expresses his appreciation to Dr. J. M. Hanna for constructive criticism and guidance in directing this study; to Dr. E. W. Anderson, Dr. D. H. Eikenberry, and Dr. C. B. Hicks for counsel and advice at critical stages in the development of the study; to Dr. V. H. Carmichael for editorial assistance with the final draft of the study; and to his wife, Beverly Carmichael, for continuous help in bringing this study through to completion.
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Practicing democracy in the school not only develops democratic citizenship but it also facilitates learning

Business education classrooms must be conducted according to teacher-pupil-planning concepts

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### Volume II

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CHAPTER I

DESCRIPTION OF PROBLEM AND METHOD OF RESEARCH

During the past quarter of a century, increasing thought has been given to the nature and extent to which students should participate in the learning situation. The stimulus for this thinking has come, in the main, from two sources—the concern as to how democratic citizenship may be developed in students and newer concepts as to how learning takes place. As a result of this thinking, a methodology has been developing by which it is conceived that democratic citizenship may be developed and learning enhanced. This method is most commonly referred to as teacher-pupil planning. Teacher-pupil planning conceives a learning situation in which students have the experience of cooperatively planning and carrying out their learning activities with their teachers. Business education, it was believed, had not given critical thought to teacher-pupil planning concepts.

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the problem. The primary purpose of this study was to implement the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education. A secondary purpose was to evaluate the extent and nature of the thinking and practices within business education with respect to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning.

Importance of the study. There is need for research in the area
of implementing the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning in terms of areas in which teachers are specialized. This need stems from the fact that teacher-pupil planning is not practiced in most classrooms today. In the majority of classrooms, there is lack of skill on the part of both teachers and students to practice teacher-pupil planning. If these classrooms are to move in the direction of teacher-pupil planning, at least two things must result. First of all, the teachers in these classrooms must accept the philosophy upon which teacher-pupil planning is founded. Secondly, teacher-pupil planning experiences must be introduced into these classrooms on a level in keeping with the skills of teachers and students. The implementation of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for specialized areas can aid in both these respects.

The acceptance of the philosophy upon which teacher-pupil planning is founded will require much critical thinking on the part of teachers. Teachers who are trained in specialized subject matter areas are more likely to be challenged to consider critically the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning if they are exposed to the implementation of the philosophy for the area of their specialization. This is particularly true in areas such as business education where the attitude is quite prevalent that the development of skills, such as typewriting and shorthand skills, require quite different learning situations than are required in non-skill areas. The expression of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning in broad pedagogical terms is likely to get the reaction that such procedures may be all right for some classrooms but
not for business education classrooms where every minute of classroom
time must be directed by the teacher to the end of developing the highest
possible degree of skill. In other words, teachers will be more chal-
lenged to consider critically the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning if
they are confronted with the implementation of the philosophy in terms of
subject matter areas with which they are familiar rather than by broad
pedagogical statements with examples in areas with which they are
unfamiliar. Thus, the implementation of the philosophy of teacher-
pupil planning for specialized areas can aid in teacher acceptance of
the philosophy by challenging teachers to consider it critically.

The implementation of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning
for specialized areas can also aid teachers in the introduction of
teacher-pupil planning opportunities into their classrooms. The
acceptance of the pedagogical soundness of teacher-pupil planning does
not automatically mean that a teacher knows how to translate the philoso-
phy into the classrooms which he is now teaching. Broad statements to
the effect that students should be given as many choices and responsi-
bilities in the learning situation as they are capable of handling is of
little value to the teacher whose experiences have been in autocratically
run classrooms. For such a teacher, the greatest need is for knowledge
of some of the specific teacher-pupil planning opportunities which he
feels might be within his own skills and those of his students. The
implementation of the philosophy for specialized areas, by setting forth
examples of teacher-pupil planning for the specialized areas, can aid
teachers to translate the philosophy into their classrooms. Such
examples might also expand the thinking of teachers practicing teacher-pupil planning.

The primary purpose of this study was to attack, in terms of business education, this need for research in the area of the implementation of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for specialized areas.

There is also a need for an evaluation of the thinking and practices within specialized areas with respect to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning. Such an evaluation could serve to reveal strengths which can be capitalized upon and weaknesses that need improvement. The secondary purpose of this study was to evaluate the thinking and practices within business education in relation to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning.

Delimitations. In attacking this problem of implementing the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education and in evaluating the thinking and practices within business education with respect to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning, the study was limited to: (1) a search of the literature of education and business education; (2) a consideration of teacher-pupil planning in the secondary schools; and (3) a consideration of teacher-pupil planning in curricular activities.

II. METHOD OF RESEARCH

Related studies. Before attacking the problem of this study, a search was made to discover as to whether or not comparable or related studies had been made. No comparable or related studies were discovered
in the area of business education. Philosophical studies which relate to teacher-pupil planning are referred to in Chapters II to VI of this study. Experimental studies which relate to teacher-pupil planning are reported in Chapter VII of this study.

Philosophy of teacher-pupil planning. The value of this study rests on the validity of the concept that students should have the experience of cooperatively planning and carrying out their learning activities with their teachers. Therefore, a necessary first step in attacking the problem of this study was a fully supported expression of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning. The expression of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning was also a necessary prerequisite to the implementation of the philosophy for business education. It was necessary so as to give the investigator direction in his later search of the literature of business education. It was also necessary so that a framework would be available for the meaningful organization and critical examination of the literature of business education.

The expression of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning was based on extensive reading in the field of education. The starting point for this examination of the literature of education was the utilization of a teacher-pupil-planning section of a bibliography prepared by Harold Alberty.¹ The sources in this bibliography led, of course, to many other sources of information.

¹Harold Alberty, "Selected References on the High-School Curriculum and Related Areas" (Columbus, Ohio: Department of Education, The Ohio State University, 1951), pp. 32-35. (Mimeographed.)
The expression of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning was organized according to basic tenets which lead to the concept that students should participate in planning and carrying out their learning activities.

**Implementation of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education.** In considering ways in which the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning might be implemented and the thinking and practices within business education evaluated, it was felt that the initial need was a search of the literature of business education for the thinking and practices of business educators. This search was made, in the main, at Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana, where the School Library, the Business Education Department Library, and the personal libraries of M. E. Studebaker and V. H. Carmichael were utilized. The Business Education Department at Ball State Teachers College is one of the oldest in the country, and Studebaker and Carmichael have been inveterate savers of business education literature for more than a quarter of a century. This made possible an exhaustive search of the bulk of what has been written in the area of business education since its organized beginnings. Appendix D is a bibliography of the business education literature searched.

In the search of the literature of business education, all the thinking and practices which had meaning for teacher-pupil planning were recorded. These materials were then organized in order that they could become useful in implementing the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning.
for business education and in order that the thinking and practices within business education could be evaluated.

Two general types of discussions appeared in the literature of business education which had meaning for teacher-pupil planning--pedagogical discussions which supported teacher-pupil planning concepts and discussions which reported or suggested classroom practices that had meaning within teacher-pupil planning concepts. The pedagogical discussions were placed in the main body of the study. Discussions which reported or suggested classroom practices were placed in appendixes.

Any organization of teacher-pupil planning concepts is difficult because of the interrelatedness of the concepts. The organization of the excerpts from the literature of business education evolved out of numerous attempts to arrive at a meaningful organization of the thinking and practices from the literature. It seemed advisable to maintain the identity of the subject matter areas in relation to the concept being discussed or the example being given. It also seemed desirable that related concepts and examples from the various subject matter areas be kept together in order to lend continuity and avoid duplication. In the chapters which report the pedagogical discussions, the major divisions within each chapter are according to basic teacher-pupil planning concepts. Within each of the major divisions the breakdown is according to subject matter areas. In the appendixes which report classroom practices, the major divisions are according to the nature of the activity or example reported. As for example, all of the classroom practices which involve student participation in making community surveys
are placed together. Within each of the major divisions, the breakdown is also according to subject matter areas. The heading, "Business Education in General," is used to identify concepts or examples which either deal with business education without reference to a particular subject area or which cut across several subject areas.

At the end of major divisions in the chapters reporting the excerpts from the literature of business education, the excerpts were summarized and evaluated. References were made at appropriate points in the summaries and evaluations to the classroom practices which appear in the appendixes. With respect to the implementation of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education, the effort was not merely to summarize the excerpts from the literature, but rather, to utilize the excerpts against the backdrop of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning to extend as much as possible the implementation of the philosophy for business education. The excerpts were also evaluated as to the extent and nature of the thinking and practices within business education with respect to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning.

Because of the interrelatedness of teacher-pupil planning concepts, the division lines represented by chapter or appendix headings and the headings within the chapters and appendixes are not hard and fast division lines. In some cases, to have attempted to segment a discussion from the literature to make it fit the organizational pattern which evolved would have destroyed the meaningfulness of the discussion. In these cases, the effort was to place the discussion at that place where it seemed most meaningful. Then in the summarizing and
evaluative statements for major divisions, reference was made to all information from the literature which applied to that major division. For example, if a discussion from the literature was most meaningful in relation to the division, "Students Should Participate in All Phases of the Learning Situation," but also had interwoven ideas which had meaning for the division, "Ways in Which Students Can Participate in Evaluation," the discussion was placed in the division, "Students Should Participate in All Phases of the Learning Situation," with reference being made to it in the summarizing and evaluative statements dealing with the division, "Ways in Which Students Can Participate in Evaluation."

As this study was originally conceived, it was planned that the implementation of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning would include interviews with business education teachers. Interview forms were prepared and trial interviews with two business education teachers were held. These interviews proved to be unproductive. The interview forms were revised and interviews were conducted with four additional business education teachers. On the basis of these interviews, it was decided that the interviews were not a productive source for implementing the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning within the limitation of a reasonable amount of time that could be asked of an interviewee.

III. ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The study is organized as follows. Chapter I is devoted to a description of the problem and the method of research. The philosophy of teacher-pupil planning is expressed in Chapters
II to VI. Chapter II deals with the concept that the major responsibility of education is to develop democratic citizenship by means of setting up social environments that will develop the characteristics which will prepare students for successful participation in a democracy. Chapter III expresses the concept that social environments must be created in the school which will enable students to practice democracy. The concept discussed in Chapter IV is that if democracy is to be practiced in the school, students must have the experience of cooperatively planning and carrying out their learning activities with their teachers. Chapter V deals with the concept that practicing democracy in the school not only develops democratic citizenship but that it also facilitates learning. Chapter VI expresses the concept that business education classrooms must be conducted according to teacher-pupil-planning concepts.

In Chapter VII, the experimental studies which relate to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning are reported.

Chapters VIII to XI and Appendixes A, B, and C deal with the implementation of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education and the evaluation of the thinking and practices within business education with respect to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning. Chapter VIII is concerned with the essential elements of teacher-pupil planning as regards all phases of the learning situation itself and the planning which must precede the teacher-pupil planning learning situation. Chapters IX, X, and XI consider student participation in various phases of the learning situation. Chapter IX deals
with student participation in defining and choosing goals and objectives, Chapter X with student participation in working toward goals and objectives, and Chapter XI with student participation in determining how effectively goals and objectives have been reached. Appendix A reports classroom practices which have meaning for teacher-pupil-planning concepts. Appendix B contains illustrative resource units for various subject matter areas within business education. Appendix C contains an evaluation of the "Q-SAGO" pattern for teaching general business.

The final chapter summarizes and presents conclusions with respect to: the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning; the attention given in the literature of business education to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning; and the implementation of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education.
CHAPTER II

EDUCATION'S MAJOR RESPONSIBILITY IS TO DEVELOP DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP

The function of Chapters II to VI of this study is to express the philosophical bases for teacher-pupil planning. Since the value of this study rests on the validity of the concept that pupil participation in the planning and carrying out of their learning activities is desirable, the basic tenets which lead to this concept must be supported fully.

The basic tenets which lead to the concept that pupil participation in the planning and carrying out of their learning activities is desirable are:

1. Education's major responsibility is to develop democratic citizenship.
2. Democracy must be practiced in the school.
3. Students must have the experience of cooperatively planning with their teachers their learning activities.
4. Practicing democracy in the school not only develops democratic citizenship, but it also facilitates learning.

A separate chapter is devoted to a consideration of each of the above tenets. In addition, a chapter is devoted to the contention that business education classrooms must be conducted according to teacher-pupil-planning concepts.

This chapter deals with the tenet that education's major responsibility is to develop democratic citizenship.

I. EDUCATION'S MAJOR RESPONSIBILITY IS THE DEVELOPMENT OF DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP--THE CENTRAL TENET OF TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING CONCEPTS

The central tenet of teacher-pupil planning concepts from which
the others evolve is that education's major responsibility is to develop democratic citizenship. That the major responsibility of education in the United States is to develop democratic citizenship needs no defense. However, since it is the central tenet of this study, a few expressions of this widely accepted view are presented below:

We assume, then, as a generally accepted postulate, that one of the major objectives of a public high school is to educate for citizenship, to the end that the democratic way of life may be understood and appreciated, and democratic institutions developed and maintained.

... There must be a unified, persistent effort to infuse into every future citizen the spirit of democracy. This objective must be regarded as a primary purpose for which the school exists, and every teacher and pupil must become vividly conscious of the fact.

We believe the central purpose of education is to develop and foster the democratic way of life.

The chief function of the schools in a democracy is to conserve and improve the democratic way of life.

We believe that the general acceptance of democracy as a way of life is the basis upon which our educational philosophy and program should be predicated.

... We must recognize that the ideals, values, and purposes of the school are defined by the school's responsibility for promoting and refining democratic living. They are not a

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2Ibid., p. 585. (Report of Shaker High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio.)

3Ibid., pp. 157-58. (Report of Denver High Schools, Denver, Colorado.)

4Ibid., pp. 403-4. (Report of The Horace Mann School for Girls, New York City.)
matter of whim or caprice. All that the school does must further these purposes, if it is to continue to retain the support of society.  

What are the objectives of an educational program that is "suited to a democracy"? This challenge establishes the development of "citizens capable of furthering democracy" as the ultimate goal of education.

... The function of the school is to provide for the realization of those qualities which are the recognized objectives of democratic living.

... The purposes of our education must be defined in terms of the democratic ideal, and the school's activities must be planned toward the realization of the ideal.

That the primary function of education in the United States is to develop people capable of living satisfactorily in a democracy is, in a sense, a truism; for the school as an instrument of society must prepare the children entrusted to it for successful participation in that society, and democracy is the major commitment of the people of the United States. The implications for education of its primary

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function, however, are complicated by many factors. One of the major complicating factors in efforts by schools to develop democratic citizenship is in grasping the meaning of democracy itself. Any effort, however, to understand the implications for education of its primary function—the development of democratic citizenship—must be built on definite concepts of what democracy is. Hollingshead expresses it in this way: "The true nature of a democracy must be determined before an educational program can be developed that is 'suited to a democracy.'"

Attention will now be given to the basic principles of democracy which can be utilized in building an educational program which is suited to a democracy.

II. THE BASIC TENETS OF DEMOCRACY

There are few basic principles of democracy upon which there is general agreement among those who seek to clarify the meaning of


democracy. This is due, in part, to inconsistent and spurious thinking as where "in the name of democracy school systems are organized and instruction carried on in ways which encourage the development of blind obedience to authority rather than self-discipline based upon an appreciation of the principles of democratic living."\footnote{12} In the main, however, it is due to the nature of democracy itself.

**Difficulties in Achieving Agreement as to the Nature of Democracy**

Before considering the basic tenets of democracy about which there is general agreement, attention will be given to some of the elements inherent in the nature of democracy which make difficult agreement as to the basic principles of democracy.

Democracy is not merely a political organization but is a social relationship. One element which makes complete agreement as to the nature of democracy difficult is that "democracy is not solely a political organization, but rather a social relationship, a conscious striving on the part of each member for the advancement of the common welfare. It is essentially a mode of associated living, for it exists in the lives and the living of its members and not apart or above them in some form of political organization."\footnote{13} When democracy is conceived


\footnote{13}Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 17-18. See also, Alberty, op. cit.,
as an approach to life itself, it is not surprising that disagreements would occur as to the implications of democracy for living.

Conceiving democracy as a way of life must, of course, include within its meaning a form of political organization which is harmonious with the concepts of democratic living. The function of government in a democratic society is concisely stated by Alberty when he says: "The role of government in a democracy is to facilitate the preservation and extension of human rights through powers exercised with the consent of its citizens." 14

Democracy must be continuously modified because of changing conditions and problems with which the society is confronted. Another hazard in achieving general agreement as to the basic principles of democracy is that the interpreters of this way of life find themselves examining a complex and rapidly changing society such as exists in the United States today. As Alberty points out, "Our institutions, our social and economic programs, our standards of ethics and morality are in a constant state of reinterpretation. Upon the nature of these interpretations, free men are bound to disagree." 15

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14 Alberty, op. cit., pp. 52-53.
15 Ibid., pp. 34-35.
Democratic values are not constant values. The modification of democratic concepts is broader than just the need for modifications because of changing conditions and problems within the society. Even in a hypothetically static society, in terms of social and economic conditions, concepts concerning democracy would be continuously changing; for democracy does not consider its values to be in the realm of ultimate truths, but rather, conceives that its values will change continuously as better means are devised for improving the lives of its citizens. As Cantor says:

It [democracy] believes that its values must be modified and reorganized so that all of its members have increased opportunity to participate in a life which brings them and others greater peace and happiness.\(^\text{16}\)

That the values held by democracy will be changing further complicates the task of achieving agreement as to just what values are sought in a democracy.

Democracy is and always will be in a formative stage. Implicit in the concept of the fluidity of the values of democracy is the idea that democracy is an ideal toward which a society striving to be democratic is working but has not yet achieved, and that such a society must continuously attempt to evaluate, understand, and improve the ideal toward which it is working. Since democracy is a growing, changing, fluid process that is searching for ideals which themselves will

\(^{16}\text{Nathaniel Cantor, Dynamics of Learning (Buffalo, New York: Foster & Stewart Publishing Corporation, 1940), pp. 80-81.}\)
change, the practicing of democracy will always lag behind the dream which is conceived.

That democracy is still in a formative stage is expressed by Kilpatrick as follows:

. . . We conclude that democracy is a faith not yet thoroughly accepted, a hope as yet only partially justified, and a program that largely remains to be made. What is thus lacking exactly defines our duty.17

That democracy has never been fully achieved means that the task of the interpreters of democracy is complicated by not having concrete examples to examine in arriving at basic principles of democracy.18

Progress made in democratic living is difficult to transmit from one generation to another. A final reason that will be considered as to why there are conflicting opinions in regard to principles of democratic living is the difficulty of transmitting progress made in democratic living from one generation to another. In discussing this difficulty, Stiles and Dorsey say:

Although a group may reach a high level of development by improved techniques of living together, it may encounter considerable difficulty when it attempts to transmit the results to future generations. Each generation is made up of new individuals who, while being more like than unlike their forefathers, yet differ sufficiently to make it necessary for


18 Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 10-11.
them to work out their own application of recognized principles of living.\(^{19}\)

The difficulties in achieving agreement as to the nature of democracy is not a cause for pessimism. The existence of conflicting opinions as regards something that is under consideration is usually accompanied by a note of despair, or it is implied that more data are needed in order to clarify the conflicting points of view. This should not be the implication derived from the preceding discussion of the fact that there are conflicting opinions as regards principles of democratic living. The discussion has, rather, attempted to point out that these conflicting opinions are due to the very nature of democracy itself. In fact, were there not disagreements, democracy could not continue to grow toward an ideal, for "it is out of these disagreements that clarity and common plans of action arise."\(^{20}\)

The preceding discussion as to the difficulties in achieving agreement as to the nature of democracy has not intended to infer that there is no common level of agreement as to the basic principles of democracy. While there are different interpretations of the ideals of democracy, there are certain fundamental concepts with which most people would agree.\(^{21}\) These fundamental concepts will now be considered.

\(^{19}\)Stiles and Dorsey, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 22-23. See also, Hollingshead, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 23-24.

\(^{20}\)Alberty, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 34-35.

Democracy Is a Form of Social Organization Which Holds That the Optimal Development of the Individual Represents the Highest Good

There is, of course, an interrelatedness among the fundamental concepts concerning democracy that will be discussed. The basic concept upon which the others are built is that "democracy is a form of social organization which holds that the optimal development of the individual, of all individuals, represents the highest good." This belief in the immeasurable worth of the individual is evident in the history of all democratic peoples and is the fundamental idea which makes democracy the antithesis of authoritarianism. While totalitarianism seeks to enslave the individual, democracy seeks to free the individual.

Many other phrases have been used to describe democracy's high


regard for the individual: "Regard for the dignity and worth of the individual."


Since democracy believes in the optimal development of all individuals, opportunities are extended to all its citizens irregardless of race, class, or creed. That equality of opportunity is extended to all citizens does not infer that democracy considers its citizens to have equal potentialities or capacities. Hollingshead clarifies this when he says:

Harrington, Howard H., Teacher-Pupil Planning, pp. 182-83.

Rousseau's concept of the inherent equality of man will have to be modified in accordance with the findings of modern social science.  


28Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 41-42.


science in respect to individual differences. Progress toward a realization of democratic principles must be in accord with the facts of human nature. No political theorizing or legislative enactment can change the inherent differences of man. Society can assure to its members an equality of rights, but it cannot give to its members an equality of potentialities.

The interpretation of the above principle is dependent upon the meaning which is given to the term rights. We have found Laski's definition to be helpful in interpreting this principle. He defines rights as: "those conditions of social life without which no man can seek, in general, to be himself at his best." This definition of rights demands that society accord to each individual those conditions, or opportunities, which will make it possible for him to develop his best self. These opportunities must be planned in reference to the potentialities of the individual. Music lessons to a person who is stone deaf do not constitute an opportunity. The same opportunities for different individuals cannot be regarded as equal opportunities. Each person must be regarded as a distinctive individual and opportunities provided for his particular development.31

Democracy's recognition of the varying capacities and potentialities of its citizens does not lessen its regard for the worth of every individual and the contribution which each has to make to democratic group living. Each individual in a democracy has a respect for the worth of every other individual and a sensitivity to the value of the contributions of all individuals to the democratic way of life.32

The high regard which democracy holds for the individual dictates that all forms of social organization must contribute to the fullest development of the individual, and that the test of the value of


institutions and practices will be in terms of whether or not opportunities for optimal development are being provided.33

Man Achieves Optimal Development Only through Acting in Concert with His Fellows

The concept that each individual in a democracy has a respect for the worth of every other individual leads logically into the next fundamental belief concerning democracy about which there is general agreement. This concept is that "man achieves optimal development only through acting in concert with his fellows: each individual sensitive to the effects of his acts upon others."34

This belief envisages a society in which congenial human


relationships exist as a result of individuals working cooperatively together. 35 That democracy envisages such a society is not so much that this is the end sought by democracy, but rather, that cooperating individuals are the means by which the end sought by democracy is achieved. The end sought by democracy is to promote common interests and purposes among men. 36 Common interests and purposes can only be promoted among men as they work cooperatively together.

Democracy demands that the common interests and purposes of its citizens be determined collectively. 37 It would, of course, be a violation of the concepts of democracy to conceive of forcing individual citizens to work cooperatively together to determine and act upon their common interests, purposes, and problems. The democratic citizen unites with a group of his own volition because he believes that only in the life of the group will his best interests be served. 38 The cohesive force that binds individuals together as a cooperative group is the recognition of the members of the group of their common interests, purposes, and problems. 39

It is, of course, apparent that the common interests, purposes, and problems of the group will not always be those held by all the

35 Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 3-5, 22-23.
37 Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 34-35.
38 Ibid. See also, Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 26-28.
39 Ibid.
individual members of the group. Democracy is interested in developing the maximum potentialities of all individuals when the development of these potentialities is in harmony with the best interests of the group. This is not a limitation on the principle that democracy desires the optimal development of all individuals, for democracy cannot permit the optimal development of one individual to obstruct the optimal development of many individuals.\textsuperscript{10} This difficult idea to convey, the placing of a premium upon individuality within a concept of the welfare of the group, is well expressed by Hollingshead when he says:

Democracy demands that individual and group welfare shall constitute the criterion of values. That act is right which forwards the welfare of the group, and that act is wrong which hinders the development of the group and its individual members.

Lane expresses the same idea in these words, "... democracy is simply a group of persons working together to enhance the quality of living of each member of the group."\textsuperscript{12}

The relationship of the individual to a cooperative group is further clarified by a consideration of the nature of the equality which democracy offers its citizens. As has been pointed out, democracy extends to its citizens an equality of rights; that is, it gives to each individual the opportunity for developing his best self. This equality of rights is accompanied by an equality of obligations. In

\textsuperscript{10}Ibid., pp. 35-37.

\textsuperscript{11}Ibid., p. 39.

\textsuperscript{12}Howard A. Lane, "Education for Social Intelligence," 1945 Yearbook, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, 1945, p. 8.
accepting the equality of rights or opportunities extended by democracy, the citizen assumes the obligation to guarantee to all other citizens the same rights which he expects to enjoy. In other words, "one is free to act only as his acts help, and do not hurt, all affected by them." The assumption of these obligations does not limit the freedom of the individual, for as Hollingshead says:

Freedom must also be conceived in terms of freedom from the necessity of external control. It is a freedom from restraint that results from the ability to control oneself in harmony with the best interests of the group. The individual has liberated himself from social restrictions because he has achieved a self-control that raises him above the need of social control. This freedom is gained only through an obedience to the laws and regulations which society regards as essential to the solution of its problems.

Although it is true that democracy places an obligation on its citizens to be sensitive to the effects of their acts on others, the negativeness of the concept that there are certain things which citizens cannot do should not overshadow the positive values which accrue to individuals who learn to work together in recognizing and acting upon

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1^5 Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 15-17.
common interests, purposes, and problems. The concept which is most important in this connection is not that there are certain things which an individual cannot do, but rather that the fullest development will come to an individual if he learns to act cooperatively with groups in identifying and acting upon common interests, purposes, and problems.

This emphasis on the positive values of individuals working cooperatively together is expressed by The University School of The Ohio State University as follows:

A distinctive personality cannot be developed in isolation. It develops only when there is free interplay with other personalities. Full and free participation within a given group, and among groups, is the best way of promoting desirable individual development in a complex, interdependent society.\(^{46}\)

The Optimal Development of the Individual Requires That Individuals Who Have a Stake In a Given Enterprise Share in Planning and Carrying It Out

A third fundamental concept of democracy on which there is general agreement is that "the ideal of optimal development requires that all individuals who have a stake in a given enterprise share in planning and in carrying it into effect."\(^{47}\)


Democratic living to be effective requires the participation of all members of the society. The values which democracy conceives for such participation, however, are only in part due to the fact that democracy believes that individuals develop optimally when they learn to act responsibly in making and carrying out plans of common concern. Democracy also holds that plans made and acted on by the many glean a better end result than plans made and acted upon by the few, no matter how wise or how good the intent of the few may be.¹⁸

In this connection, it should be noted again that democracy's belief that the individual should share in planning those things which concern him does not mean that democracy fails to recognize that different individuals have differing abilities and potentialities to bring to the group. It is through the ability of groups to utilize

these varying abilities and potentialities that democracy is able to produce superior tangible results to those possible of achievement by authoritarian means.

The Optimal Development of the Individual Can Only Be Realized as Men Have Faith in Intelligence as a Method of Solving Individual and Group Problems

The last generally accepted concept of democracy that will be considered is that "the optimal development of all can be realized only to the extent that men have faith in intelligence as a method of solving individual and group problems."

The method of intelligence, also identified by such terms as

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"scientific method" and "reflective thinking," suggests the way by which democratic peoples solve their individual and group problems. The method of intelligence is the method of the sciences. Democracy and science have developed together and have reinforced each other in their common objective of improving the lot of the common man. Science through the use of experimental methods has improved the material environment by giving him increased control over nature. Democracy holds that man can improve his social environment by employing these same experimental procedures—sensing a problem, setting up hypotheses, marshalling data, drawing conclusions, and acting on the conclusions. It is democracy's contention that these experimental procedures are applicable to all areas of living, that no issue in the society is sacred in the sense that it is not subject to the application of the method of intelligence; and that all solutions arrived at by this method, either past or future, are considered to be no more than tentative solutions always subject to change as conditions change or as new facts are revealed.

It is the belief of democracy that common men, and not just a
select few, have the potentiality for using the method of intelligence in solving their personal problems and those of common concern. The belief that the common man has the potentiality for using the method of intelligence does not mean, of course, that man is born with a developed ability to use the method, nor does it mean that all men have equal capacities for developing the same degree of ability in using the method of intelligence. Democracy does hold that, provided the proper experiences, all men can develop the potentiality which is theirs into an adequate ability to use the method of intelligence in solving problems which concern them. On this point Kilpatrick says:

... Common people (any people anywhere) and children are quite able to reason with a high degree of reliability about things that really concern them. Their reasoning is in itself likely to be good, their weakness (where it exists) is largely in a present lack of knowledge and range of concern. They have the ability: they lack experience.

Alberty expresses this idea as follows:

The ability to think reflectively varies with individuals, but all normal individuals possess it in some degree, and can improve their ability through appropriate training.

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To deny that the common man can so act is to deny the validity of the democratic concept, and "if we ever abandon the idea that the common man is capable of solving the complex problems that beset him, in close cooperation with his fellows, at that time democracy will languish and die."\(^{55}\)

III. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN A DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY AND ITS SCHOOLS

Before giving attention to the implications for schools of the basic principles of democracy discussed above, it seems wise to give some attention to the relationship which should exist between a democratic society and its schools.

The Purposes of an Educational Program Must Grow Out of the Values Cherished by the Society

The purposes and procedures of an educational program in a society must grow out of the values cherished by that society. This is true whether the society cherishes democratic values or authoritarian values.\(^{56}\) It is true that schools may get somewhat out of line with the values held by society, but even when this happens, such practices

\(^{55}\)Ibid., pp. 34-35.

are generally defended by an interpretation of the cultural values that are generally accepted. The schools must, however, rather closely reflect the values held by the society, else they will not retain the support of the society which created them.

Although schools must rather closely reflect the values held by the society, the fluidity of a democratic society gives the schools a relationship to society which is different than the relationship of schools to an authoritarian society. As has been pointed out, democracy is an ideal toward which a society striving to be democratic is working but has not yet achieved; and such a society must continuously attempt to evaluate, understand, and improve the ideal toward which it is working. Thus, the responsibility of the school in a democracy is not defined in terms of what the democratic society is at any particular moment of time, but rather, that responsibility is defined in terms of the ideals to which the democratic society subscribes.

A Democratic Society Is Dependent on Education for Its Perpetuation and Improvement


59 Supra, p. 18

Although, in a sense, the school is dependent on society in that its purposes and procedures must grow out of the values cherished by the society, it is also true that a society is dependent on education.

Society is dependent on education for its perpetuation and improvement. This is true, to some degree at least, whether the society be democratic or authoritarian. That a democratic society is dependent on education is a position that has been traditionally taken by the citizenry of the United States. On this point the Educational Policies Commission says:

The American people have always assumed, perhaps without subjecting the assumption to critical analysis, that the public school is of necessity a mighty bulwark of their democracy. They believe that it has contributed to the equalization of opportunity, the weakening of class distinctions, the induction of the immigrant into the ways and outlooks of American democracy, and the general raising of the level of economic, civic, and social understanding and competence.


62 Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 3-5.
The faith of the American people in the school is essentially sound. Unquestionably democracy depends on organized education for its survival and improvement.  

If the citizens in a democracy are to perpetuate and improve democracy, they must in some way be prepared for this responsibility. As will be seen later, the techniques for democratic living do not come automatically to the individual--these techniques have to be learned, and they are difficult to learn. It is obvious that democracy cannot trust the perpetuation and improvement of its ideals and customs to incidental learning. A democratic society has nowhere to turn but to its schools for an organized and concerted effort to prepare citizens capable of living in and perpetuating the democratic society. This is not to say that no other agency in the society has an effect on citizens or a responsibility for contributing to the improvement of democratic living. It is to say, however, that no other agency in


65 Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 3-5.


67 Cantor, op. cit., pp. 80-81; Edward T. Ladd, "Education for
society is so well-equipped to prepare democratic citizens as is the school. Properly conceived, the school, at any level, can become a laboratory that can improve democracy by testing practices which are democratic and a training ground for citizens who will carry these practices into adult life. Of the importance of education to a democratic society, Giles says:

... Education is the field of action in which democracy fights its basic strategical battles. All the rest--the battles for economic sufficiency, for good government, for happy home life, for good neighbors--the whole fight for individual and group development, is determined by success or failure in education.

Democratic society's dependence on education places a particularly heavy responsibility on education today because of the critical cleavage which exists between democratic and authoritarian ideologies. Unless democratic society, by means of its schools, is able to develop citizens capable of making democracy work better than any other scheme of living, there seems to be little hope that democracy can survive in this struggle.


IV. THE IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION OF THE BASIC TENETS OF DEMOCRACY

Much of the remainder of this study is devoted to considerations as to the implications for education of the basic tenents of democracy. The intent here is merely to outline those implications in broad terms.

In discussing the relationship between a democratic society and its schools, it was pointed out that the purposes and procedures of schools in a democracy must be defined in terms of the values held by the society.\(^71\) Thus, in terms of the values held by a democratic society,\(^72\) the purposes and procedures of the school must be designed to accomplish the following: the optimal development of all its students; the development of individuals who are able to work cooperatively with other individuals; the development of techniques which will enable individuals and groups to plan and act on those things which concern them; and the development of individuals who are able to attack problems by the use of the method of intelligence.

The distinguishing characteristic of the values held by a democratic society which becomes the guide for the school's purposes and procedures is cooperation. By cooperation is meant the planning and working together of members of a group for the realization of common goals which the members have agreed upon or accepted.\(^73\) The idea of

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\(^{71}\) Supra, p. 33.

\(^{72}\) Supra, pp. 21-33.

cooperation permeates all of the basic principles of democracy which have been discussed. 74 In this connection, Hollingshead says:

This principle of cooperation embraces all of the preceding principles of democracy. Cooperation demands a respect for personality, a status of equality, a guarantee of freedom, and a spirit of fraternity. Cooperation serves to integrate these principles and focus them upon the promotion of the common welfare. Cooperation implies a mutual recognition of common interests, common problems, and common purposes. It implies joint planning and working toward the achievement of common goals, and the evaluation of results in terms of the common good. 75

A democratic society, then, is one in which individuals are cooperating with one another rather than competing with one another. 76 Thus, reduced perhaps to the lowest form in which it can be expressed, the job of the school in a democracy is to develop individuals who can act cooperatively with their associates in identifying and acting upon common interests, purposes, and problems. If the school is to accomplish this task it must devise an educational program which will lead to this development. However, before a program can be devised, the school must determine the characteristics and capabilities which would enable people to work cooperatively in groups in solving problems of common concern. 77


75 Hollingshead, op. cit., p. 21.

76 Ibid., pp. 17-18

77 Ibid., pp. 2-3.
People who are capable of operating possess certain personality characteristics. In discussing the personality characteristics demanded by the ideals of democracy, Giles says:

For the present it is perhaps sufficient to state that the following ideals are held to be basic to democratic living: (1) recognition and promotion of the uniqueness and worth of the individual, (2) effective social participation, and (3) reliance upon intelligence. The more important characteristics of personality which are necessary to achieve these ideals are the following: (1) creativeness, (2) personal interests, (3) appreciations, (4) social sensitivity, (5) co-operativeness, (6) reflective thinking, (7) readiness to act upon the basis of tentative judgments, and (8) self-direction.78

If then people who are capable of operating successfully in a democracy possess certain characteristics of personality, the job of the school can also be described as being one of developing personality. In so describing the job of the school, Hollingshead says:

An Educational Program That Is "Suited to a Democracy" Must Have as Its Primary Objective the Development of Personality.

This objective must serve as an integrating principle in our planning. Every phase of our school program must be critically evaluated in terms of this criterion and forced to justify its inclusion in the educational activities of the school.79

If the program of the school must be designed in terms of developing the personalities of its students, consideration must be given as to how personality is developed. That the personalities of individuals are malleable is supported by Hollingshead when he says:


79 Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 79-81.
Psychologists are in agreement that the human infant does not inherit instinctive patterns of fixed responses to situations which will enable him to meet successfully the social problems of life... Nature seems to have recognized that the social situations of life change so rapidly that no fixed system of responses would ever be adequate.\textsuperscript{80}

Thus, the personality of individuals is not inherited but is, rather, the result of the individual's interaction with the social environment, the personality being the product of assimilated social experiences.\textsuperscript{81}

The importance of the social environment to the individual is described by Lewin when he says:

The social climate in which a child lives is for the child as important as the air it breathes. The group to which a child belongs is the ground on which he stands. His relation to this group and his status in it are the most important factors for his feeling of security or insecurity. No wonder that the group the person is a part of, and the culture in which he lives, determine to a very high degree his behavior and character. These social factors determine what space of free movement he has, and how far he can look ahead with some clarity into the future. In other words, they determine to a large degree his personal style of living and the direction and productivity of his planning.\textsuperscript{82}

In this interaction of the individual with the social environment,

\textsuperscript{80}Ibid., pp. 54-55.

the process by which people become members of a group is referred to by sociologists as "socialization." Socialization, thus defined, and personality development are identical processes. Socialization is not necessarily democratic in nature, for individuals are socialized in an authoritarian society according to the values held by that society. If this were not so, any society would break down into complete chaos. This is to say that social environments can be created which will lead to the development of personalities consonant with the value-base which is considered representative of a society. The kind of socialization needed in a democracy is termed "democratic socialization" by Koopman. He defines democratic socialization as:

. . . the controlling directional concept for a kind of education that is concerned with the development of an individual who will exhibit the sort of characteristics and competencies adequate to complete living in a democracy.

It, therefore, becomes the responsibility of education in a democracy to set up social environments which will develop the characteristics

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83 Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 50-52.


which will prepare its products for successful participation in a democracy. Education so conceived is a social process.

Before leaving this discussion, it seems necessary to discuss a misconception which some persons have as to the implications of socialization as an educational objective. The primary value held by democracy out of which the other values grow has been identified as the optimal development of the individual. In terms of democracy's concern for the individual, it might seem ambiguous, at first thought, to identify education's function as being one of developing cooperative, democratically socialized individuals. In discussing the misconceptions which some persons have as to the implications of socialization as an educational objective, Hollingshead says:

... We have found that some see a very definite conflict between individualization and socialization. To some persons, individualization means to develop strong distinctive

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90 Supra, p. 21.
personalities, independent in their own right, and self-direction in terms of their own standards. Socialization, on the other hand, means to them the subordination and subservience of the individual to the group.\footnote{Arthur D. Hollingshead, Guidance in Democratic Living (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1941), pp. 50-52.}

Democracy does not conceive that developing the individuality of its citizens is incompatible with developing socialized, cooperative individuals.\footnote{G. Robert Koopman, op. cit., pp. 7-8, 24-25, 29-30; Ibid., pp. 18-19, 28, 35-37, 50-52; Ruth Cunningham and Associates, Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951), pp. 152-53; M. O. Koopman, "The Implications for Teacher Education of the Autocratic and Democratic Roles of Teachers," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1945), pp. 66, 318-19; Letty Mitchell, "A Basis for Improving Classroom Discussion," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1949), p. 58; Charles Thomas Cowan, "Pupil Participation in Activities at Lincoln School, East Orange, N. J." (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1951), pp. 6-7.} As has already been indicated, democracy holds that the fullest development will accrue to an individual if he learns to act cooperatively with groups in identifying and acting upon common interests, purposes, and problems.\footnote{Supra, p. 28.} To be more explicit, democracy holds that socialization and individualization are interdependent and complementary; or, to express it in another way, that the individual and the group are interdependent, the development of the group being the resultant of the development of its individual members. Of this interrelationship between the individual and the group Alberty says:

Only in the process of living and working together can we recreate our world, since human personality does not develop in a
vacuum. . . . This is not to say that the individual is to be lost in the process, or that individual differences are not to be recognized, but rather that the unique contributions of individuals are to be cherished and given appropriate valuation in promoting common concerns. It is only by these means that individuality flourishes and develops optimally. As individual aptitudes and interests are discovered and developed, they play back into the life of the group and enrich it.94

V. SUMMARY

The primary function of education in the United States is to develop democratic citizenship. Any effort to understand the implications for education of its primary function must be built on definite concepts of the nature of democracy. Although there are few basic principles of democracy upon which there is general agreement, most people would agree with these fundamental concepts: Democracy is a form of social organization which holds that the optimal development of the individual represents the highest good; man achieves optimal development only through acting in concert with his fellows; the optimal development of the individual requires that individuals who have a stake in a given enterprise share in planning and carrying it out; the optimal development of the individual can only be realized as men have faith in intelligence as a method of solving individual and group problems.

The distinguishing characteristic of the values held by a democratic society which becomes the guide for the school's purposes and procedures is cooperation. People who are able to work cooperatively

in groups in solving problems of common concern possess certain personality characteristics. Social environments can be created which will lead to the development of personalities consonant with the value-base which is representative of a society. The responsibility of education in a democracy is to set up social environments that will develop the characteristics which will prepare its products for successful participation in a democracy.
CHAPTER III

DEMOCRACY MUST BE PRACTICED IN THE SCHOOL

It has been stated that the major responsibility of education is to develop democratic citizenship; and that if education is to discharge its responsibility, social environments will have to be set up that will develop the characteristics which will prepare students for successful participation in a democracy. It is here contended that if students are to develop democratic citizenship, social environments must be created which will enable students to practice democracy in the school. Since this concept is basic to this thesis and to the philosophy on which teacher-pupil planning is based, a few expressions of this point of view are presented below:

Obviously, if the school is to become a dynamic force in promoting democracy, it must be transformed into an institution that provides the finest possible illustration of democratic living. The best way to learn the ways of democracy is to live democratically, and administrators, teachers, students, and parents need to discover and practice cooperative planning and working.

... In democratic schools youth develop competence for democratic living through actual experiences in a school environment and in learning situations which are characteristically democratic.

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1Supra, pp. 12-15.

2Supra, pp. 42-43.


... If the school is to fulfill all of its functions as a social institution in a democracy, it must be so organized that democratic living is not only practicable but practiced.  

How is one to acquire a living faith in the democratic way of life? The answer is simple. One becomes democratic by living democratically.  

Practice of democratic skills and development of democratic concepts within the classroom are of paramount importance. They provide the bases of understanding of the wider group dynamics of the community, of democratic society, of world cooperation.  

The school classroom is a place where lessons are assigned in democratic government but where the practice of democracy in the classroom procedure is not nearly so frequently found. An institution that is obliged to train the youth of the nation for democratic living should, itself, be a place where the youth can practice democratic living.  

... Social skills which lead to a higher degree of democratic participation in a group, like other skills are developed through practice in them.  

... But [democratic] skills of this sort, and an attachment to the values cherished in a democratic society, are not developed through talking about them. Young people must actually have

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experience in using these skills and in applying these values if they are to become active and effective participants in the democratic process.10

I. THE CHARACTERISTICS AND SKILLS NECESSARY FOR DEMOCRATIC LIVING CAN ONLY BE LEARNED THROUGH EXPERIENCING SITUATIONS WHICH DEVELOP THOSE CHARACTERISTICS AND SKILLS

The common element in the above quotations is that the characteristics and skills necessary for democratic living are developed through practice in democratic living. Consideration will be given now as to why democracy must be practiced if democratic citizenship is to be developed.

The concept that learning takes place through experiencing is not limited exclusively to the development of characteristics and skills necessary for successful participation in a democracy.11 However, it seems particularly obvious that social characteristics and skills must be learned through social experiences. For example, the trait of cooperation, which has been identified as the distinguishing characteristic of the values held by a democratic society,12 cannot be learned except as individuals have experiences in cooperation.13 This is true for a number of reasons.


11Infra, pp. 115-116.

12Supra, p. 38.

First of all, the term "cooperation" has no meaning apart from individuals planning and working together on something of common concern. Individuals acting alone cannot learn the meaning of cooperation, for as Hollingshead points out:

... The skills of addition can be mastered by an individual in isolation; the attitudes and abilities of cooperation cannot be. An individual can add by himself, but he cannot cooperate by himself.15

Then too, the fact that the term "cooperation," within its meaning, defies imposition seems to exclude the possibility of developing it by any classroom technique except that of providing a social environment through which it can be experienced.16 It is, of course, ambiguous on the surface to contemplate conducting a ten-minute drill on cooperation, or devoting two periods during the semester to lectures on cooperation, or assigning the task of cooperation to two students who have not been getting along well together.17

There might be some slight basis for arguing that cooperation could be developed by means other than through experiences in cooperation were it not for the fact that cooperation as a trait or a skill cannot be isolated as can a skill such as addition. Cooperation is, rather, inextricably bound together with other traits which are

15 Ibid., pp. 28-29. See also, pp. 72-73.
16 Ibid., pp. 212-13.
17 Ibid., pp. 59-60.
identified as being necessary to the individual capable of successful participation in a democracy. As Hollingshead says:

... Cooperation does not stand alone as a separate entity. It is a composite of group consciousness, personal responsibility, consideration, self-direction, and other qualities.18

Thus, it is not possible to dissect a trait like cooperation for packaging and distribution as is traditionally done with organized areas of knowledge in the schools.

It seems clear, therefore, that the characteristics and skills necessary to enable people to work cooperatively with groups in solving problems of common concern can only be developed by schools who give students experiences in democratic living.

II. EXPERIENCES IN DEMOCRATIC LIVING MUST BE EXTENSIVE ONES WHICH PERMEATE ALL OF THE CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES OF THE SCHOOL

If the school must, then, give students experiences in democratic living, the question arises as to how extensive these experiences must be if traits and skills are to be developed which will enable the products of the school to participate successfully in a democracy. The position taken here is that these experiences must be extensive ones which permeate all of the curricular activities of the school.

At least, some experiences in democratic living must be given in the school due to the fact that democratic living has to be learned.19

18 Ibid., p. 33.
19 Catherine Conradi, "Participating in Shared Child-Adult
Democratic characteristics are not inherited by individuals but are, rather, acquired by them as the result of interaction with the social environment. 20

That the experiences in democratic living must be extensive is due, in the main, to the fact that much greater success will be achieved in developing people capable of operating successfully in a democracy if social environments favorable to the development of democratic living permeate the complete school program. 21 Although this will be discussed more fully below, it should be pointed out here that experiencing democratic living in one phase of the curriculum and autocracy in another phase will lead to confusion on the part of the students, which will jeopardize the achievement of the values that can come from the democratic living experiences. 22 Koopman goes so far as to say:


20Supra, p. 41.
22Infra, pp. 134-36.
Democratic living in the classroom is next to impossible without the favoring conditions of democratic living in the whole school.\(^23\)

Another reason that experiences in democratic living must be extensive is that democratic living is difficult to learn.\(^24\) One aspect of this difficulty is that the traits and skills necessary to democratic living are not the natural result of individuals associating together.

As Hollingshead says:

\(...\) There is nothing inherent in the nature of human beings that necessarily causes them to form a democracy when they are brought into close social contact with each other. Children left to their own devices would probably create anarchy, a state of chaos, in which the "survival of the fittest" and "might makes right" would be the ruling principles.\(^25\)

An evidence of the difficulty of learning to live democratically is that it is a process which takes place over a period of many years.\(^26\)

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\(^{23}\)Koopman, op. cit., p. 12.


\(^{25}\)Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 84-86. See also, pp. 103-5.

That experiences in democratic living must permeate the whole school program includes the practice of democracy in the administration of the school. Of this Alberty says:

Cooperative curriculum planning among teachers and students does not flourish in an atmosphere of autocracy. Where teachers have no voice in the determination of school policy, the formulation of school purposes, or the conditions under which they work, there is little likelihood that democracy in the classroom will be extensively practiced. In the first place, a school administrator who exercises autocratic controls would frown upon any widespread attempt on the part of the teachers to extend democracy to students, for this would be a glaring inconsistency which would soon threaten existing administrative policy. In the second place, such administration is usually accompanied by a rigid curriculum organization which leaves few decisions to be made by teachers and students. In the third place, teachers who are forced to live in an autocratic atmosphere are loath to jeopardize their security by introducing cooperative classroom planning.

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III. SUMMARY

If students are to develop democratic citizenship, social environments must be created which will enable students to practice democracy in the school. The characteristics and skills necessary to enable people to work cooperatively with groups in solving problems of common concern can only be developed by schools who give students experiences in democratic living. These experiences must be extensive ones which permeate all of the curricular activities of the school.
CHAPTER IV

STUDENTS MUST HAVE THE EXPERIENCE OF COOPERATIVELY PLANNING WITH THEIR TEACHERS THEIR LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Consideration will be given in this chapter as to how the school can set up social environments which will give students practice in democratic living which will thereby lead to the development of people capable of successful living in a democracy. It is here contended that if democracy is to be practiced in the school, students must have the experience of cooperatively planning and carrying out their learning activities with their teachers. "Teacher-pupil planning" is the term which will be used to identify the process by which the school can develop people capable of successful participation in a democracy. The meaning and implications of this term will be discussed fully below. Since this concept is also basic to this study, several expressions of this point of view are presented:

... Preparation for democratic living demands that the life of the school be the finest possible exemplification of democratic living. This means that cooperative planning becomes a necessity.1

... If ... the school is thoroughly committed to the thesis that the most important values in education are intimately associated with the ability and zeal to work together for the common good, and that the best way to prepare for democratic citizenship is through practicing it in the day-to-day life of the school, then the way lies open to a genuine extension of the opportunities for cooperative teacher-student planning.2

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2Ibid., pp. 339-40.
Teacher-student planning is an attempt to translate the basic principles of democratic living in terms of the day-to-day life of the school.³

Over and above all else, teacher-student sharing as a method of teaching is related to the central goal of secondary education—developing social competence. It aims to promote through shared experiences the growth of attitudes, knowledges, values, and skills necessary for successful citizenship. Such tenets of our democratic faith as respect for others, use of intelligence, and concern for the common welfare are emphasized daily through functional group experience.

The development of the habits and skills of initiative, self-direction, and self-discipline, as well as ability to work harmoniously with others, are of direct concern to teachers who use teacher-student sharing.⁴

When the goals of secondary school teaching are social competency in a democratic society, the evidence is overwhelmingly in favor of teacher-student sharing as compared with such methods as the recitation and the lecture.⁵

... The school of democratic citizenship will ... see to it that all students have opportunities to share in democratic group planning and that they grow steadily in their mastery of this skill.⁶

There is good reason for widening the amount and character of student participation. Education is a complex activity. The successful operation of any educational program demands a high level of cooperative activity on the part of all the individuals who are directly or indirectly involved. This means, then, that if democratic cooperation among the entire faculty is an effective method of achieving group purposes, democratic cooperation among the students and faculty is doubly effective. From the standpoint of allowing the school to fulfill its purpose more efficiently, it

³Ibid., p. 374.


⁵Ibid., p. 334.

is extremely worth while to give girls and boys as well as teachers maximum opportunity to participate in the planning, execution, and evaluation of curriculum activities. Such participation has the utmost socializing value.7

... Democratic theories and principles of social development cannot accept dominance as the controlling teaching method since opportunities for maximum child growth and socialization are not provided for. The social attitudes and abilities ... [which are] the objectives of a democratic program of education cannot be imposed or assigned. If we accept child development and socialization as major responsibilities of education, then we must reject dominance as the function of the teacher. Dominance belongs in the educational program of a totalitarian state; guidance can be accepted as the only function of a teacher in a democratic society.

Guidance, in respect to the group, is primarily interested in utilizing or creating activities that afford opportunities for cooperative planning and working toward the achievement of common purposes.8

... These characteristics, then, will be found in the practice of democracy: participation of all in planning, work, and evaluation, with choice based on intelligent understanding of all and the use of special contributions and expert help from every individual.9

We are suggesting, then, that for group living, for democratic living, there must be opportunity for choice of action both for individuals and for groups, and to make these choices meaningful there must be discussions leading to a realization of the bases on which choices are made.10


9H. H. Giles, Teacher-Pupil Planning (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1911), pp. 73-74. See also, pp. 74, 72-73, 177-78, 183-84.

We may condense all that we have said by the following statements: 
(a) The freedom of the individual in a democracy demands that he be skillful in the art of planning. 
(b) The classroom is the laboratory set by society for the training and drill of children in the tools which they need to live successfully. Hence (c) We must give children every opportunity for vital living experiences in the process of planning. 11

Pupil-teacher planning is the basis of our democratic approach to curriculum planning. 12

In the school becoming the best conceivable example of democracy at work, teacher-pupil planning becomes an important aspect of the way teachers work with children. As the school creates an atmosphere of democratic living, it takes into consideration the needs, interests, and abilities of the students, and through teacher-pupil-planning activities allows them to participate in making and carrying out their program of living in the school. 13

One of the most striking differences between our school and a conventional one is the large part the students play in the planning of the courses . . . We know that it is much simpler for both students and faculty, to have an autocratic system of teaching. But because it will be necessary for us to be a part of a democratic order, our teachers feel and have made us feel that we should begin to think and do for ourselves while we are young. This seems to us to be the basic philosophy behind what we have been doing for the past six years. 14

I. BASIC CONCEPTS OF TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING

11 Jane Sherrod, "When Children Plan," 1945 Yearbook, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, 1945, p. 25. See also, p. 20.


The common element running through the above quotations is that the principles of democratic living can be applied to the life of the school by a process frequently referred to by one of the following terms: "cooperative planning"; "cooperative activity"; "teacher-student planning"; "teacher-student sharing"; "pupil-teacher planning"; "teacher-pupil planning." The term "teacher-pupil planning" will be used in this study to identify this process. The reason for choosing this term, rather than one of the others, is that the term "teacher-pupil planning" seems to occur more frequently in the literature than any of the other terms.

Just as democracy itself cannot be expressed in terms of a neat formula of things to do or not to do, so it is with teacher-pupil planning, which attempts to translate democracy into the life of the school. And since there are disagreements as to what democracy is, it is not surprising that there are also disagreements as to the implications of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for the school.

15 Supra, pp. 15-16.
16 Lester Ball and Ruth H. Simonds, "We Planned It That Way," 1945 Yearbook, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, 1945, p. 31.
17 Supra, pp. 15-20.
Although it is not possible to put teacher-pupil planning into a neat little package for distribution to interested school systems, there are identifiable basic ideas running through the concept which sharply distinguish it from the so-called traditional ways of conducting learning activities. These concepts will now be discussed.

Genuinely Cooperative Experiences Are Provided in All Phases of the Learning Situation

The fundamental concept of teacher-pupil planning is that it "aims to provide genuinely co-operative experience in all phases of teaching and learning."\(^19\) This concept, of course, is a natural outgrowth of concepts developed above. That is, the person capable of successful living in a democracy possesses certain traits and skills which enable him to act cooperatively with associates in identifying and acting upon common interests, purposes, and problems. These traits and skills can only be developed by experiencing situations which develop these characteristics.

The classroom in which cooperative experiences are given to students is conceived by the teacher-pupil-planning method as being one in which students share with the teacher the responsibility for determining what the learning activities will be and how the learning activities will be carried out.\(^{20}\) In other words, students are given

\(^{19}\) Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 299-300.

the opportunity of making choices in all phases of the learning situation within the framework of group plans and activities. 21

As schools began to develop this way of operating in learning situations, the most striking difference, as compared with traditional methods, was bringing children in on the initial or planning stage of the learning experiences—thus the name teacher-pupil planning. It should be made clear at the outset of this discussion, however, that this concept does not limit the cooperative experiences of the student to the planning phase of the learning situation, 22 for as Cunningham says, "... 'Democratic' planning without related democratic execution is meaningless." 23

Teacher-pupil planning conceives that pupils will be participating fully, meaningfully, and responsibly in all phases of the learning situation. That is, not only will students have a part in defining and choosing purposes, but they will also participate in such things as choice of topics which will help achieve the purposes, in the discovery of methods of work which will be best for the achievement of the purposes, in finding and using the materials necessary for the solution of the topics or problems which have been chosen, in developing the

op. cit., pp. 87-90, 95, 235-36; Alberty, op. cit., p. 374; Rehage, op. cit., p. 11; Howe, op. cit., p. 89.

21Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., p. 301; Giles, op. cit., pp. 76-77, 183-84; Cunningham, op. cit., pp. 236-37, 260-61.


23Cunningham, op. cit., pp. 272-73.
most effective means of presenting the results of their study and experiences, in the evaluation of how effectively the purposes have been achieved, and in making new plans on the basis of the experiences which have resulted. More briefly said, teacher-pupil planning conceives that all people concerned in a learning situation should share in determining purposes, topics, methods, materials, formulation and presentation of results, and evaluation and new planning.

In a sense, these phases of teacher-pupil planning indicate logical stages in the development of a unit of work, but no exact differentiation can be made among these stages. For example, although it would seem desirable that attention should always be given near the close of a unit of work to evaluating what has been accomplished, evaluation in many, if not most, units of work would be desirable at many different stages in the development of a unit of work.

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27 Infra, pp. 91-93.
The Learning Situation Must Deal with the Common Interests, Problems, and Purposes of the Students

If students are to participate cooperatively in all phases of the learning situation, the learning situation must deal with the common interests, problems, and purposes of the students.28

Students can cooperatively participate in a group only as the group is bound together by common interests, problems, and purposes. That students can cooperatively participate in a group only as they are bound together by common interests, problems, and purposes has, in effect, been said many times throughout the preceding chapters. It was pointed out that the end sought by democracy is to promote common interests and purposes among men and that common interests and purposes can only be promoted among men as they work cooperatively together.29 The recognition of the members of the group of their common interests, purposes, and problems was identified as the cohesive force that binds individuals together as a cooperative group.30 It was pointed out that democracy's concern for the optimal development of the individual will be achieved as the individual learns to act cooperatively with groups in identifying


29 Supra, p. 25.

30 Supra, p. 25.
and acting upon common interests, purposes, and problems. It was stated that the ideal of optimal development requires that all individuals who have a stake in a given enterprise share in planning and in carrying it into effect. "Cooperation" which was identified as the distinguishing characteristic of the values held by a democratic society was defined as the planning and working together of members of a group for the realization of common goals which members have agreed upon or accepted. The job of the school in a democracy was defined as being to develop individuals who can act cooperatively with their associates in identifying and acting upon common interests, purposes, and problems.

The importance to the existence of a cooperating group of common interests and problems is described by Hollingshead as follows:

The life and vitality of the group are dependent upon the value the individuals place upon these common objectives. Interests or problems that are unimportant give rise to a loosely united group; those that possess great importance result in strong feelings of group consciousness. When common interests or problems cease to exist, the group disintegrates. An enduring group requires a continuing recognition of common goals.

Thus, teacher-pupil planning conceives that democratic living will be achieved through group efforts to solve problems which are

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31 Supra, p. 28.
32 Supra, p. 28.
33 Supra, p. 38.
34 Supra, p. 38.
35 Supra, p. 39.
36 Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 34-35.
common to the group.\textsuperscript{37} What this problem type of approach to learning involves will now be briefly considered.

A problem type of approach to learning is utilized. The problem type of approach demands, among other things, that the students have a part in selecting the problems which will be considered by the group.\textsuperscript{38} This is, of course, demanded by the fact that teacher-pupil planning holds that students should share with the teacher the responsibility in the learning situation. However, it should also be noted that "problems," as the term is used here, have their origin in the experiences of the students as they are challenged by something new or as the result of obstacles which obstruct their interests and are not things which can be assigned. Since students are to have a part in selecting the problems which will be considered by the group, teachers cannot rely on "canned problems," for what has been a problem for one group will not necessarily be a problem for another group.\textsuperscript{39}


\textsuperscript{39} Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 108-110.
Hollingshead identifies the characteristics that a problem should possess as follows:

A "problem" must possess the following characteristics, if it is to be a real problem to our pupils. It must constitute an obstacle to the child's progress; it must create a desire to know or to do. Its solution must be of intrinsic value to the child. It must contribute to his growth in the direction of his interests and experiences. It must be within the range of the child's ability to solve.\(^0\)

Problems which contain these characteristics do not readily divide themselves into logically organized bodies of subject matter.\(^1\) But the end sought by teacher-pupil planning is not the learning of fixed quotas of subject matter but is, rather, the learning of techniques for democratic action by practicing those techniques in the solution of group problems.\(^2\) Organized subject matter becomes a means used in arriving at the solution of problems,\(^3\) but the solution of one problem may well necessitate drawing on many organized subject matter areas.

\(^0\)Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 108-10.

\(^1\)Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., p. 302; Don Randall, "Teacher-Pupil Planning for the Guidance and General Education Activities of the Ninth Grade at the Wayne High School," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, New York University, New York, 1949), p. 34.


\(^3\)H. H. Giles, "What Group Planning Means," 1945 Yearbook, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, 1945, p. 149; Giles, McCutchen, and Zechiel, op. cit., pp. 151-54.
As would be expected, since teacher-pupil planning is an attempt to translate democracy into the life of the school, this method conceives that the group will solve its common problems by the use of the method of intelligence. Of this Alberty says:

... Democracy involves the making of individual and group decisions upon the basis of the method of intelligence as opposed to the blind acceptance of conclusions imposed by others. This process involves the solution of problems by formulating hypotheses, examining all available data, the reaching of conclusions upon the basis of the data, and action upon the decisions that are reached. It is only when this same method is applied to the life of the school that teacher-student planning is successful.

That the problem approach demands that students have a part in selecting the problems, that problems of the sort referred to here cannot be assigned, that teachers cannot rely on "canned problems," that these problems do not readily divide themselves into logically organized bodies of subject matter, that these problems are to be solved by the use of the method of intelligence are elements of the teacher-pupil-planning concept which point to a broad unit approach rather than to the traditional day-to-day assignment of fixed quotas of subject matter.

The Responsibility Cannot Be Shifted Completely to the Student in the Learning Situation

It should not be inferred from what has been said above, concerning giving students choices and responsibilities in all phases of

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44 Supra, pp. 30-33.

the learning process, that the students do just as they wish or that the school and the teacher have no responsibilities for directing the students in the learning situation. In the early days of the progressive movement in reaction to the autocracy of traditional classrooms, some schools and teachers went to the extreme of letting students do whatever they wanted to do. This method of conducting learning situations could properly be called pupil planning and is not the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning. As a matter of fact, Giles suggests that a reason for putting the word "teacher" first in the term "teacher-pupil planning" is to avoid misconceptions as to the key role of the teacher in this method of operating with students.

Many of the reasons as to why the responsibility cannot be shifted completely to the student in the learning situation have already been implied in the preceding chapters. The responsibility of the schools for the perpetuation and improvement of a democratic society is not something which can be left to chance. If the school were to leave this responsibility to chance, then only by chance would the school retain the support of society. And the chances are very slight that

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\[47\] Ibid., pp. 337-38, 343-44.


\[49\] Supra, pp. 34-37.

\[50\] Supra, pp. 33-34.
undirected experiences in the school could lead to the development of the characteristics and skills necessary for democratic living, for these characteristics and skills are not the natural result of individuals associating together but are, rather, achieved in social environments which have been planned so as to achieve this development. That there are certain inherent difficulties in democracy's perpetuating and improving itself, that democratic living has to be learned, that democratic living is difficult to learn, that developing skills in democratic living is a gradual process extending over a period of years, and that experiences in democratic living must permeate all phases of the curriculum are all reasons why the responsibility cannot be shifted completely to the student in the learning situation.

An additional reason as to why the responsibility cannot be shifted completely to the student in the learning situation is that students do not always recognize their needs nor are they always the best judges of their interests. Students need mature guidance if their needs are to be adequately met and their interests sufficiently

51 Supra, p. 53.
52 Supra, pp. 42.
53 Supra, pp. 16-20.
54 Supra, pp. 51-52.
55 Supra, p. 53.
56 Supra, p. 53.
57 Supra, p. 52.
broadened. Thus, although teacher-pupil planning must give adequate attention to the expressed interests and problems of students, the work of the classroom cannot be limited to these immediate interests and problems. If this were done, students would suffer from lack of motivation and from lack of opportunity to discover new interests and problems. Students readily recognize that mature guidance is a necessary part of their education.

Thus, although teacher-pupil planning aims to provide cooperative experiences for students in all phases of the learning situation, it does not conceive a learning situation in which the students necessarily do just as they wish to do. In a sense, teacher-pupil planning is striving for a desirable middle ground somewhere in between no control over the students and autocratic control. This is not to infer that the democratic group achieves this desirable middle ground by absorbing certain features of the laissez-faire group and certain features of the autocratic group, for the democratic group is something entirely


different from either the laissez-faire or the autocratic group. As will be discussed more fully below, the degree of control which a teacher must exert in a learning situation will depend on the background of a particular group. If a group has had experiences which have developed skills and traits necessary for democratic living, then much more freedom from control can be given. If, on the other hand, a group has had no experience, only a limited amount of freedom may be possible. As has been pointed out, freedom from external control is achieved by individuals as they develop abilities to control themselves in harmony with the best interests of the group. Until these abilities for self-control have been achieved by students, more external control will be necessary from the teacher.

Pre-Planning Must Be Done by the School and the Teacher

Since the students cannot be permitted to do just as they wish to do in the learning situation, some sort of pre-planning is indicated on the part of the school and the teacher.

The school must devise a curriculum structure which will insure a breadth of experience for students. The nature of the pre-planning needed by the school is in the establishment of a curriculum structure

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63 *Infra*, pp. 95-100.

64 *Supra*, pp. 26-27.
which would insure a breadth of experience for students and yet would not be so constructed as to preclude the opportunity for students to participate in the teacher-pupil-planning process. An example of what a school might do is indicated by Alberty when he says:

... Problem areas or broad comprehensive units which give promise of providing richness of experience in personal and community living may be set up without violating the creative process. ... For example, the school may decide that students at a certain level require experiences related to the life of the community. The scope and precise nature of these experiences may well be left to teacher-student planning.65

The curriculum structure should, of course, be founded on a philosophy which has been developed cooperatively by the faculty of the school, parents and interested community members, and students.

The teacher must do pre-planning for the classroom situation. If teacher-pupil planning is to operate productively, the teacher must do some pre-planning for the classroom situation above and beyond the planning done by the school in determining the general structure of the curriculum.66 The purpose of teacher pre-planning for the classroom


situation is not to settle in advance what is going to take place in the classroom, but rather, to anticipate the opportunities and needs that may arise in the classroom so as to achieve a higher quality of work when planning and working with students.67

Some of the things that might be considered by the teacher in pre-planning for the classroom situation are: previous school experiences of the students who will make up the group;68 probable extent to which the particular group will be able to participate in teacher-pupil planning;69 probable needs, interests, and goals of the students;70 possible sequence between previous classroom situations and the anticipated one;71 means for securing and improving student participation in all phases of a unit of work—determination of purposes, topics, methods, materials, formulation and presentation of results, and evaluation and new planning;72 ways to care more adequately for individual and group


71McSwain, op. cit., 11-12.

needs; ways in which difficulties which may be encountered by students can be met; ways in which a unit of work can contribute to the curriculum requirements; appropriate materials, references, and activities for the anticipated situation; selection of materials and activities that may stimulate new interests; and possible procedures that may motivate reflective discussion and thinking.73

In such pre-planning for the classroom situation, it is helpful if the teacher can have the assistance of other teachers. Giles terms such pre-planning "teacher-teacher planning" and of the importance of such planning says:

... One of the great new developments in education is the realization that a teacher cannot make the best kind of plan alone.

Some of the reasons teachers have discovered for this should be mentioned. In making an approach to education based on life problems they find need for a variety of points of view and experience in different fields of learning. They find a need for composite opinion regarding social and individual problems of a particular group of students. There is need to consider the whole experience of the school today and the relation of one teacher's part in it to the others. There is need for the help and security given when a number of people understand and help to solve problems. . . .

Finally, there is a powerful reason for teacher-teacher planning in the fact that the need for help and for security is felt with particular keenness by any teacher who is departing from the more dictatorial methods of class assignment and trying to develop student thinking about basic problems.74

The device for helping teachers in this pre-planning process to bridge the gap between a broadly structured curriculum and the classroom

73 McSwain, op. cit., pp. 11-12.
situation is the resource unit which is a comprehensive survey of the possible problems, issues, activities, teaching aids, etc., that a teacher might use in cooperatively planning units of work with students.

The teacher who has done pre-planning of the sort described here will be able to proceed with much more confidence and skill in stimulating and guiding the participation of students in the learning situation. Pre-planning for the task of getting students to work cooperatively together with the teacher in identifying and acting upon common interests, purposes, and problems is more difficult and time-consuming than the pre-planning normally required for a classroom situation which is dominated completely by the teacher.

Group Process Concepts Throw Light on How Teacher-Pupil Planning Can Be Most Effective

The responsibility of the teacher in teacher-pupil planning is not, of course, limited to pre-planning functions. The teacher has a crucial role to play in the classroom situation. When the classroom situation is conceived as being a place where students attack common problems which they have had a part in selecting, then the way the group members interact and learn by this interaction becomes a part

75 McSwain, op. cit., pp. 11-12; H. H. Giles, Teacher-Pupil Planning (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1941), pp. 81-82.
of the method of teaching and learning. The procedures by which groups can effectively attack and solve common problems are commonly identified by workers in the field of group dynamics by the term "group process." This term is defined by Alberty as:

... the ends-means procedures developed by a group unified by interdependency of behavior and by the identification of the members of the group in attacking a common problem.

The developing concepts of group process throw light on what the teacher-pupil-planning classroom might be like and the teacher's place in it.

The teacher has a crucial role to play in the classroom situation. The term "status leader" is used to identify the teacher by group-process concepts. The nature of this role has evolved from a concept of leadership which "refused to make clear-cut divisions between leaders and followers but which regards all people as having potentialities for leadership if the conditions for functioning are maintained." Some of the things involved in the role of the status leader will now be considered.

The role of the status leader is often described as being one

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79 Ibid.

80 Ibid., pp. 71-73.
of guidance. That is, in order not to destroy the cooperative nature of the group, the status leader serves as a guide and an adviser rather than as a master, for as Stiles and Dorsey point out:

... Teaching that is merely a process of "giving to" or "directing" permits little opportunity for the development of effective democratic relationships between the teacher and the student.⁸³

The status leader guides the group from a position of active membership in the group.⁸⁴ The status leader becomes an active member of the group as he joins with the group in working toward the realization of their common objectives.⁸⁵ However, it should not be inferred that the status leader becomes lost in the group, for he is the most important

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⁸³ Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 303-4.


⁸⁵ Hollingshead, op. cit., p. 124.
element in creating a classroom atmosphere in which student growth and development can take place. 86 One very important difference in the teacher's membership in the group as compared with the membership of a student is that the student's membership implies the contribution of his best efforts to the achievement of the problem on which the group is working, whereas the teacher's membership implies the guidance of the students in the development of attitudes and abilities essential to solving their problems. In other words, the teacher's function is not one of giving answers to the problems under study but, rather, is to guide students in recognizing and solving their problems themselves. 87

The teacher's function, then, becomes one of protecting the process by which the group arrives at the solution of its problems, and solutions so arrived at must be accepted as the best solutions, even though the status leader does not agree with the judgment of the group. 88

Some of the specific things a status leader might do will now be mentioned. The status leader studies the individual needs, problems, strengths, and weaknesses of each member of the group so that he may better know how to help plan classroom experiences which will provide for the individual needs. 89 He studies the general composition or climate

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87 Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 40-41, 124.


89 Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 89-90, 194-95; H. H. Giles,
of the group so that he may determine forces which will influence group behavior. 90

The status leader helps the group to identify its common problems and aids the group in its cooperative planning and working in the solution of the group problems. 91 Aiding students to discover their common problems is not, of course, easy. However, the status leader through such things as observation of individual and group behavior, analysis of group discussions, and discovery of individual student problems may well be provided clues which will enable him to aid the students in the identification of problems which are common to the group. 92 The status leader will give his vigorous support to student-proposed problems and plans which he feels will be especially worth while for the particular group. 93 As a member of the group he, of course, has the same right


92 Cunningham, op. cit., pp. 105-6.

to propose problems and plans for consideration as any other member and
will propose problems and plans that have been overlooked by the stu-
dents which he feels should receive consideration. The teacher is better
qualified than any other member of the group to propose problems and
plans, for not only is he better qualified from the standpoint of matur-
ity, training, and experience, but he will have thoroughly thought
through what he considers to be the needs of the group as a part of the
pre-planning process discussed above. This is not to infer that the
teacher's job is one of slyly leading the students to do what he wanted
them to do all the time. If democracy is to be practiced in the
school, these choices by students must be genuine ones, for imposition
of problems and plans by the teacher will immediately destroy the demo-
cratic elements of the group and will result in passive submission rather
than active participation and thinking. The status leader must be
willing to share his plans with the students in the same spirit that he
is asking the students to express their desires and plans. His plans

94 Supra, pp. 73-76.


97 McSwain, op. cit., pp. 15-16.
and contributions are to be evaluated reflectively just as the plans and contributions of other members of the group. The group after reflective discussion may decide to adopt the basic ideas of the teacher's plan, not because it is the teacher's plan, but rather because they see the meaning and value of the plan. Since students are frequently too willing to accept suggestions made by a teacher, the status leader will often have to encourage students to appraise the teacher's proposed plans for action alongside of student proposed plans of action. The final plan of the group should be the result of the decision of the group after careful consideration of the probable outcomes; and if the determination of group problems and plans has been genuinely cooperative, the final product will be different in some or in all respects from what the teacher or the students had conceived at the beginning of the discussion.

In aiding the group in its cooperative planning and working in the solution of identified group problems, the status leader has many responsibilities. He aids the group in providing for appropriate

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physical conditions for effective work. He helps the group in providing any structuring or group organization that is needed in order that the group may effectively progress toward their objectives. He helps the group discover and develop its own leadership. He helps the group to discover and utilize the special abilities of members of the group. He serves as a resource and guide to learning materials.

He aids students in getting expert help from teachers other than himself and from sources outside the school. He points out possibilities for attacking problems that are overlooked by students. He calls attention to resources which students are neglecting.

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103 Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 89-90.


105 Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 317-18; M. O. Koopman, "The Implications for Teacher Education of the Autocratic and Democratic Roles of Teachers," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1945), pp. 120-22.


107 Ibid., pp. 76-77.
limitations, pitfalls, and handicaps that students do not see for themselves. When controversial issues are being considered, he expresses his opinion, but he sees to it that the students are exposed to the opinion of other experts who have differing opinions. He aids students in the analysis of facts and protects the students from drawing conclusions on the basis of incomplete data. He helps students in drawing conclusions from data, but he does not impose his personal conclusions upon the students; although, if both the teacher and students are thinking logically, they will arrive at similar conclusions. He helps the students to understand that the process by which they are solving their common problems is the essence of democratic living by periodically pointing out how the procedures used by the class are applied to the solution of community and national problems. He is continually striving to help the group broaden its interests and improve its skills in cooperatively working together. He guides the group to

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111 Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 82-83; Harold Alberty, Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum (New York: The Macmillan Company,
continuously evaluate the effectiveness of its plans and actions in terms of the objectives which the group has set for itself.\textsuperscript{112}

Consideration has been given to the function assigned to the status leader by group-process concepts. Consideration will now be given to other group-process concepts which throw light upon what the teacher-pupil-planning classroom might be like if it is operating most effectively.

The group should possess a strong feeling of group consciousness. The group should possess a strong feeling of group consciousness—a "we" rather than an "I" attitude toward the activities of the class.\textsuperscript{113} Group consciousness implies a recognition by individuals in the group of the problems and interests which they have in common with their associates and a recognition that these common problems and interests can best be explored through the united efforts of the group.\textsuperscript{114} From the standpoint

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\textsuperscript{112}Walter A. Anderson, "We Learn to Plan by Planning," 1945 Yearbook, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, 1945, pp. 98-99; Stiles and Dorsey, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 235-36, 317-18.


of the individual, group consciousness means that he has a strong feeling of membership in the group, which implies a willingness to contribute his best efforts to group activities.  

All members of the group should contribute and feel responsible for the activities of the group. In an effectively operating group, the members of the group contribute and feel responsible for the activities of the group. The willingness on the part of the individual to contribute his best efforts to group activities stems in part from a recognition on the part of the individual that he has interests and problems in common with other individuals of the group and in part from the fact that he is given responsibilities in planning and working on the activities of the group. It is important that all members of the group participate in the activities of the class, for the individual's feeling of belongingness and security are dependent on his being able to aid the group in attaining its objectives.

115 Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 111-112.


The varied interests and abilities of the members of the group should be discovered and utilized. The utilization of the varied interests and abilities of the members of the group will enhance its effectiveness. Because individuals differ widely in interests and abilities, it is only as these are discovered and utilized that it is possible for all members of the group to participate in the class activities. The establishment of smaller groups or committees within the larger class group can frequently increase the effectiveness of utilizing the varied interests and abilities of members of the group.

There should be respect for the personality and contribution of each group member. There is a respect for the personality and contribution of each group member in the effectively operating group. That is, each group member recognizes that the other group members have the

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same rights and privileges as he does, and each group member judges the
worth of the contribution of other group members in terms of their
special abilities to forward the work of the group. 120

The group should not rely on "majority rule." The group should
not rely on "majority rule," but rather, it should seek to achieve uni-
versal understanding and agreement. 121 If the personality and contri-
bution of each group member are to be respected, differences among
individuals or minority elements in the group must be considered and
utilized in drawing up final plans. 122 This is not to say that where
two incompatible ideas are being supported that a compromise must evolve
which may contain the weakest features of both of the ideas. Rather, the
conflicting ideas should be utilized as a means of obtaining refinements

120 Hollingshead, op. cit., p. 42; Lindley J. Stiles and
Mattie F. Dorsey, Democratic Teaching in Secondary Schools (Chicago:
Comparison of Pupil-Teacher Planning and Teacher-Directed Procedures
in Eighth Grade Social Studies Classes," (unpublished Doctor's disserta-
tion, University of Chicago, Chicago, 1948), p. 17.

121 Howard A. Lane, "Education for Social Intelligence," 1945
Yearbook, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of
the National Education Association, 1945, pp. 4-5; H. H. Giles,
Teacher-Pupil Planning (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1941), pp. 73-
74, 79.

122 Howard A. Lane, "Education for Social Intelligence," 1945
Yearbook, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of
the National Education Association, 1945, pp. 4-5; Harold B. Albery,
"Some Principles of Democratic Association," Tenth Yearbook of the
John Dewey Society, 1950, pp. 68-69; Kenneth Joseph Rehage, "A
Comparison of Pupil-Teacher Planning and Teacher-Directed Procedures in
Eighth Grade Social Studies Classes," (unpublished Doctor's disserta-
tion, University of Chicago, Chicago, 1948), p. 17.
or desirable modifications of contemplated group action. Of the importance of this concept to democracy Alberty says:

Democracy cherishes differences among men. Rather than ruthlessly crushing out these differences, it utilizes them as data to be weighted in reaching a decision.

The testimony of The University School of The Ohio State University is also interesting in this connection:

Group choice often reveals a minority who favor another unit or project. The inclusion of the minority's ideas in the final plan is usually possible and may improve and enrich the group choice. In one case a majority chose to study the local community, while a minority expressed strong interest in plants and animals. The minority interest was included in the general study and led to a much broader and better-balanced study of the community.

That the ideas of individuals or minorities should be respected and utilized assumes, of course, that the individuals or minorities are expressing differences of opinion for the purpose of improving the work of the group rather than to obstruct action on the part of the group. Where antisocial behavior on the part of individuals or groups is obstructing the work of the group, disciplinary action of some kind becomes necessary. Ideally, the group itself should take such action as seems necessary to remove the obstruction to its work, but in some cases it

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may be necessary for the status leader to fulfill his responsibility of protecting the process by which the group is working by taking appropriate action to remove the obstructing elements.\textsuperscript{126}

Leadership should be shared by various members of the group. In an effectively operating group, leadership is shared by various members of the group.\textsuperscript{127} Leadership is shared by the various members of the group as they assume responsibilities for aspects of problems in terms of their special interests and strengths.\textsuperscript{128} Kilpatrick illustrates this as follows:

... Many seem to think of leadership as if it were only or primarily fixed in advance, either by appointment or election or by special ability and preparation. On this basis, those proceed to divide people into two fixed groups, leaders and followers. Such a view seems inadequate, quite denied by observable facts. Actual leadership as we see it comes mostly by emergence out of a social situation. A number of people talk freely about a matter of common concern. "A" proposes a plan of action. "B" successfully voices objection and criticism. "C" then proposes a modified plan. "D", "E," and "F" criticize certain features of the plan. The group at this point divides, seemingly unable to agree. "G"


then comes forward with a new plan that combines the desired features and avoids the evils feared. The group agrees. Here "A," "B," "C," "D," "E," "F," and "G" were successively leaders of the group, and each such act of leadership emerged out of the situation as it then appeared. This is democratic leadership and its success depends on—may exactly is—an on-going process of education inherent in the situation. 129

A means of evaluation should be sought which is compatible with democratic outcomes. The effectively operating group requires means of evaluation which are compatible with the democratic outcomes sought. 130

The importance of the effect of the kind of evaluation used on the nature of the learning situation is described by Stiles and Dorsey as follows:

Our concept of evaluation, the purpose for which we use it, and the evaluative techniques that we employ influence the quality of our teaching. Experienced teachers have long recognized that outcomes that are known to be commonly emphasized in evaluation define largely what will be taught. This is the basis for the expression, "We teach what we test; we test what we teach." It is impractical to attempt to teach for democratic outcomes, for example, while employing means of evaluation that are characteristically autocratic. One cannot teach to promote appreciation while using evaluative devices that stress the memorization of facts. 131

The type of evaluation demanded by group process is a continuous examination by the group of the plans and work of the group in terms of the progress which the group has made toward the goals toward which the group is working. 132 Evaluation so conceived is considered to be a part

132 Giles, McCutchen, and Zechiel, op. cit., pp. 151-54; H. H.
of the whole process of learning and to be useful only as it contributes to the improvement of learning.\textsuperscript{133} The reason for and nature of this evaluation is described as follows by Hollingshead:

Growth demands that experiences in problem-solving be evaluated in order that: (a) judgments be made as to the degree to which the objectives have been attained, (b) reasons for failures and successes be determined so that the failures may be remedied and the successes capitalized upon, (c) meaning be deducted that will serve as a basis for a more intelligent control of future development. Evaluation demands answers to such questions as: "Wherein have we failed to reach our objectives?" "Why have we failed?" "What must we do in order to succeed?" "How can we make the needed changes?" "Wherein have we succeeded?" "Why have we succeeded?" "What have we gained that will aid us in solving problems in the future?"\textsuperscript{134}

If this continuous evaluation by the group of its plans and work is to be meaningful, the plans of the group must, of course, be considered to be tentative ones which are subject to change in the light of new experiences or new data.\textsuperscript{135} Giles points out some of the situations that may arise which will make it necessary for the group to revise its plans:

... Naturally objectives for the individual student or a group should be altered when there is insufficient material; when

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{133} H. H. Giles, \textit{Teacher-Pupil Planning} (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1941), pp. 108-9; Lane, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 8.
\end{itemize}
the student is not competent; when the teacher cannot give enough time; or when the home or community situation has changed so as to shed new light upon what is worth doing.136

The effectiveness of group process is dependent on the climate of the group. Groups possess a certain tone, climate, or personality which is not explainable in terms of analyzing individually the membership of the group.137 Of this Cunningham says:

Teachers have always known that boys and girls in a classroom form something more than an aggregation of individuals. Here is a clear case of the whole being more than the sum of the parts, or at any rate, the whole being something different from a mere sum. We hear teachers speak of "difficult" groups and "good" groups, even though the individuals seem equally well placed in the two groups, or there are no more "problem" pupils in one group than in the other. There is probably no teacher with a few years of experience who cannot recall some group in which the general "tone" was unusually fine, or some group with which everything seemed to go wrong and in which everyone seemed to get on the nerves of everyone else.138

The effectiveness of group process is dependent on the climate of the group attempting to use group process. In general, an atmosphere of friendliness and cooperativeness characterizes the climate of the classroom where group process can be most effective.139 This atmosphere of friendliness and cooperativeness is a composite of the elements


138 Cunningham, op. cit., p. 3.

which have been discussed as being requisites for an effective use of 
group process. In groups where such an atmosphere does not exist, the 
quickest way to effect a change is through a change in the method of 
leadership; for the status leader or the leading element in the group 
holds the key to the organization and climate of the group.140

II. LIMITATIONS TO OPTIMAL UTILIZATION OF TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING

The above discussion has attempted to identify the basic ideas 
running through the concept of teacher-pupil planning. In the main, 
this discussion has reflected the ideal toward which a group which 
desires to work together democratically might work. However, optimal 
utilization of the teacher-pupil planning method cannot be achieved 
except through rigorous and time-consuming efforts, and certain limita-
tions inherent in the group or in the situation in which the group finds 
itsel itself may make optimal utilization impossible.

Lack of Skills in Students

At the beginning of this discussion, the fundamental concept of 
teacher-pupil planning was identified as being to provide genuinely 
cooperative experiences in all phases of the learning situation.141

Where a group of students have only experienced classroom situations 
which have been dominated by the teacher, it is obvious that an optimal

140 Kenneth D. Benne, and Bozidar Muntyan, Human Relations in 
141 Supra, p. 61.
shift of responsibilities cannot be made to the students all at once, for the students would not possess the attitudes and skills of effective group thinking and acting. That such a shift of responsibility to the student in the learning situation cannot be made all at once has been implied by statements to the effect that democratic traits and skills are not inherited by individuals but are acquired as the result of interaction with the social environment, that democratic traits and skills are not the natural result of individuals associating together but are developed in social environments which have been planned so as to achieve this development, that the task of the school is to develop social environments in accordance with the particular developmental stage of the group in question, that the process of becoming democratic is a difficult process and a gradual process of change which takes place over a period of years, and that freedom from external control is achieved by individuals as they develop abilities to control themselves in harmony with the best interests of the group.

The teacher must start at the level on which the group can think

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1\(^2\) Supra, p. 41.

1\(^3\) Supra, p. 53.

1\(^4\) Supra, pp. 42-43.

1\(^5\) Supra, p. 53.

1\(^6\) Supra, pp. 26-27.
and work cooperatively and aid the group to assume greater responsibilities. Since the responsibility in the learning situation cannot be shifted to students all at once, the teacher must start at the level on which the group can think and work cooperatively and help the group to develop so that it will be able to assume greater and greater responsibilities. Where the teacher has had no previous experience with a group, he must make some estimate of the ability of the group to plan and work together cooperatively.

Students who have had no experiences in self-direction and who have become accustomed to teacher domination and direction will not have the necessary skills of cooperatively planning and working together as a group and will feel confused and insecure when the first opportunities in cooperative planning and working are given to them. Some autocratic teachers defend their methods of teaching in terms of the lack of skills which students have to assume responsibilities in the learning

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150 Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 304-5; Ibid.
situation. They contend that it is impossible to shift responsibilities to the students because the students have neither the ability nor the willingness to accept those responsibilities. Thus, a vicious circle is created which perpetuates autocratic methods—the reason students do not have the skills needed to plan and work together cooperatively is because of their subjugation under autocratic methods, and this lack of skills is then used to defend the necessity of using autocratic methods. 151 This circle cannot be broken except as students are exposed to democratic methods of teaching.

In cases where students have had little or no experience in assuming responsibilities in the learning situation, the teacher should begin by giving the students limited choices. 152 Giles has the following to say as to how this start might be made:

... A teacher may propose a unit of work in which the general purposes, the plan of the unit itself, and the materials have all been selected by the teacher. Having assigned the unit, however, the teacher can draw out suggestions from any class for improvements and changes. As classes show the ability to make intelligent decisions, greater and greater freedom can be given to them and they can extend, for instance, from planning how to work and selecting materials to determining the purposes and the units. With groups which are very difficult, most teachers will find it necessary to allow comparatively small amounts of choice. What is essential is to convince students that the teacher knows what he is doing and believes in the students' ability to think for themselves. 153


In this connection Alberty suggests:

. . . Perhaps all that could be expected in a group unaccustomed
to cooperative planning, and hence unskilled in its technique,
would be to plan an occasional trip, or special class activity.
From these simple beginnings, planning might be gradually extended
to include supplementary projects of various sorts, and finally to
the actual selection and planning of a unit of work. 154

These beginning experiences in cooperative working and planning
can be given early in the school experiences of children. 155 Of this
Oldendorf says:

. . . When are children ready for such group planning? The first
group life that a child experiences should be so planned that he
makes suggestions and decisions and assumes responsibilities.
Kindergarten teachers have long found it worth while to plan with
children a large portion of the activities they experience. 156

As students develop skills in cooperative planning and working,
less and less direction is needed from the teacher. As has been pointed
out, it is the obligation of the teacher to help students to assume
greater and greater responsibilities in the learning situation. 157 As
students develop skills in cooperative planning and working, less and
less direction or control on the part of the teacher will be necessary.

154 Harold Alberty, Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum (New
155 Helen Hall Jennings, Sociometry in Group Relations (Washington
D. C.: American Council on Education, 1945), p. 7; Stiles and Dorsey,
op. cit., pp. 3-5, 304-5.
156 Dorothy Oldendorf, "Planning at Different Levels of Growth,"
1945 Yearbook, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of
the National Education Association, 1945, p. 26.
157 Supra, pp. 95-96.
In relation to the amount of control necessary on the part of the teacher, Hollingshead suggests:

... As a general principle, we would suggest that the amount of teacher direction must vary inversely with the pupils' ability to direct themselves.\(^{158}\)

In working with a group that has had little or no experience in assuming responsibilities in the learning situation, the teacher may find that his initial estimate of the ability of the students to work cooperatively and plan together was incorrect and that he started on too advanced a level. It is the responsibility of the teacher to insure that cooperative planning and working is intelligent and educative; and if the planning and working breaks down into conflict and aimless wandering, steps must be taken to remedy the situation. If the group cannot re-establish itself as a constructive and effective working organization, it may be necessary for the teacher to assume arbitrary control. Where it is necessary for the teacher to resort to arbitrary control, it is likely that he has misjudged the level of the ability of the group to work together cooperatively, and it will be necessary to start again at a lower level.\(^{159}\) The assumption of autocratic control is replete with danger and should be a method of last resort and not a method to be used whenever students make mistakes. Of this Hollingshead says:


Must give the class the opportunity of profiting from their mistakes. Our experience indicates that this is a most difficult thing for a teacher to do. When mistakes occur, her first impulse is to assume full control of the situation, censure the offending pupils, and set up procedures which they must follow in the future. In extreme instances this control of the situation may be necessary, but in so doing she should realize the consequence of such procedure. (a) It tends to relieve the class of all responsibility of correcting their own mistakes and throws the full responsibility upon the teacher. (b) It robs the pupils of valuable experiences to be gained from evaluating the situation and determining the reasons for their failure and ways of remedying them. (c) It destroys their confidence in their ability to solve their problems. If she does assume control, it should be for the purpose of calling their attention to their failure, but, insofar as possible, the responsibility for correcting the mistake should be left with the class. If she is to give her class the opportunity of actually solving their problems, she must do it honestly and consistently.

Where assumption of autocratic control has been necessary, the teacher should immediately search for ways to reestablish shared participation by the members of the group.

Teacher must actively influence the group to come to appreciate the values of democratically planning and working together. The principle of Hollingshead's mentioned above, that the amount of teacher direction must vary inversely with the pupils' ability to direct themselves, would seem to indicate almost complete control by the teacher where students have limited or no skills in democratic planning. It does seem that where students have limited or no skills, the teacher must be in power and must use that power to actively influence the group to come to see what democratic responsibility toward the group as a whole

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161 Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 319-20.
means. While it is true that people cannot be trained for democratic living by autocratic methods, it is also true that to change the atmosphere of a group from an autocratic to a democratic atmosphere, the status leader must be in power and use that power for active re-education. Democracy's belief in the use of the method of intelligence is, of course, the antithesis of indoctrination. To suggest that the teacher must, in groups that have little or no skill in democratic planning and working, be in power and use that power to actively influence the group to come to see the values of democratic planning and working may seem paradoxical in terms of democracy's abhorrence of indoctrination. If, however, it is possible to indoctrinate a system which itself is opposed to indoctrination, then this is a function of the teacher trying to translate democracy into the life of the school by means of teacher-pupil planning.

The development of democratic skills is a slow, gradual process. The assumption of more and more responsibility on the part of the students and the corresponding decrease in the direction and control given by the teacher is a slow, gradual process of change which takes place over a considerable length of time. Of this Hollingshead says:

... We cannot hope to develop a mastery of any of the objectives in the elementary school. We can only hope that the secondary schools and colleges will provide opportunities for continuing this development, and that eventually we shall have a society in this country that encourages the development of these democratic attitudes and abilities.164

Lack of Skills in Teachers

It is helpful for the teacher and the group attempting to use teacher-pupil planning to recognize that certain limitations may exist in addition to lack of skill on the part of the students which will prevent optimal utilization of teacher-pupil planning. One such limitation may be a lack of understanding and skill on the part of the teacher.165 Such a lack of understanding and skill on the part of the teacher may result in pupil confusion and undesirable learnings in the attempted use of teacher-pupil planning.166 Teachers who are conscious of a lack of understanding and skill in teacher-pupil planning processes should move slowly in the effort to shift responsibilities to the students in the learning situation.167

164 Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 30-33.


Institutional Rules, Regulations, and Procedures

Institutional rules, regulations, procedures, educational philosophy, etc., may place limitations on the optimal utilization of teacher-pupil planning. Stiles and Dorsey identify some of the limitations of this sort as follows:

a. Definite Area of Study. If students are enrolled in a course in chemistry, they are limited by the subject area in which they are supposed to be studying. They would not be expected, for example to decide that since they are more in need of experiences in psychology they will drop the study of chemistry and make the class one in psychology. Within the limitations, however, they could discover ways of utilizing psychology in their shared experiences.

b. Limitation of a Time Schedule. Most secondary schools follow definite time schedules. Classes meet for forty-five or sixty minutes daily, for a semester or a year. Although modifications are possible for short periods of time, as for example when a class arrange to spend an entire day or week on a field trip, single groups within a school are limited by the time schedule followed by the entire school.

c. Availability of Materials. It would be unwise for a group to undertake the study of a particular unit for which the available materials were too inadequate to provide satisfactory resources.

d. Necessity of Conforming to School Regulations. Existing rules or policies that relate to such procedures as the assignment of marks, administration of examinations, selection of textbooks, or the reporting of progress represent, in many cases a type of limitation.

e. Philosophy of the School. Fixed educational attitudes and beliefs of parents, board members, and teachers may become a limitation.168

Factors over Which the School Has No Control

The Tulsa High Schools point out some factors over which the

168 Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 316-17.
school has no control which may place limitations on the optimal utilization of teacher-pupil planning:

... Several factors over which teachers in this system have no control, and to which they must adjust the practice, lower efficiency and often create a feeling of futility when they noticeably limit results. They are: class population consistently over forty; classrooms built to house small groups in a rigid set-up of anchored desks row on row; crowded schedules which prevent cooperative assistance in specialized areas such as foods, etc.; textbooks constructed on the old psychological basis and presenting vocabulary and content difficulties for independent student research.169

Certain Areas of Learning May Not Adapt Themselves as Readily as Others to Teacher-Pupil Planning

A final limitation on the optimal usage of teacher-pupil planning that will be mentioned here is that certain areas of learning may not adapt themselves as readily as others to pupil participation in cooperatively planning and working on their learning activities. In this connection the report of The University School of The Ohio State University is interesting:

... The form and extent of this participation vary widely with the area. Learning a foreign language, for example, has aspects which limit the field of choice more rigidly than does the study of one's own tongue. But even in learning a skill, such as typing, there is an area in which student and teacher may jointly formulate the plans under which the student works.170

III. TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING DIFFICULT FOR BOTH TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

170 Ibid., p. 725.
Before leaving this discussion of teacher-pupil planning, it should be noted that this way of operating is very difficult for both the teacher and the students. It is much easier for students to do what the teacher tells them to do than it is for them to make choices and assume responsibilities for the choices made. It is much easier for the teacher to pass on to students the dictates of a course of study or a textbook writer than it is to serve as a guide and an adviser in a problem-solving situation. In this connection, the 1938 Class of The University School of The Ohio State University observed:

... This method was difficult for us at first because we had always been told just what to do and when to do it. We were rather bewildered as to what the future held for us.

We know that it is much simpler, for both students and faculty, to have an autocratic system of teaching.

IV. SUMMARY

If democracy is to be practiced in the school, students must have


172 Class of 1938, University High School, The Ohio State University, Were We Guinea Pigs? (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1938), pp. 24-25.

173 Ibid., p. 296.
the experience of cooperatively planning and carrying out their learning activities with their teachers. "Teacher-pupil planning" is the term used in this study to identify the process by which the school can develop people capable of successful participation in a democracy.

There are identifiable basic ideas running through the concept of teacher-pupil planning which sharply distinguish it from the so-called traditional ways of conducting learning activities. The fundamental concept of teacher-pupil planning is that it provides genuinely cooperative experience in all phases of the learning situation. That is, all people in the learning situation share in determining purposes, topics, methods, materials, formulation and presentation of results, and evaluation and new planning.

If students are to participate cooperatively in all phases of the learning situation, it must deal with the common interests, problems, and purposes of the students. Students can cooperatively participate in a group only as the group is bound together by common interests, problems, and purposes. Teacher-pupil planning conceives that democratic living will be achieved through group efforts to solve problems which are common to the group.

Giving students choices and responsibilities in all phases of the learning situation does not mean that students do just as they wish or that the school and teacher have no responsibilities for directing students in the learning situation. The school must establish a curriculum structure which will insure a breadth of experience for students without precluding the opportunity for students to participate in the
teacher-pupil planning process. The teacher must do pre-planning for the classroom situation above and beyond the planning done by the school in determining the general structure of the curriculum.

The developing concepts of group process throw light on the role of the teacher in teacher-pupil planning. The teacher has a crucial role to play which is often described as being one of guidance. That is, in order not to destroy the cooperative nature of the group, the teacher serves as a guide and an adviser rather than as a master.

Other group process concepts reveal what the classroom might be like if it is operating most effectively. The group possesses a strong feeling of group consciousness. The members of the group contribute and feel responsible for the activities of the group. The varied interests and abilities of the members of the group are utilized. There is a respect for the personality and contribution of each group member. The group does not rely on "majority rule," but seeks to achieve universal understanding and agreement. Leadership is shared by various members of the group. The group utilizes means of evaluation which are compatible with the democratic outcomes sought. An atmosphere of friendliness and cooperativeness characterizes the climate of the group.

Certain limitations inherent in the group or in the situation in which the group finds itself may make optimal utilization of teacher-pupil planning impossible. One such limitation is the lack of skill in students. Where a group of students have only experienced classroom situations which have been dominated by the teacher, an optimal shift of responsibilities cannot be made to the students all at once. The teacher
must start at the level on which the group can think and work cooperatively and help the group to develop so that it will be able to assume greater and greater responsibilities. As students develop skills in cooperative planning and working, less and less direction or control on the part of the teacher will be necessary. The assumption of more and more responsibility on the part of the students and the corresponding decrease in the direction and control given by the teacher is a slow, gradual process of change, which takes place over a considerable length of time.

Certain limitations may exist in addition to lack of skill on the part of the students which will prevent optimal utilization of teacher-pupil planning. Teachers who are conscious of a lack of understanding and skill in themselves must move slowly in the effort to shift responsibilities to the student in the learning situation. Institutional rules, regulations, procedures, educational philosophy, etc., may place additional limitations on optimal utilization. Certain factors over which the school has no control may limit the utilization of teacher-pupil planning. Certain areas of learning may not adapt themselves as readily as others to teacher-pupil planning.

Teacher-pupil planning is difficult for both the teacher and the students.
CHAPTER V

PRACTICING DEMOCRACY IN THE SCHOOL NOT ONLY DEVELOPS DEMOCRATIC
CITIZENSHIP BUT IT ALSO FACILITATES LEARNING

So far the discussion in this part of the study has revolved around
the concept that the major responsibility of education is to develop
democratic citizenship. It is here contended that practicing democracy
in the school not only develops people capable of successful participa-
tion in a democracy, but that it also facilitates learning.

It is not the intention here to delve deeply into the psychology
of learning. The intent, rather, is to briefly identify the two
basically different concepts as to how learning takes place and to
indicate how teacher-pupil planning is consonant with newer concepts as
to how learning takes place best.

I. THEORIES OF LEARNING

Modern concepts as to how learning takes place may be classified
into two types—association theories and field theories.1 Association
theories include such theories of learning as reflex arc theories,
stimulus-response theories, and connectionist theories. Field theories

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1Ernest R. Hilgard, Theories of Learning (New York: Appleton-
Century-Crofts, Inc., 1946), p. 9; Lawrence E. Cole and William F.
Bruce, Educational Psychology (New York: World Book Company, 1950),
p. 461; Lindley J. Stiles and Mattie F. Dorsey, Democratic Teaching in
Secondary Schools (Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1950), pp. 159-
61, 177-78.
include such varieties as gestalt, neo-gestalt, organismic, and sign-
significant theories. 2

Association theories. The theory of learning which has dominated
all others in the United States from 1900 to today is the association
theory of learning developed by Edward L. Thorndike. 3 This theory of
learning has been called connectionist or trial-and-error learning. This
systematic and mechanistic approach to learning is perhaps best under-
stood by reference to the three laws of learning which grew out of the
animal learning experiments conducted by connectionist psychologists-
the laws of Readiness, Exercise (Use and Disuse), and Effect. 4 These
laws, which apply to both animal and human learning according to the
connectionists, 5 were described by Thorndike as follows at the time
when this theory of learning was at the height of its popularity:

The Law of Readiness is: When any conduction unit is in
readiness to conduct, for it to do so is satisfying. When any
conduction unit is not in readiness to conduct, for it to conduct
is annoying. When any conduction unit is in readiness to conduct,
for it not to do so is annoying. By a satisfying state of affairs

2 Ernest R. Hilgard, Theories of Learning (New York: Appleton-

3 Harold Rugg, Foundations for American Education (New York:
World Book Company, 1947), pp. 121-25; Lawrence E. Cole and William F.
Bruce, Educational Psychology (New York: World Book Company, 1950),
p. 422; Hilgard, op. cit., p. 19; Allen DeWitt Patterson, "Implications
of Newer Practices in Secondary Education for the Preparation of
Teachers," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, The Ohio State University,
Columbus, Ohio, 1939), p. 52.

4 Hilgard, op. cit., p. 22.

5 Ibid., pp. 21-22.
is meant one which the animal does nothing to avoid, often doing things which maintain or renew it. By an annoying state of affairs is meant one which the animal does nothing to preserve, often doing things which put an end to it. . . .

The Law of Use is: When a modifiable connection is made between a situation and a response, that connection's strength is, other things being equal, increased. By the strength of a connection is meant roughly the probability that the connection will be made when the situation recurs. . . .

The Law of Disuse is: When a modifiable connection is not made between a situation and a response during a length of time, that connection's strength is decreased. The explanations and qualifications stated in connection with the Law of Use apply here also.

The Law of Effect is: When a modifiable connection between a situation and a response is made and is accompanied or followed by a satisfying state of affairs, that connection's strength is increased. When made and accompanied or followed by an annoying state of affairs, its strength is decreased. . . . 6

Stated more briefly, the Law of Readiness refers to the preparation of the organism for action; the Law of Exercise refers to the strengthening of connections with practice and the weakening of connections or forgetting when practice is discontinued; and the Law of Effect states that rewards or successes further the learning of the rewarded behavior, while punishments or failures reduce the tendency to repeat the behavior leading to punishment, failure, or annoyance. 7

These laws grow out of the concept that specific mental action is the result of a definite response to a specific stimulus. Learning is


7 Hilgard, op. cit., pp. 23-25.
conceived as being a matter of establishing a series of specific responses to specific stimuli. A given stimulus will produce a predictable response; that is, where two individuals are given the same stimulus, the response in the two individuals will be much the same. The association between a stimulus and a response is referred to as a "bond" or a "connection" — the "bond" or "connection" leads from a specific stimulus to a specific response and is strengthened or weakened in the making and breaking of habits. These "bonds" or "connections" are automatically established and strengthened and need not be mediated by ideas. In a problematic situation, the learner tries one thing after another in a trial-and-error fashion. When the learner achieves success by stumbling upon the solution to the problem, learning is possible. Since, by the law of exercise, these "bonds" or "connections" are strengthened by practice, repetitive drill is the means by which habit formation is accomplished.

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10 Hilgard, op. cit., p. 19; Leonard, op. cit., p. 79.

11 Hilgard, op. cit., pp. 21, 25-26, h7.

Learning is always specific, never general—there is no such thing as generalized intellectual power to be developed, but instead, specific knowledges, habits, skills, and attitudes are to be acquired. In other words, the learner's attention is to be focused on specific things and not on the relationship among things.  

Understandings are conceived to be developed by building a body of "connections" appropriate to the understanding which is trying to be developed. Transfer of learning occurs when there are identical elements in something which has been learned and in something which is to be learned. When understandings are grasped at once by learners in a new situation, it is as the result of transfer.

Some of the school practices in the United States which find support in this concept of learning are: regarding learning as the acquisition of specific skills and facts within logical systems of knowledge by a process of adding fact on fact, principle on principle, and formula on formula in much the same way that one would climb a

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15 Hilgard, op. cit., pp. 27, 29, 47; Leonard, op. cit., p. 85.

16 Hilgard, op. cit., pp. 27, 30, 47.
ladder;\(^{17}\) the determining by textbook writers, curriculum experts, and
the school of the appropriate subject matter facts to be prescribed for
students of different maturation levels and different abilities;\(^{18}\) the
teaching of specific skills and facts by compelling students regardless
of their interests to repeat historical dates, rules of grammar, mathe-
matical formulae, economic principles, scientific laws, titles of
literary products, etc., in the belief that this is the most economical
way of establishing habits and understandings associated with specific
knowledges;\(^{19}\) motivating the student extrinsically by means of the
offering of rewards to stimulate learning and the use of punishment to
force learning;\(^{20}\) using measuring instruments such as true-false,
multiple-choice, and matching tests to check on the number of facts which
students have added to their store of knowledge;\(^{21}\) dividing the student
into parts--intellectual, physical, and emotional, with definite periods
of the school day designed to train the separate parts.\(^{22}\)

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\(^{17}\)Arthur D. Hollingshead, *Guidance in Democratic Living* (New
York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1941), pp. 59-60; Harold Alberty,
Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum (New York: The Macmillan Company,

\(^{18}\)Leonard, *op. cit.*., p. 86; Hollingshead, *op. cit.*., pp. 59-60;
Stiles and Dorsey, *op. cit.*., p. 156.

\(^{19}\)Stiles and Dorsey, *op. cit.*., pp. 159-61; Harold Alberty, Reor-
genizing the High-School Curriculum (New York: The Macmillan Company,

\(^{20}\)Stiles and Dorsey, *op. cit.*., pp. 182-84, 197-98, 202-3;
Leonard, *op. cit.*., p. 86.

\(^{21}\)Stiles and Dorsey, *op. cit.*., p. 156.

\(^{22}\)Hollingshead, *op. cit.*., pp. 79-81.
Field theories. The connectionist theory of learning developed unchallenged in the United States until the 1920's. Since that time a growing body of literature has brought an entirely new emphasis in psychological theory until today most psychologists have repudiated association concepts. These writings have come from such field psychologists as Köhler, Koffka, Wertheimer, and Lewin and such philosophers as Dewey, Bode, and Kilpatrick.

Basic to these newer concepts as to how learning takes place is the concept that the individual is spontaneously active. That is, the individual has an inherent need for activity, for new experiences, for expanding the boundaries of his environment, for discovering his place in the environment which surrounds him. Changes in behavior occur in this active individual through experience. In other words, the individual grows, develops, learns as interaction takes place between the

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individual and his environment.  

This is to say that when an individual has learned something, that something which has been learned has been experienced by the individual—the concept that the individual "learns to do by doing." Kilpatrick expresses it this way:

In the newer outlook, to say that one has really learned a certain thing (a thought or a feeling or a movement)—learned it so that it will actually work when needed—means ... that one has in a true situation responded that way, has done that thing (has thought that thought, or felt that feeling, or made that movement) ... .

In this interaction of the individual with his environment, the individual responds to situations as "wholes." The intellectual, physical, and emotional aspects of behavior cannot be separated, for whatever affects the individual to the point that a response is made


affects the total person. Thus, the mind, body, and emotions are not aspects of an individual that can be trained separately, but rather are interdependent elements which are acting and reacting during all behavior.

In this interaction of the individual with the environment, the individual is seeking to establish adjustment or to achieve equilibrium. As the individual contacts the environment he encounters frustrations, disturbances, confusion, perplexity, and doubts because his experiences have not been such that it is possible for him to have established modes of behavior for all of the situations confronting him. The frustrations and disturbances produce in the individual an awareness of problems, and so the individual engages in a problem-solving process in an effort to establish adjustment or equilibrium. Learning then is the process of achieving adjustment by means of relieving tensions which have been created in the interaction of the individual with his environment.

As adjustment is achieved following an experience which has upset the


equilibrium, this new learning results in a reconstruction of the experiences of the individual. That is, learning is not the addition of a series of disconnected experiences, but rather, the new learning (adjustment to a new experience) is integrated into the former experiences of the individual so that the total structure of the individual is changed. Each experience to which the individual adjusts leaves the individual changed so that he behaves differently thereafter—he has new needs, new understandings, increased capacities for confronting future problems which will confront him in his environment. The living, growing individual, of course, never achieves permanent adjustment or equilibrium; for neither the individual nor the environment is fixed and static, but both are continually changing, which demands continuous adjustments on the part of the individual. Thus, learning is the result of the continuing interaction between two constantly changing factors—the organism and its environment.  

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Activity on the part of the individual to relieve tensions which have been created in the interaction of the individual with his environment is not trial-and-error or hit-and-miss activity—it is purposeful and goal-seeking. The goals, interests, wants, and needs of the individual provide the force which impels the individual to seek and attain adjustment. If the individual is engaging in activities which have no meaning for him, activities in which he has no sense of the value of what is being done, then learning in the sense of mastering something that will function when needed will not take place. This means, among other things, that "education" is not something which can be "poured" or "drilled" into the empty heads of students by some second party. If the individual is to learn, he must learn for himself. The teacher can provide conditions which stimulate thinking and can give guidance and assistance in activities in which the individual engages, but except as the individual accepts such conditions, guidance, and assistance as meaningful in

terms of his goals, interests, wants, and needs, genuine learning will not take place.\textsuperscript{36}

The force that impels or motivates the individual to action is an inner force which stems from goals, interests, wants, and needs of the individual. This type of motivation is identified as intrinsic motivation or self-motivation as contrasted with extrinsic motivation, where the individual is induced into activity by the offering of rewards, the threat of punishments, etc.\textsuperscript{37} In a group situation, such as a classroom, where the individual has the opportunity to share in identifying problems and goals, he has the opportunity to select those which he considers are worth working toward—goals and problems which have purpose and meaning to him in terms of his interests, wants, and needs.


Or, to state it a little differently, goals sought by the group have meaning to the individual because he has shared in the formation of those goals.38

In a group where rapport has been established, working toward group goals adds an extra impetus that cannot be achieved by individuals acting alone. Where the individual is a member of a group in which he feels belongingness—he knows his associates well, he enjoys associating with the other members of the group, he respects his associates and feels that they respect him, he shares in the entire learning experience, he is aware of the importance of his own contribution to group effort—the individual will develop a stronger desire for action in relation to goals that are important both to him and to the group to which he belongs.39 Of this Stiles and Dorsey say:


Recently educators have become aware that the degree of wholesomeness of the adjustment of an individual within his group has a direct relationship to the amount of effective learning he can accomplish. We recognize that the quality of rapport that exists in a given group may influence action more than almost any other single factor. When the individual is happily adjusted in a group, when he enjoys working with others, and when he feels that he is an important member of his group, his desire to contribute to the activities of that group is intensified. ¹⁰

II. TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING IS CONSONANT WITH NEWER CONCEPTS
AS TO HOW LEARNING TAKES PLACE

Reference to the preceding chapter reveals that the teacher-pupil planning method is consonant with newer concepts as to how learning takes place best.

That changes in behavior occur through experience—the concept that we learn to do by doing—is consonant with teacher-pupil planning concepts. The fundamental concept of teacher-pupil planning of providing democratic experiences through giving students cooperative experiences in all phases of teaching and learning is an outgrowth of the belief that individuals capable of successful living in a democracy possess certain traits and skills of acting cooperatively with associates in identifying and acting upon common interests, purposes, and problems.


¹⁰Stiles and Dorsey, op. cit., pp. 192-94.
that can only be developed by experiencing situations which develop these characteristics.\textsuperscript{11}

That as the individual contacts his environment, he encounters frustrations and disturbances that produce in the individual an awareness of problems which causes the individual to engage in a problem-solving process in an effort to establish adjustment or equilibrium is consonant with teacher-pupil planning concepts. Teacher-pupil planning conceives that the learning situation is a place which deals with the common problems of the students,\textsuperscript{12} for teacher-pupil planning conceives that democratic living will be achieved through group efforts to solve problems which are common to the group.\textsuperscript{13} In clarifying the characteristics of a problem, it was pointed out that the problems have their origin in the experiences of the students as the result of obstacles which obstruct their interests.\textsuperscript{14}

That the activity of the individual is purposeful, that the goals, interests, wants, and needs of the individual provide the force which impels the individual to seek and attain adjustment is consonant with teacher-pupil-planning concepts. The goals, interests, wants, and needs of the individual are the force which motivate the activities of the individual in teacher-pupil-planning classrooms; for his goals,

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{11}Supra, p. 61.
\item \textsuperscript{12}Supra, p. 64.
\item \textsuperscript{13}Supra, pp. 65-66.
\item \textsuperscript{14}Supra, pp. 66-67.
\end{itemize}
interests, wants, and needs are reflected in the activities in which he engages as a result of his share in determining what the learning activities will be and how the learning activities will be carried out. Reference should also be made to the fact that except as the goals, interests, wants, and needs of the individuals in the group are the motivational force, teacher–pupil planning is not possible; for cooperative participation of students in all phases of the learning situation is only possible as the group is bound together by arriving at and working together on common goals, interests, wants, and needs.

That "education" is not something which can be "poured" or "drilled" into the empty heads of students by some second party and that if the individual is to learn, he must learn for himself are consonant with teacher–pupil planning concepts. The teacher in teacher–pupil–planning concepts serves as a guide and an adviser rather than as a master--his function is not one of giving answers to the problems under study, but rather, it is to guide students in recognizing and solving their problems themselves.

That in a group where rapport has been established, working toward group goals adds an extra impetus that cannot be achieved by individuals acting alone is consonant with teacher–pupil–planning concepts. The teacher–pupil–planning classroom is a learning situation in which group

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45 Supra, pp. 61-63.
46 Supra, pp. 64-66.
47 Supra, pp. 77-85.
goals are being pursued. Teacher-pupil planning strives to achieve an atmosphere of friendliness and cooperativeness in the classroom, for it believes that this is the atmosphere in which group goals can best be reached. This atmosphere of friendliness and cooperativeness is a composite of elements which were discussed in the preceding chapter as being requisites for an effective use of group process.

Of interest, in relation to the consonance of teacher-pupil planning with newer concepts as to how learning takes place, is the testimony below of a few schools that have used the teacher-pupil-planning method:

... Pupils learn more effectively as they share in planning their activities than when they do only what they are told to do by some more experienced leader.

Pupil-teacher planning puts life into a subject for both the teacher and the students. When we plan the course together, the students realize that they are finding the answers to their own problems and to the problems of their fellows. It is not then just another assignment to be prepared in order to get a grade.

With this method students are conscious that the work meets their needs. An incentive and interest can be carried through the work of the semester. Such interests are difficult to get and hold when the plans are all made by the teacher and the assignments are given to carry out his plan.

... Pupils have a large and increasing share in planning and carrying on their school work. Through this cooperative procedure,

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18 Supra, pp. 64-66.

19 Supra, pp. 85-94.


21 Ibid.
where the teacher acts as a leader, guide, and counselor, motivation for serious study is not difficult to supply.52

We are convinced that a pupil-teacher planning method and small group activity have been effective and have provided greater motivation.53

... Teachers who planned with pupils for daily activities and for longer periods were more successful in establishing high morale, effective learning, and good school citizenship than those who resorted to autocratic pronouncements.54

... Most important, however, in all of our work in pupil-teacher planning, was the change in attitude on the part of children toward their own responsibility for learning. Instead of a teacher-imposed, teacher-enforced situation, the children came to see their own responsibility. The change in emphasis here, resulting in a change in attitude, made for greater interest, greater purpose, and thus more real learning.55

That teacher-pupil planning is consonant with newer concepts as to how learning takes place best adds weight to teacher-pupil-planning concepts; for it means that teacher-pupil planning not only is the means by which democratic citizenship can be developed, but it is also the means by which learning can be best achieved. Of this, Giles, McCutchen, and Zechiel say:

A final word may be in order in introducing consideration of the elements of the process of teacher-pupil planning. Not only

52 Ibid., p. 262. (Report of Eagle Rock High School, Los Angeles, California.)


54 Walter A. Anderson, "We Learn to Plan by Planning," 1945 Yearbook, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, 1945, pp. 98-99.

55 Lester Ball and Ruth H. Simonds, "We Planned It That Way," 1945 Yearbook, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, 1945, p. 37.
is this an attempt to apply democracy to the school room, it is also an attempt to make use of all available knowledge regarding the nature of the learning process. If it is democratic for the student to participate in planning, it is at the same time fully in line with the learning-by-doing school of psychology. It would appear, then, that not only does democracy depend upon education, but likewise education is best when it is most democratic.\

Because teacher-pupil planning is consonant with newer concepts as to how learning takes place, it has implications for traditional classrooms which regard learning as the acquiring of predetermined bodies of knowledges and skills; for cooperative planning can then be justified on the ground that as students are given some opportunities for the determination of activities and procedures, he will be happier, will understand better the work required of him, and will learn more subject matter.

Although the fact that teacher-pupil planning is consonant with newer concepts as to how learning takes place best adds weight to teacher-pupil-planning concepts, it should be pointed out that the primary reason for the utilization of teacher-pupil planning in the classroom is that it develops democratic citizenship through translating democratic living into the day-to-day life of the school. Therefore,


teacher-pupil-planning concepts do not stand or fall in relationship to their consonance with concepts as to how learning takes place most efficiently. The manner in which youth is educated is inescapably interwoven with the kind of social order that is desired. If it is desired to turn out citizens who will, without thinking or questioning, click their heels and stand at attention at an appropriate moment, then teacher-pupil planning could not be successfully or efficiently utilized to effect that kind of learning if it can be called learning. Perhaps this kind of behavior could best be effected by repetitive drilling to get this response as the result of a specific stimulus. If, however, it is desired to turn out citizens capable of successful living in a democracy, teacher-pupil planning becomes a necessity.

III. SUMMARY

Modern concepts as to how learning takes place may be classified into two types—association theories and field theories. The theory of learning which has dominated all others in the United States from 1900 to today is the association theory, developed by Thorndike. This approach to learning is perhaps best understood by reference to the three laws of learning developed by this school of thought. The Law of Readiness refers to the preparation of the organism for action. The Law of Exercise refers to the strengthening of connections with practice and the weakening of connections or forgetting when practice is discontinued. The Law of Effect states that rewards or successes further the learning of the rewarded behavior, while punishments or failures reduce the
tendency to repeat the behavior leading to punishment, failure, or annoyance. Learning is conceived as being a matter of establishing a series of specific responses to specific stimuli. Learning is always specific, never general. Transfer of learning occurs when there are identical elements in something which has been learned and in something which is to be learned.

Since the 1920's field theories of learning have brought an entirely new emphasis in psychological theory. Basic to these newer concepts is the idea that the individual is spontaneously active. Changes in behavior occur in this active individual through experience—the concept that the individual "learns to do by doing." In this interaction of the individual with his environment, the individual responds to situations as "wholes." In this interaction, the individual is seeking to establish adjustment or to achieve equilibrium. Learning takes place as adjustment is achieved, and this new learning results in a reconstruction of the experiences of the individual. Activity on the part of the individual to achieve adjustment is purposeful and goal-seeking—the force that motivates the individual to action is an inner force which stems from goals, interests, wants, and needs of the individual. Group goals add an extra impetus that cannot be achieved by individuals acting alone.

Teacher-pupil planning is consonant with newer concepts as to how learning takes place best. This adds weight to teacher-pupil planning concepts, for it means that teacher-pupil planning not only is the means by which democratic citizenship can be developed, but it is also the
means by which learning can be best achieved. Because teacher-pupil planning is consonant with newer concepts as to how learning takes place, it has implications for traditional classrooms which regard learning as the acquiring of predetermined bodies of knowledges and skills.
CHAPTER VI

BUSINESS EDUCATION CLASSROOMS MUST BE CONDUCTED ACCORDING TO TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING CONCEPTS

The major responsibility of education in a democracy has been identified as the development of democratic citizenship. Teacher-pupil planning, which translates the basic principles of democratic living into the day-to-day life of the school, has been identified as the method by which democratic citizenship can be developed. It is here contended that if education is to discharge successfully its responsibility to develop democratic citizenship, social environments favorable to the development of democratic living must permeate the complete school program; and that, therefore, business education classrooms must be conducted according to teacher-pupil-planning concepts.

A few expressions of the point of view that democratic living must permeate the complete school program are presented below:

. . . Democratic living in the classroom is next to impossible without the favoring conditions of democratic living in the whole school.1

Our experience proves one thing, namely, group development must be regarded as a school program if it is to be successful. . . . Every teacher in the school must accept her responsibility in forwarding the development of the group as she now accepts a responsibility in the academic subjects.2


Unless good group living is to be a part of the total living of children and young people, we are defeated before we begin when teaching democracy. Learning about group living must be a part of the total school program.

If such a program is to succeed, [education for democratic citizenship] the entire school must share in it. There must be a unified, persistent effort to infuse into every future citizen the spirit of democracy. This objective must be regarded as a primary purpose for which the school exists, and every teacher and pupil must become vividly conscious of the fact.

TEACHER-STUDENT PLANNING IS MORE SUCCESSFUL IN A SCHOOL IN WHICH THE ENTIRE SCHOOL STAFF IS COMMITTED TO THE SAME GENERAL PHILOSOPHY AND PRACTICES IN THE CLASSROOM.

If pupils are to acquire the prerequisites of democratic citizenship a democratic - rather than authoritarian - atmosphere must prevail in every classroom in the school.

I. THE PROCESS BY WHICH INDIVIDUALS DEVELOP SKILLS IN DEMOCRATIC LIVING DEMANDS THAT TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING PERMEATE THE COMPLETE SCHOOL PROGRAM

That teacher-pupil-planning concepts must permeate the complete school program is due to the nature of the process by which the individual develops skills in democratic living.

The individual develops skills in democratic living through

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interaction with democratic social environments. As has been pointed out, the distinguishing characteristic of the values held by a democratic society which becomes the guide for the school's purposes and procedures is cooperation. People who are able to work cooperatively in groups in solving problems of common concern possess certain personality characteristics. Social environments can be created which will lead to the development of personalities consonant with the value-base which is representative of a society. In order for the individual to develop the characteristics and skills necessary for successful living in a democracy, he must interact with democratic social environments.  

Social attitudes and habits are developed as the result of every situation with which the individual interacts. In this interaction of the individual with the environment, the individual responds to situations as "wholes"—the mind, body, and emotions are interdependent elements which are acting and reacting during all behavior. Thus, whether the development of social attitudes and habits is a conscious objective of a segment of the curriculum or not, social attitudes and habits are being developed, for as Hollingshead says:

... It must be recognized that in every situation with which the child interacts, all phases of his nature are involved. In the so-called academic or intellectual activities, the child is developing social attitudes and habits. ... In all of his play activities, the child is reacting mentally,

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7 Supra, pp. 38-43.
8 Supra, pp. 116-117.
socially, emotionally, as well as physically. He cannot react otherwise.\footnote{Hollingshead, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 79-81.}

In this connection, Cunningham says:

\ldots The assumption that group living can be relegated to a particular school period just doesn't make sense in terms of what we know about how learning takes place. Such a concept is as foolish as the one implied in the school program which listed "rational thinking" as a course, to meet from 11:00 to 11:40 each day. Neither rational thinking nor group living can be thus segmented. Unless good group living is to be a part of the total living of children and young people, we are defeated before we begin when teaching democracy. Learning about group living must be a part of the total school program.\footnote{Cunningham, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 272-73.}

The necessary skills for democratic living cannot be developed if part of the experiences of the individual are democratic and part are authoritarian. The experiences which an individual has in his environment are integrated into his former experiences so that the total structure of the individual is changed—he behaves differently thereafter.\footnote{Supra, pp. 117-118.} Thus, the personality of the individual is a result of the totality of his experiences. Whether an individual develops the characteristics and skills necessary for successful living in a democracy is dependent on the experiences which he has—all of his experiences. If part of the experiences of the individual are democratic and part are authoritarian, confusion results, an integrated personality is not developed, and the individual is not adequately equipped for successful living in a democracy.
Something of the nature of the confusion that results from exposing students to both democratic and autocratic environments is described by Alberty as follows:

Frequently, and this was particularly true of some of the Eight-Year Study Schools, much emphasis was placed upon reorganization in the core area, leaving the elective courses, which for the most part are composed of organized subjects, somewhat out of the picture. Thus, we might find a situation in which teacher-student planning of units of work was the regular practice in the core, and teacher-made assignments, often on the daily basis, were customary in the other aspects of the curriculum. It is easy to see how this resulted in much confusion on the part of the student. For example, he would spend the first two periods of the day in the core class in which the group might devote the entire time in organizing itself into committees to explore various aspects of housing, or even in deciding what aspects of housing should be studied. At the close of this period, he would go to his science class in which he followed the directions in the laboratory manual for verifying Archimedes' principle, which he had already learned during the preceding class period.12

Such conflicts in the demands of the school program lead to conflicts in the personality of the students which make it difficult for the individual to achieve a unified and integrated self.13 As a matter of fact, gains made in democratically run classrooms toward the development of the characteristics and skills necessary for successful living in a democracy may be nullified by the development of selfish competition in autocratically run classrooms.14 The entire environment of the school must be such that the characteristics and skills necessary for democratic living are fostered in students without strain and

14 Hollingshead, op. cit., pp. 79-81, 152.
conflict.  

The process by which individuals develop skills in democratic living is a slow, difficult process. An added reason as to why teacher-pupil-planning concepts must permeate the complete school program, which has already been discussed above, is that democratic living is difficult to learn. The traits and skills necessary to democratic living are not the natural result of individuals associating together, but rather, they are achieved over a period of many years as the result of experiencing democratic social environments.  

II. EACH ENVIRONMENT CREATED WITHIN THE SCHOOL MUST JUSTIFY ITS INCLUSION IN TERMS OF ITS CONTRIBUTION TO DEMOCRATIC LIVING

Since every segment of the curriculum affects in some way the social skills of the student either by contributing to the characteristics and skills necessary for democratic living or by developing characteristics and skills opposed to those needed for democratic living, each environment created within the school must justify its inclusion in the curriculum in terms of its contribution to democratic living. This is not to say, of course, that some organized subject matter areas now being taught in the school must be dropped from the curriculum, for there are not fundamental differences in various subjects or areas which make

15 Ibid., pp. 66-67.
16 Supra, pp. 53, 101-102.
teacher-pupil-planning methods applicable in some and not in others. As Albery points out:

... Teacher-student planning can play a significant role in every aspect of the curriculum, provided teachers are sensitive to the values which are possible of realization.17

It is true, as was pointed out above, that certain areas of learning may not adapt themselves as readily as others to pupil participation in cooperatively planning and working on their learning activities.18 But as was also pointed out, students are aware of the need for mature guidance on the part of the teacher,19 and as they become skilled in teacher-pupil planning, they can evaluate for themselves areas which are appropriate for more direction on the part of the teacher. The report of The University School of The Ohio State University quoted above is particularly applicable here and is quoted again:

... The form and extent of this participation vary widely with the area. Learning a foreign language, for example, has aspects which limit the field of choice more rigidly than does the study of one's own tongue. But even in learning a skill, such as typing, there is an area in which student and teacher may jointly formulate the plans under which the student works.20

It should also be mentioned again in connection with the applicability of teacher-pupil planning to all areas that since teacher-pupil planning is consonant with newer concepts as to how learning takes

18Supra, p. 104.
19Supra, p. 71.
20Thirty Schools Tell Their Story, op. cit., p. 725.
place, it has implications for traditional classrooms which regard learning as the acquiring of predetermined bodies of knowledges and skills; for cooperative planning can then be justified on the ground that as the student is given some opportunities for determining activities and procedures, he will be happier, will understand better the work required of him, and will learn more subject matter.21

That social environments favorable to the development of democratic living must permeate the complete school program means that business education must, if it is to justify its inclusion in the curriculum, contribute to the major objective of education—the development of democratic citizenship—by utilizing teacher-pupil-planning concepts in its classrooms. The statement of Lyon in one of the first books dealing with methodology in business education seems particularly fitting as a closing statement for this section:

All education given by the public schools must be in sympathy with the best-known ends of public education. This statement holds true regardless of the course to which it may be applied. No course of study in the American public school, however, vocational its character, can, if it omits education of the kind needed in a democracy, be anything but a misappropriation of public funds. In seeking the ends or objectives of business, therefore, so far as we are thinking in terms of the secondary school, we shall need to give consideration to the needs and purposes of all education in a democracy such as ours.22

III. SUMMARY

21Supra, 126-127.

If education is to successfully discharge its responsibility to develop democratic citizenship, teacher-pupil-planning concepts must permeate the complete school program. This is due to the nature of the process by which the individual develops skills in democratic living.

In order to develop skills in democratic living, the individual must interact with democratic social environments. In the interaction of the individual with the environment, he develops social attitudes and habits, even though the objective of the environment may not be the development of attitudes and habits. If part of the experiences of the individual are democratic and part are authoritarian, confusion results, an integrated personality is not developed, and the individual is not adequately equipped for successful living in a democracy. Thus, each environment created within the school must justify its inclusion in terms of its contribution to democratic living.

Business education must, therefore, if it is to justify its inclusion in the curriculum, contribute to the major objective of education—the development of democratic citizenship—by utilizing teacher-pupil-planning concepts in its classrooms.
CHAPTER VII

REVIEW OF EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH WHICH RELATES TO TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING

Philosophical concepts regarding teacher-pupil planning need to become hypotheses which will be tested by experimental research. There is a growing body of experimental research which supports teacher-pupil-planning concepts. This research is reviewed in this chapter.

Out of the effort to place similar studies together, the following organization evolved and is used as the major divisions of this chapter:

Studies which compare the effectiveness of autocratic and democratic methods in securing knowledges and skills in subject matter areas;

studies which examine the effect of autocratic and democratic methods on the behavior of groups;

studies which examine the effectiveness of group decision as a method for achieving desirable changes in groups;

studies which compare the relative effectiveness of autocratic and democratic methods in solving problems situations;

studies which indicate student preferences for autocratic or democratic methods.

I. STUDIES WHICH COMPARE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF AUTOCRATIC AND DEMOCRATIC METHODS IN SECURING KNOWLEDGES AND SKILLS IN SUBJECT MATTER AREAS

Hazel M. Hatcher, "An Experimental Study to Determine the Relative Effectiveness at the Secondary Level of Two Methods of Instruction" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, The University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, 1940).

Statement of the problem. This investigation was an experimental study in home economics made to determine the relative effectiveness at
the secondary level of two methods of instruction. The control method was completely directed by the teacher—he determined the objectives, decided upon the content of the unit, planned the procedures to be followed, and evaluated the pupil's achievement. In the experimental method, the teacher and pupils working together determined the goals they wished to reach, decided how best to work toward these goals, and checked accomplishment as the unit progressed.

Procedures used in the study. The study was limited to a twelve-week unit in foods and a four-week unit in consumer buying in the St. Paul and Minneapolis, Minnesota, senior high schools. Demonstration lessons of the control and the experimental methods were taught and observed by the participating teachers who were permitted to chose whether they would use the control method or the experimental method. Detailed directions regarding the procedures to be used in each method were given.

To measure course outcomes, the following measuring devices were used in the foods classes: pencil-and-paper test; food score cards for measuring the quality of the foods prepared by the pupils; a check list for measuring the adequacy of the meals listed by pupils on a special record form as having been eaten for one week; and a series of six self-teaching and self-evaluating devices planned for checking on the different objectives in the foods unit. The measuring devices in the consumer-buying classes were: Pencil-and-paper test and diary records kept of purchases made during one month. Additional techniques, such as interviews with pupils, interviews with mothers, anecdotal records, and written reports made by teachers and learners were used to collect data
on the less tangible aspects of learning such as interests, attitudes, and habits, which it was assumed might be developed as a result of instruction.

Usable data were collected from 900 pupils in 35 high school classes. It was possible to pair 282 learners in the foods classes and 276 in the consumer-buying classes on the three variables—IQ, pre-test score, and the socio-economic level as determined by the father’s occupation.

Summary of the findings. The classes taught by the experimental method achieved significantly better than those taught by the control method in all statistical comparisons.

The poorest teacher using the experimental method was able to change the food practices of her pupils somewhat more than the best teacher using the control method.


Statement of the problem. The purpose of this study was to ascertain the effectiveness of pupil-teacher planning as a method of instruction in social studies as compared with teacher direction as a method of instruction.

Procedures used in the study. This study was conducted for one year in two eighth grade social studies classes at the University of
Chicago Laboratory School. Each of the classes contained twenty-seven students.

In the experimental group, the students participated extensively in planning the goals to be achieved and the activities to be pursued. In the control group, the teacher made all the decisions as to goals to be achieved and the activities to be pursued. In order that the two groups might study the same units, give the same amount of time to each unit, and engage in the same learning activities within the unit, teacher plans which were imposed on the control group were the same as those previously developed through cooperative effort between pupils and teacher in the experimental group.

The evaluation instruments used to collect data for this investigation consisted of three paper and pencil tests: Test of Social Studies Subject Matter; Test of Social Beliefs; Test on Principles of Group Planning. In addition to these paper and pencil tests, sociometric data were utilized from a study being made on these groups by another research worker.

**Summary of the findings.** Using time for pupil-teacher planning did not result in less learning of subject matter than occurred under teacher direction.

The pupil-teacher-planning group members were more discriminating in their use of reasons to support solutions they preferred in problem situations involving certain principles of group work.

The pupil-teacher-planning group had a stronger feeling of groupness among its members than did the control group.

Statement of the problem. In this experimental study one general type of outcome, the ability to think scientifically, was studied through comparisons of two instructional methods. In the control groups, the first hour of the quiz-laboratory meeting was spent in reviewing topics discussed in previous lectures and summarized on a one- or two-page "quiz outline" prepared by the instructor in charge of the course. The remaining three hours were spent in the laboratory following the directions in the manual, recording observations, and writing answers to "interpretative" questions. The control method was believed to be closely representative of at least 80 per cent of the instruction being given in freshman college chemistry. In the quiz-laboratory meetings, the experimental groups decided as a group when group action was appropriate to achieve desired specific outcomes; parceled out responsibility for parts of extensive experiments to volunteers, and then integrated and organized the individual contributions; assisted individuals to formulate their ideas, applying criteria of tenability and procedure, and appraised resulting concepts through application of group-determined standards; applied group censure or encouragement to students whose behavior warranted it; worked under student chairmen in activities in which the teacher (as expert) believed chairmen would be effective; formulated as a group the rules for individual conduct in such matters as laboratory house-cleaning, where the need for such rules arose from the experience
of the group, and delegated responsibility for the enforcement of such rules to members of the group.

**Procedures used in the study.** The students used in this experiment were enrolled in sections of general chemistry for engineers at Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater, Oklahoma. The methods differences were applied during quiz-laboratory sections which met four one-hour periods each week. The students in the experimental and control groups were not segregated during two one-hour lectures attended each week.

The subject matter studied was the same in all classes although its organization was different under the two methods.

The instruction in the control groups was guided by the professor in charge of the course through the medium of weekly typed quiz-outlines, and through bi-weekly staff meetings during the first semester. The laboratory instruction was confined to hints, warnings, and mechanics. The quiz-discussion was guided by the instructor as he wished, and ranged from repetition of the regular lectures to occasionally irrelevant discussions. The instruction in the experimental groups was guided by the researcher by means of typewritten plans which were discussed each day with each instructor of the experimental groups for a period of about twenty minutes.

The evaluation evidence was obtained from a four-hour objective test administered at the beginning, middle, and end of the year. Other evidence used to describe the students and to assist in some of the interpretations came from a questionnaire made by the researcher from
Progressive Education Association Test 8.2a, Interest Index, which was administered at the close of the experiment. Also available were scores from the tests given to the students during freshman week: A. C. E. Psychological Examination, 1939 (I, Q, and total scores); Cooperative English, Algebra, and Arithmetic Tests, 1939 (total scores); and either the Iowa Chemistry Training Test, 1930, CT-Y or the Iowa Chemistry Aptitude Test, 1939, CA-X (all scores).

**Summary of the findings.** Students taught by the experimental method learned as much or more subject matter as students taught by the control method and made substantially greater progress in the development of desirable abilities in the area of critical thinking.¹


**Statement of the problem.** The purpose of this study was to evaluate the project method in teaching laboratory psychology.

**Procedures used in the study.** The study was carried out with laboratory classes in the Department of Psychology at the University of Minnesota. Six class groups comprising 226 students were used in the study.

¹A study by Peters supports the conclusion that democratic methods are as effective in securing academic masteries and that they are more effective in preparing pupils to apply their knowledge to meaningful situations. See Charles C. Peters, *Teaching High School History and Social Studies for Citizenship Training* (Coral Gables, Florida: The University of Miami, 1948).
Under the project method, student-groups planned their own experiments, devised apparatus, collected data, analyzed them, interpreted the results, and reported their findings back to the class. The control group followed the conventional method of performing assigned laboratory work.

The subject-matter growth of the groups was measured by the use of objective examinations.

**Summary of the findings.** Students taught by the project method learned as much as students taught by the conventional method.²


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Statement of the problem. The major purposes of this study were: to establish a relationship between high schools and colleges that would permit and encourage reconstruction in the secondary schools; to find, through exploration and experimentation, how the high schools in the United States can serve youth more effectively.

Procedures used in the study. This study, which was sponsored by the Progressive Education Association, was carried on by thirty secondary schools located throughout the United States for a period of eight years. In order that these thirty schools might proceed in any manner which they chose to revise, modify, and improve their programs, the cooperation of practically all accredited colleges and universities in the country was secured in releasing the graduates of these thirty schools from the usual subject and unit requirements for college admission for the period of the experiment.

After having been freed from college entrance requirements, most of the thirty schools were at a loss as to how to begin an attempted improvement of their programs. In the early years of the experiment, few schools had any dominate purpose to which all other purposes were related. Gradually, however, everyone concerned with the experiment sensed the need for basic, guiding principles for the reconstruction of American secondary education. The schools in this study found what they sought in the democratic ideal—in the belief that the high schools in the United States should be a demonstration of democracy in all phases of its activities. This belief that the chief purpose of education in the United States should be to preserve, promote, and refine the way of life in
which we as a people believe became the central purpose which gave direction to the study.

Although much experimentation was done in an effort to implement this philosophy of education in the thirty schools, of interest here is the fact that seventeen of the schools reported that teacher-pupil planning had been used extensively in the reorganization of learning experiences.

A study was made of the graduates of the thirty schools who entered college in order to evaluate their success as compared with students who had entered college as graduates from traditional high schools.

Summary of the findings. Departures from the prescribed pattern of subjects and units did not lessen the student's readiness for the responsibilities of college.

Students from the participating schools which made the most fundamental curriculum revisions achieved in college distinctly higher standing than did students of equal ability with whom they were compared.

II. STUDIES WHICH EXAMINE THE EFFECT OF AUTOCRATIC AND DEMOCRATIC METHODS ON THE BEHAVIOR OF GROUPS


Statement of the problem. The purpose of this study was to examine the effects upon individual and group behavior of three variations
in social atmosphere which were labeled "democratic," "authoritarian," and "laissez-faire."

Procedures used in the study. This study was conducted in two parts. An exploratory experiment was made to develop techniques for creating and describing the "social atmosphere" of children's clubs and for quantitatively recording the effects of varied social atmospheres upon group life and individual behavior. The second part of the study examined the effects upon individual and group behavior of three variations in social atmosphere, "democratic," "authoritarian," and "laissez-faire."

In the first study, the same leader met with two clubs engaged in the activity of theatrical mask-making for a period of three months. Each club had five members, ten years of age. One club was led in a democratic manner, the other in an autocratic style. The behavior of the leader and the club members was recorded by observers.

In the second study, four groups of ten-year-old boys were used. These clubs also contained five members each which met after school to engage in hobby activities. Four adult leaders were trained to proficiency in the three leadership types. The leaders were shifted from club to club every six weeks so that each of the clubs experienced each of the leadership styles under different leaders. Each club had three leaders during the course of the five-month experiment. The behavior of the leaders and the reactions of the club members were observed during every meeting. The club members and their parents were also interviewed concerning their feelings about the club.
The chief characteristics of the authoritarian social atmosphere which was created were: all determination of policy by the leader; techniques and activity steps dictated by the authority, one at a time, so that future steps were always uncertain to a large degree; the leader usually dictated the particular work task and work companion of each member; the leader tended to be "personal" in his praise and criticism of the work of each member; the leader remained aloof from active group participation except when demonstrating.

The chief characteristics of the democratic social atmosphere which was created were: all policies a matter of group discussion and decision, encouraged and assisted by the leader; activity perspective was gained during discussion period—the general steps to group goal were sketched, and when technical advice was needed, the leader suggested two or more alternative procedures from which the choice could be made; the members were free to work with whomever they chose, and the division of tasks was left up to the group; the leader was "objective" or "fact-minded" in his praise and criticism, and tried to be a regular group member in spirit without doing too much of the work.

The chief characteristics of the laissez-faire social atmosphere which was created were: complete freedom for group or individual decision, with a minimum of leader participation; various materials were supplied by the leader, who made it clear that he would supply information when asked—he took no other part in work discussion; complete nonparticipation of the leader; infrequent spontaneous comments by the leader on member activities unless questioned.
Summary of the findings. The findings of this study were grouped under the following six generalizations:

1. The behavior of the boys' in laissez-faire differed from their behavior in democracy.
   a. Less work and poorer work was done in the laissez-faire groups.
   b. The laissez-faire groups were more characterized by play.
   c. The boys preferred their democratic leader to their laissez-faire leader.

2. Democracy can be efficient.
   a. From the narrow standpoint of work goals alone, the democratic groups were about as efficient as the autocratic groups.
   b. The difference in amount of genuine, spontaneous work interest was shown by the difference in the boys' behavior when the adult leader left the room. Typically, the boys in democratic groups kept right on working whether their leader was present or not, while in the autocratic groups when the leader left, the boys stopped working as if glad to be relieved of a task which they "had" to do.
   c. In the democratic groups there was a larger amount of creative thinking and originality about the work in progress than in the autocratic groups, and it was more sustained and practical than in the laissez-faire groups.

3. Autocracy can create much hostility and aggression, including aggression against scapegoats.
   a. The autocratic groups showed more dominating ascendance; much more hostility; more demands for attention; more destruction of own property.
   b. The autocratic groups showed more group aggression against single persons or groups which did not actually threaten or frustrate the group to an extent comparable with the aggression that occurred.

4. Autocracy can create discontent that does not appear on the surface.
   a. Four boys dropped out of the clubs, and all of them did so during autocratic club periods.
   b. Nineteen out of 20 boys preferred their democratic leader to their autocratic leader.
   c. There was more discontent expressed in autocracy, even when the general reaction was submissive, than in democracy.
   d. "Release" behavior on the day of transition to a freer atmosphere suggested the presence of previous frustrations.

5. There was more dependence and less individuality in autocracy.

6. There was more group-mindedness and more friendliness in democracy.
   a. Spontaneous subgroups were larger.
b. Group-minded remarks were much more frequent.
c. Mutual praise among club members was more frequent.
d. Friendly playfulness was more frequent.
e. The democratic groups showed more readiness to share group property.3


**Statement of the problem.** The purpose of this study was to appraise certain experimental-school programs by pairing a number of elementary schools practicing new-type programs with schools that were following traditional methods.4

**Procedures used in the study.** Two hundred and ninety students from six communities were used in this study. The newer practices were

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4 Wrightstone made a similar study of experimental practices in secondary schools which showed that the new-type curriculum was superior to the usual program found in secondary schools. In this study, self-initiated activities and cooperative activities were observed much more frequently per pupil in the experimental schools than in the traditional schools. See J. Wayne Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Experimental High School Practices* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936), pp. 138-43.
appraised in comparison with traditional methods by means of current affairs, civic belief, and self-marking tests; and by classroom observations of social performance factors.

Summary of the findings. The practices in experimental schools were found to be conducive to more comprehensive growth in pupils than the practices in conventional schools.

The superiority of the experimental schools showed up particularly in the development of desirable social relations.

The students from the experimental schools were also found to be superior in certain personality characteristics. These students were found to be significantly more honest than the conventional-school students in scoring the self-marking test; they performed many more acts that were defined as self-initiated, critical, and experimental, and slightly more acts that were of the cooperative, leadership, and work-spirit type. The quality of the performance of the students from the experimental schools was also superior which leads to the conclusion that a program which gives children opportunity to participate in activities that they enjoy and help plan makes for better social relationships and develops better social attitudes.

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5For another study indicating that an experimental school was superior to conventional schools in developing personality characteristics (initiative, interest, and self-reliance), see Mary E. Hebling, "Evaluation of the Procedures of a Modern Elementary School in Terms of the Subsequent Adjustment of Its Pupils." California Journal of Elementary Education, 8:137-46, February, 1940.

6A number of studies have been made as to the effect of education at various levels on the social attitudes of students. Although there

Statement of the problem. A number of studies were conducted by Anderson and his associates with the purpose of studying the effects of teachers' dominitive and socially integrative behavior on the behavior of children. Dominitive behavior is defined in these studies as the use of force, commands, threats, shame, blame, and attacks against the personal status of an individual. It is the antithesis of the scientific attitude; it is an expression of resistance against change; it is consistent with

bigotry and with autocracy. Socially integrative behavior makes allowance in one's own behavior for differences in others. It is flexible, adaptive, objective, scientific, cooperative—it is an expression of the operation of democratic processes.

**Procedures used in the studies.** These experiments were conducted with kindergarten, second, third, fourth, and sixth-grade students. Observational techniques were developed for recording dominative and socially integrative contacts between the teacher and the child and the teacher and the group.

**Summary of the findings.** It was found that if the teacher displayed tendencies to dominate, students likewise showed aggressive characteristics in their inter-personal behavior. When the teacher used cooperative relationships with students, they in turn tended to develop tendencies toward wholesome, congenial cooperation with other members of the group.7


**Statement of the problem.** The purpose of this study was to test the hypothesis that pupils who function in a democratic social climate which involves participation in planning, executing, and appraising

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classroom activities will develop more desirable behavior patterns than would be the case if they functioned in an autocratic social climate, where the teacher alone does the planning, directs the execution, and makes all appraisals of the activities in the school room.

Procedures used in the study. This study was conducted for a six-week period at Emerson School, Phoenix, Arizona, and involved approximately 200 pupils in six groups—two fifth grades, two sixth grades, and two seventh grades.

With the cooperation of the faculty, Adams described autocratic and democratic social climates in terms of relationships which exist between teacher and pupils in the respective climates. From these characteristics, Social Climate Scales were developed by which the degree of social climate attained could be measured. A Behavior Scale was also developed to measure the behavior of pupils functioning in these two types of social climates. This Behavior Scale contained the following items: Pupils meet their classes promptly; pupils upon entering room go about duties purposefully; pupils complete work as scheduled; pupils pick up paper off the floor; pupils remind others of their responsibility; in discussion groups, pupils observe rights of the speaker; in discussion groups, the discussion is held to the subject at hand; in discussion groups, pupils avoid personal criticism; in discussion groups, pupils give evidence of withholding judgment until all their evidence has been given; pupils give evidence of respect for personal property; pupils give evidence of respect for public property; pupils' behavior is appropriate to the occasion; pupils give evidence of ability to work when teacher is not
present; group observes the right of each pupil to present his point of view; in moving about the room, pupils observe the rights of others in the group; pupils give evidence of willingness to discuss group problems; pupils handle the textbooks and materials with care; pupils place their wraps appropriately in cloak room; pupils have necessary materials as they come to class; pupils replace books on library table in an orderly manner; pupils evidence concern in appearance of their classroom; pupils show concern when classmates fail to complete assignments; pupils avoid antagonizing others; pupils avoid disturbing others who are working; pupils move about the room without crowding or shoving; pupils exhibit mental curiosity; pupils accept scientific findings over emotional prejudices.

Of the two fifth grade groups and the two seventh grade groups, one operated in a democratic climate for the entire day, and the other operated in an autocratic climate for the entire day. In the two sixth grade groups, each group operated in a democratic climate for half a day and an autocratic climate for half a day. The social climate of the groups and the behavior of the pupils in those climates were measured by twenty-four teacher-observers who recorded their observations on the Social Climate Scale and the Behavior Scale.

Summary of the findings. It is possible to establish autocratic and democratic social climates in the classroom, and the behavior of pupils in those climates differ.

Of the twenty-seven items of behavior measured by this study, the behavior of pupils operating in the democratic climates was superior to
that of pupils operating in the autocratic climates with the exception of these two behavior items--in discussion groups pupils avoid personal criticism; pupils place their wraps appropriately in cloak room.


Statement of the problem. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the possibilities of instructing pupils in the use of a democratic method of group thinking.

Procedures used in the study. Eight classes of students and their teachers from a number of different schools were used in this experiment. In the eight classes, there was a total of 207 pupils. These classes were in the English and Social Science areas.

Four of the classes were experimental groups and four were control groups. The Courtis cooperative technique was used as the guide for training the experimental groups. This technique provides for the gathering of suggestions from all the members of the group, for methods of attacking conflicts in order to bring about their harmonization, and in general, for the integration of the contribution of all the members. The control groups followed traditional classroom methods. The experiment was conducted in a twelve-week period.

Differences in growth in cooperative methods of group thinking between the experimental groups and the control groups were determined by initial and final tests of attitude, knowledge, performance, and efficiency.
Summary of the findings. Students can be taught to use a democratic method of group thinking. The experimental groups showed significant growth in cooperative methods of group thinking as compared with the control groups.


Statement of the problem. The purpose of this study was to test under controlled conditions the efficiency of certain methods for rapid retraining of leaders for democratic group leadership and to determine the effect of the training on the morale of the retrained leaders and the effect of the shift in methods of control used by the retrained leaders on the morale of the groups which they led.

Procedures used in the study. This experiment was conducted with groups of children and their leaders in a W. P. A. community service project at a recreation center in Des Moines, Iowa.

Six mediocre leaders in the W. P. A. project were selected for the experiment so that their age and habits of long standing would present particularly difficult cases for retraining. Two of the leaders, A and B, did playground work; C and D conducted handcraft (flower-making) classes; E and F were also leaders in handcrafts. These six leaders were paired, and the pairs were split to form an experimental group of three, which was trained, and a control group, which was not trained. At the beginning of the experiment, all six leaders were tested by observing and quantitatively recording their actual behavior with the children.
These records included the effects of this behavior on the way the children formed work groups.

The experimental group was then trained for three weeks (twelve days) for not more than two hours each day with the objective of developing democratic leadership abilities in them. These training periods were designed to be a source of experience in democracy for the trainees so that they would be able to make use in their later work of their personal experiences as members of a democratic group during training. The researcher, therefore, was in the role of group leader, and his conduct was illustrative of the type of leadership the trainees were learning to use. The policy of maintaining group democracy throughout the training meant that, although the trainer had a definite program, the particular course which each meeting took was not predetermined. Bavelas' program was, rather, a consideration of high points which should not be overlooked. In many of the problems encountered, particularly those involving local or organizational factors with which Bavelas was not familiar, the group made its own way and developed the specific techniques required.

During the three-week training period, the experimental and the control groups continued their work at the recreation center. In the fourth week, both the trained and the nontrained leaders were tested again by the same methods as at the beginning of the experiment.

Summary of the findings. The observation and quantitative recording of the actual behavior of the leaders with the children at the beginning of the experiment revealed that the leaders used predominantly authoritarian methods of direct control. The effect of the method of
control used by the leaders was reflected in the structure of the groups with which they worked—practically all of the time, the children worked singly. The morale of the leaders was low. Many of them actually disliked their work, felt insecure, and were extremely suspicious of the organization.

The observation and quantitative recording of the actual behavior of the leaders with the children at the close of the experiment revealed the following. There was a definite shift from authoritarian to democratic leadership on the part of the retrained leaders. The behavior of the nontrained leaders tended to become more authoritarian.

The methods of teaching which the nontrained leaders used showed no change. The trained leaders shifted from a classroom technique characterized by dependence of the children and uniformity of procedure to group methods which created an atmosphere of productivity and cooperation. The success of this group method was evidenced in various ways: a doubling of the number of children attracted to participate; the enthusiasm and persistence of the group; the holding power of the group for individuals; the efficiency of the work organization; the high degree of self-discipline; and the quality and output of the work. Although all of the children's group showed an increase in the average size of subgroups, the average size of the subgroups was larger in every group led by trained leaders than in any group led by nontrained leaders.

One of the most striking results of the retraining was the change from a definitely low morale to a definitely high morale among the trained leaders. This change in morale affected strongly the morale of the groups
which they led. All of the groups led by the trained leaders showed
great initiative in reaching new levels of productivity.

III. STUDIES WHICH EXAMINE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF GROUP DECISION
AS A METHOD FOR ACHIEVING DESIRABLE CHANGES IN GROUPS

Studies on nutrition conducted at the Child Welfare Research Station of
the State University of Iowa for the Food Habits Committee of the National
Research Council. Kurt Lewin, "Group Decision and Social Change," in
Theodore Newcomb and Eugene L. Hartley (eds.), Readings in Social Psy-

Statement of the problem. The studies on nutrition conducted at
the Child Welfare Research Station of the State University of Iowa for
the Food Habits Committee of the National Research Council dealt with the
problem of changing food habits in line with war needs. The objective of
a preliminary experiment in changing food habits was to increase the use
of beef hearts, sweetbreads, and kidneys. The psychological forces which
keep housewives from using these intestinals makes a change in this re-
spect a much more difficult task than, for example, the introduction of
a new vegetable such as escarole.

Procedures used in the study. This experiment was conducted with
six Red Cross groups of volunteers organized for home nursing. These
groups ranged in size from thirteen to seventeen members.

In three of the groups, attractive lectures were given which linked
the problem of nutrition with the war effort and which emphasized the
vitamin and mineral value of the three meats. Detailed explanations were
given with the aid of charts. Both the health and economic aspects were
stressed, and the preparation of these meats was discussed in detail as well as techniques for avoiding those characteristics to which aversions were oriented (odor, texture, appearance, etc.) Mimeographed recipes were distributed, and the lecturer was able to arouse the interest of the groups by giving hints of her own methods for preparing these "delicious dishes" and her success with her own family.

For the other three groups, the following procedure of group decision was developed. As with the lecture groups, the problem of nutrition was linked with that of the war effort and general health. After a few minutes, a discussion was started to see if housewives could be induced to participate in a program of change without attempting any high-pressure salesmanship. The group discussion about housewives like themselves led to an elaboration of the obstacles which a change in general and particularly a change toward sweetbreads, beef hearts, and kidneys would encounter, such as the dislike of the husband, the smell during cooking, etc. The nutrition expert offered the same remedies and recipes for preparation which were presented to the other groups, but in these groups preparation techniques were offered after the groups had become sufficiently involved to be interested in knowing whether certain obstacles could be removed. In the earlier part of the meeting, a vote was taken on how many women had served any of these foods in the past. At the end of the meeting, the women were asked to indicate who was willing to try one of these meats within the next week.

**Summary of the findings.** Only 3 per cent of the women who heard
the lectures served one of the meats never served before, whereas after
group decision, 32 per cent served one of them.

Statement of the problem. A second study on nutrition conducted
at the Child Welfare Research Station of the State University of Iowa
had as its objective increasing home consumption of milk in the form of
fresh or evaporated milk or both.

Procedures used in the study. This experiment was conducted with
six groups of housewives composed of six to nine members per group.

The procedure followed closely that of the study described above.
The group discussion proceeded in a step-by-step way, starting with what
housewives in general might do and then leading to the individuals
present. The lecture was as interesting as possible. The knowledge
transmitted was the same for both the lecture and the group decision.

A check-up was made after two weeks and again after four weeks.

Summary of the findings. As in the above experiment, group de-
cision showed considerably greater effectiveness, both after two weeks
and after four weeks and for both fresh and evaporated milk.

Statement of the problem. A third study on nutrition conducted
at the Child Welfare Research Station of the State University of Iowa
had as its objective increasing the effectiveness of a nutrition pro-
gram designed to give advice to mothers on the feeding of their babies.

Procedures used in the study. For a number of years, the state
hospital in Iowa City had given advice to mothers on the feeding of their
babies. Farm mothers who had their first child at the hospital met with a nutritionist for twenty to twenty-five minutes before discharge from the hospital to discuss feeding. The mother received printed information on the composition of the formula and was instructed concerning the importance of orange juice and cod liver oil. In this experiment, some mothers were given individual instruction in this way.

Other mothers were divided into groups of six for instruction on and discussion of baby feeding. The manner of reaching a decision at the end of this group meeting was similar to that used in the two experiments discussed above. The time for the six mothers together was about twenty-five minutes, the same as for the mothers given individual instruction.

A check-up was made after two weeks and again after four weeks on the degree to which each mother followed the advice on cod liver oil and orange juice.

**Summary of the findings.** The group decision method proved far superior to the individual instruction method. After four weeks, every mother who participated in the group decision method followed exactly the prescribed diet in regard to orange juice.  

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8For a similar study on the effect of group decision on changing the members of a students' eating cooperative group from the consumption of white bread to whole wheat bread, see Kurt Kewin, "Forces behind Food Habits and Methods of Change," *Bulletin of the National Research Council*, 1943, pp. 35-65. Another study which examines the effects which group decisions have as a technique for effecting changes in attitudes was made by Preston and Heintz. See Malcolm G. Preston and Roy K. Heintz, "Effects of Participatory vs. Supervisory Leadership on Group Judgment," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 44:345-55, July, 1949.

**Statement of the problem.** The purpose of this experiment was to compare group decision with the formal lecture as a method of overcoming resistance to change in behavior.

**Procedures used in the study.** The subjects in this experiment consisted of 29 supervisors of 395 workers in a large manufacturing plant. Every six months each worker was rated by his supervisor on established rating scales. It was found that the supervisors, in executing their ratings, tended to overrate those working in the higher job grades and to underrate those in the lower grades. This problem was set up to determine the most effective method of getting the supervisors to change the basis for the ratings so that a more equitable rating system would prevail.

The twenty-nine supervisors were randomly divided into three groups. Group A contained nine supervisors, and they received no special instructions prior to the next rating of the workers.

Several days prior to rating, the nine members of Group B were gathered together around a table with a discussion leader. This leader did not sit at the head of the table, nor did he lead the discussion. Rather, he introduced the problem by showing a graph of the previous rating and raised the question why it was that the highly skilled workers were consistently rated higher in performance than the less skilled. From then on, the leader merely acted as moderator and avoided injecting himself into the discussion. The discussion lasted one hour and a
half, and the group finally reached a decision to which all nine members agreed: that the way to avoid inequalities in rating was to disregard the difficulty of the jobs and rate only the man doing the job.

Group C, the lecture group of eleven supervisors, gathered in a formal lecture room, and all sat facing the leader. This group was given a detailed lecture on the technique and theory of employee performance rating. The lecturer carefully pointed out the errors of their previous ratings and interpreted the reasons for these errors. His lecture was illustrated with graphs and figures. Finally, he explained what each rater was supposed to do: he was to rate individual performance and not difficulty of the job. At the close of the lecture, questions were encouraged and asked by the raters, and complete answers were given. This session lasted about one hour and a half.

The pre-training and post-training ratings of these three groups were recorded.

Summary of the findings. Group decision was found to be more effective than the formal lecture in overcoming resistance to change in behavior.

Only the group of supervisors involved in group decision improved in their ratings. The lecture group did not change—they persisted in overrating the more highly skilled workers and underrating the less skilled.

Statement of the problem. It has always been characteristic of American industry to change products and methods of doing jobs as often as competitive conditions and engineering progress dictate. The purpose of this study was to attempt to discover why people resist change so strongly and what can be done to overcome this resistance.

Procedures used in the study. This experiment was conducted at the Marion, Virginia, plant of the Harwood Manufacturing Corporation. This plant makes pajamas.

After a series of observations about the behavior of changed groups of workers, the theory was formulated that resistance to change is a combination of an individual reaction to frustration with strong group-induced forces. It seemed, therefore, that the most appropriate methods for overcoming the resistance to change would be group methods.

Consequently, this experiment was designed which employed three degrees of participation in handling groups whose jobs were changed. In the control group, the employees had no part in planning the changes. This group of eighteen hand pressers went through the usual factory routine when they were changed. The job was modified by the production department, and the new piece rate was set. A group meeting was held in which the group was told that the change was necessary because of competitive conditions and that a new piece rate had been set. This new piece rate was thoroughly explained by the time-study man, questions were answered, and the meeting dismissed.

In the experimental groups, two variations of worker participation in planning job changes was effected. In one experimental group,
representatives of the group participated in designing the changes. For this group of thirteen pajama folders, a group meeting was held before any changes took place with all of the operators to be changed. The need for the change was presented as dramatically as possible, and management presented a plan for the new job and a new piece rate for the job. The group approved this plan and chose the operators to be specially trained. A meeting was then held with these "special" operators, and they aided in working out the details of the new job. The new job and piece rates were presented at a second group meeting of all of the operators involved. The "special" operators were used to train the other operators on the new job.

In the second variation of worker participation in planning job changes, two groups of eight and seven pajama examiners were used. These two experimental groups went through much the same kind of meetings as the experimental group described above. However, since the groups were small, all operators were chosen as "special" operators. That is, all operators were to participate directly in the designing of the new jobs.

The effect of the job changes on the production of the workers in the control and experimental groups was recorded, and the behavior of the workers was observed.

Summary of the findings. It is possible for management to modify greatly or to remove completely group resistance to changes in methods of work by the use of group meetings in which management effectively communicates the need for change and stimulates group participation in planning the changes.
The control, or no-participation group, improved little beyond their early efficiency ratings. Resistance developed almost immediately after the change occurred, and there were marked expressions of aggression against management. There were 17 per cent quits in the first forty days after the change.

The experimental group in which representatives of the group participated in effecting job changes showed an unusually good relearning curve. At the end of fourteen days, the group averaged sixty-one units per hour (sixty units per hour was standard production at this Harwood plant). There were no quits in this group in the first forty days, and there was only one act of aggression against the supervisor during the forty days.

The experimental groups in which all the members of the group participated in effecting job changes recovered faster than the others. After a slight drop on the first day after the change occurred, the efficiency ratings returned to a prechange level and showed sustained progress, thereafter, to a level about 14 per cent higher than the prechange level. There were no quits in these groups in the first forty days, and no indications of aggression were observed during this period.

At the close of the experiment, the control, or no-participation group, was broken up, and the individuals were reassigned to new jobs scattered throughout the factory. Two and a half months later, the thirteen remaining members of the original no-participation group were again brought together as a group for a second experiment. In this second experiment, the group was transferred to a new job using the total
participation technique. With the total participation technique, this
group recovered rapidly to their previous efficiency rating and, like the
experimental groups in the first experiment, continued on beyond it to a
new high level of production.

Alex Bavelas, "Group Decisions in Setting Production Goals," in Norman
R. F. Maier, Psychology in Industry (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company,

Statement of the problem. The purpose of this study was to study
the effects of group decisions on production among a group of factory
workers.

Procedures used in the study. The workers used in this study
were employed in a factory in which piece-rate methods of pay were used,
and the jobs had all been efficiently set up by time and motion analysis.

One team of workers held three brief weekly meetings with the psy-
chologist in the plant for the purpose of reaching a group decision on a
definite production which they could attain within a certain time.

Two other working teams held interviews with the psychologist.
These teams received the same attention and friendly encouragement, but
no production goal was decided upon.

All teams of workers received assurance that increases in produc-
tion which they achieved would neither influence the piece rates on which
they were paid nor set a new standard which they would be expected to
maintain.

Summary of the findings. The goal decided upon in the first
meeting of the group decision team was to get production up to eighty-four units per hour within five days. At the time, sixty units was standard, and seventy-five was supposed to be the ceiling. The team of workers reached this goal. At the second meeting, the goal was set at ninety-five, but this figure was not reached. At the third meeting, the group decision was to hold the hourly production at ninety for five weeks. Actually, the production was established in the vicinity of eighty-seven units per hour.

Production was not favorably influenced by the meetings held with the two teams of workers where no group decision was made.

A request by the psychologist to produce a certain amount had little effect. It was only when the psychologist led the group to make a group decision that the startling increase in production occurred.\(^9\)

IV. STUDIES WHICH COMPARE THE RELATIVE EFFECTIVENESS OF AUTOCRATIC AND DEMOCRATIC METHODS IN SOLVING PROBLEM SITUATIONS


\(^9\)An interesting set of experiments which have a bearing on the effects on production of the development of democratic groups of workers was conducted by the Western Electric Company, Hawthorne Works, Chicago, Illinois. These experiments are reported by Goodwin Watson, "The Surprising Discovery of Morale," Progressive Education, 19:33-41, January, 1942. For another study by Bavelas which showed striking improvement in the production of stitching machine operators as a result of democratic methods utilized by their trainers, see Alex Bavelas, "The Training of Trainers," in Norman R. F. Maier, Psychology in Industry (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946), pp. 225-28.
Statement of the problem. The purpose of this study was to compare the ability of individuals and cooperating groups of four persons in solving complex problems.

Procedures used in the study. Problems were selected involving a number of steps all of which must be correct in order that the right answer may be reached. These problems were given to single individuals and to groups of four cooperating individuals in order that the abilities of these two might be compared. The subjects cooperating in this experiment were graduate students at Columbia University.

The experiment was divided into two parts: three problems were used in the first half and three in the second half, given two weeks later. In the first half, there were five groups of four cooperating individuals and twenty-one persons who worked on the problems individually. In the second half, there were five groups of cooperating individuals and seventeen persons who worked individually. The subjects were shifted so that the composition of the groups differed in the two halves of the experiment.

Summary of the findings. The cooperating groups made better progress toward solving problems than did the individuals.


Statement of the problem. The purpose of this study was to study the effects of cooperation and competition on group process.
Procedures used in the study. The subjects used in this experiment were students in the Introductory Psychology course at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. From among volunteers from the various sections of the course, ten groups containing five members each were formed. Half of the groups were selected for the cooperative treatment, and half of the groups were selected for the competitive treatment. During the five weeks of the experiment, each of the groups met once weekly for a period of approximately three hours.

At each meeting, each of the groups was given a puzzle problem to solve for which there was an objective solution. After the group had been given a chance to attempt to solve the puzzle problem, it was given a human relations problem for which there was no objective solution. Before problems were given to a group for solution, instructions were given which were designed to produce the cooperative or the competitive situation.

The effect on the groups of the cooperative and the competitive situations was determined by observers and by questionnaires filled in by the students.

Summary of the findings. Greater group or organizational productivity may be expected when the members or sub-units are cooperative rather than competitive in their interrelationships.

Communication of ideas, coordination of efforts, friendliness, and pride in one's group, which are basic to group harmony and effectiveness, were disrupted when members saw that they were competing for mutually exclusive goals;
Competitiveness produced greater personal insecurity through expectations of hostility from others than did cooperation.


**Statement of the problem.** Research findings indicate that group thinking is superior to individual thinking. This means that a supervisor in industry using a democratic approach should have higher quality solutions to problems than a supervisor making autocratic decisions. However, this does not preclude the possibility that certain individuals working alone may be superior to a group in their thinking. The supervisor, because he is highly selected and because he has a rich background of experience, can reasonably be regarded as such an individual. Certainly a company would not wish to overlook the possibility of sacrificing high quality or creative solutions, even though they might occur rarely, in order to get group acceptance. But all problems do not raise the issue of solution quality *per se*, since the fact of cooperation and support of a plan may be more important than the nature of the plan.

The purpose of this experiment was to study the question as to how a supervisor or an expert might lead a group to a superior solution to a problem.

**Procedures used in the study.** For this experiment, a problem of increasing production in a sub-assembly job was chosen for analysis by groups. This problem had one solution which was definitely superior to others. In a preliminary experiment, twenty groups of four to six
college students who had received training in group decision methods were given the problem for solution. None of the groups and none of the individuals within the groups produced the superior solution or its equivalent.

In order to determine whether the superior solution could be stimulated in a group by proper leadership and at the same time produce general acceptance, an experiment was conducted, using forty groups of college students and six groups of industrial personnel. Twenty-nine of these groups were lead by untrained leaders and seventeen of the groups by leaders trained in democratic leadership.

**Summary of the findings.** The democratic leadership technique is not only a useful procedure for obtaining acceptance and cooperation, but it is also effective for improving solution quality. Only with the leaders trained in democratic leadership does a group arrive at the superior solution with any dependable degree of frequency.\(^\text{10}\)

V. STUDIES WHICH INDICATE STUDENT PREFERENCES FOR AUTOCRATIC OR DEMOCRATIC METHODS


Statement of the problem. The purpose of this study was to discover desirable traits of teachers from an analysis of pupils' compositions written under the title, "The Teacher Who Has Helped Me Most."

Procedures used in the study. Witty suggested to the officials of this Quiz Kids radio program that they award a scholarship to the teacher most convincingly described in a pupil's composition under the title, "The Teacher Who Has Helped Me Most."

The first contest was conducted in the spring of 1946. Approximately 14,000 letters were submitted by pupils from Grades I to XII. A second contest, which was conducted in the spring of 1947, yielded 33,000 letters.

These letters were analyzed, and the frequency with which desirable teacher traits were mentioned was determined. The data were substantially similar in both investigations.

Summary of the findings. A cooperative, democratic attitude was the trait most frequently cited by the students as being desirable in teachers.


Statement of the problem. The purpose of this study was to discover which traits, characteristics, habits, and practices of their teachers students dislike greatly and which they like very much.

Procedures used in the study. The data for this study were
obtained from 450 seventh, eighth, and ninth grade junior high school pupils. Each pupil was given a blank sheet of paper and asked to write a list of all the things any teacher, from the first grade up to the present, had ever done that he disliked greatly, and then to make a similar list of things he had liked particularly well. The 8,000 items obtained were analyzed, categorized, and tabulated according to frequency of mention.

Summary of the findings. The autocratic, domineering teacher was disliked most. The degree of dislike for such teacher behavior increased in proportion to the age of the pupils.

From the analysis of the things students liked very much, the best liked teacher may be described as kind, friendly, and cheerful; does not impose her will arbitrarily on the pupils; is not "bossy" or domineering; is fair to all pupils and gives them all opportunities to help her with various tasks; and allows sufficient freedom in the classroom while maintaining adequate discipline and respect from all pupils.11


Statement of the problem. Until recent years, pupils had no choice in the selection of materials, textbooks, the subjects which they

11 For a study which indicates a preponderance of opinion among the lay people of a typical American community in favor of democratic education, see Margaret Olive Koopman, "The Implications for Teacher Education of the Autocratic and Democratic Roles of Teachers: A Study of Role-Assigning and Role-Taking in Mount Pleasant, Michigan" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, the Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1945).
were to study, or the manner in which studying was to be carried out. The purpose of this study was to discover pupils' preferences in these matters.

 Procedures used in the study. A questionnaire was designed to reveal the interest of children in relation to the following items: (1) whether they preferred using an individual class textbook or multiple textbooks; (2) whether they preferred partner or group participation in working out their assignments; and (3) whether they preferred teacher or pupil selection of material.

 This questionnaire was administered to 546 pupils in grades IV, V, and VI.

 Summary of the findings. Children showed a significant difference in their preference for using many textbooks rather than using one class textbook.

 There was a slight preference for group work as compared with partner work.

 There was a decided preference for self-direction in finding materials.

 VI. SUMMARY

 The major conclusions of the experimental studies relating to teacher-pupil planning which have been reviewed above are:

 Students who experience democratic learning situations learn as much or more subject matter as students taught by traditional,
autocratic methods. 12

Experiencing non-traditional learning situations in the secondary schools does not impair the success of students in college. 13

Students who experience democratic leaning situations develop to a higher degree certain abilities such as:

1. The ability to think critically. 14
2. The ability to be discriminating in their use of reasons to support solutions they prefer in problem situations. 15
3. The ability to think creatively. 16
4. The capacity for originality with regard to work in progress. 17
5. The capacity to engage in self-initiated activities. 18
6. The ability to do more and better work. 19

School programs which give children opportunity to participate in activities that they enjoy and help plan develop better social attitudes than traditional school programs. Although there is not a uniformity in the findings of the studies dealing with the effect of education at various levels on the social attitudes of students, taken as a whole these studies lead to the conclusion that traditional school

References:

12 Cf. ante, Hatcher, pp. 140-42; Rehage, pp. 142-43; Thelen, pp. 144-46; Shirley and Hevner, 146-47.
13 Cf. ante, The Eight-Year Study, pp. 147-49.
14 Cf. ante, Thelen, pp. 144-46; Wrightstone, pp. 153-54.
15 Cf. ante, Rehage, pp. 142-43.
16 Cf. ante, White and Lippitt, pp. 149-53.
17 Cf. ante, White and Lippitt, pp. 149-53.
18 Cf. ante, Wrightstone, pp. 153-54.
instruction does not have much influence on the social attitudes of students. 20

It is possible to establish autocratic and democratic social climates in groups. 21

Students can be taught to use a democratic method of group thinking. 22

Group leaders can be trained to shift from authoritarian to democratic leadership. 23

The behavior of individuals operating as a democratic group is superior to the behavior of individuals operating in autocratic groups. 24

The behavior of individuals operating as a democratic group differs from the behavior of individuals operating in autocratic groups in the following ways:

1. Autocracy creates hostility and aggression among the members of a group, whereas democracy creates cooperation among the members of a group. 25

2. Autocracy creates discontent among the members of a group. 26

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20 Cf. ante, Wrightstone, pp. 153-54.
21 Cf. ante, White and Lippitt, pp. 149-53; Adams, 156-59.
22 Cf. ante, Heise, pp. 159-60.
24 Cf. ante, White and Lippitt, pp. 149-53; Adams, pp. 156-59.
26 Cf. ante, White and Lippitt, pp. 149-53.
3. There is more dependence and less individuality in autocratic groups than in democratic groups.27

4. There is a stronger feeling of "groupness" among members of a democratic group than among members of an autocratic group.28

5. There is more friendliness in democratic groups than in autocratic groups.29

6. Democratic groups tend to be more honest than autocratic groups.30

7. There is a greater amount of genuine, spontaneous work interest in democratic groups.31

8. Democratic groups have a higher degree of self-discipline.32

9. Members of autocratic groups tend to work singly, whereas members of democratic groups tend to form working sub-groups within the larger group.33

Individuals are more apt to change their behavior if they have participated in making a group decision than if the change in behavior is attempted by some autocratic means.34

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28Cf. ante, Rehage, pp. 142-43; White and Lippitt, pp. 149-53.

29Cf. ante, White and Lippitt, pp. 149-53.

30Cf. ante, Wrightstone, pp. 153-54.


Cooperative, democratic groups are superior to individuals in solving problems. 35

Students prefer democratic learning situations to traditional, autocratic learning situations. 36

35 Cf. ante, Shaw, pp. 173-74; Deutsch, 174-76; Maier, pp. 176-77.
36 Cf. ante, White and Lippitt, pp. 149-53; Witty, pp. 177-78; Tiedman, pp. 178-79; Stewart, pp. 179-80.
CHAPTER VIII

BUSINESS EDUCATION STUDENTS SHOULD HAVE THE EXPERIENCE OF COOPERATIVELY PLANNING WITH THEIR TEACHERS THEIR LEARNING ACTIVITIES

In Chapters II to VII, the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning was expressed, and the research which relates to teacher-pupil planning was reported.

It is the function of Chapters VIII to XI and Appendixes A, B, and C, by means of an examination of the literature of business education, to implement the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education and to evaluate the thinking and practices within business education with respect to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning.

Two general types of discussions appear in the literature of business education which have meaning for teacher-pupil planning—pedagogical discussions which support teacher-pupil planning concepts and discussions which report or suggest classroom practices that have meaning within teacher-pupil planning concepts. The pedagogical discussions are reported and organized in this chapter and the chapters which follow. Discussions which report or suggest classroom practices are reported and organized in the appendices.

In the chapters which report the pedagogical discussions, the major divisions within each chapter are according to basic teacher-pupil-planning concepts. Within each of the major divisions, the breakdown is according to subject matter areas. In the appendixes which report classroom practices, the major divisions are according to the nature of the
activity or example reported. As for example, all of the classroom practices which involve student participation in making community surveys are placed together. Within each of the major divisions, the breakdown is also according to subject matter areas. The heading, "Business Education in General," is used to identify concepts or examples which either deal with business education without reference to particular subject areas or which cut across several subject areas.

At the end of major divisions in the chapters reporting the excerpts from the literature of business education, the excerpts are summarized and evaluated. References are made at appropriate points in the summaries and evaluations to the classroom practices which appear in the appendixes. With respect to the implementation of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education, the effort is not merely to summarize the excerpts from the literature, but rather, to utilize the excerpts against the backdrop of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning to extend as much as possible the implementation of the philosophy for business education. The excerpts are also evaluated as to the extent and nature of the thinking and practices within business education with respect to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning.

Because of the interrelatedness of teacher-pupil-planning concepts, the division lines represented by chapter or appendix headings, and the headings within the chapters and appendixes, are not hard and fast division lines. In some cases, to have attempted to segment a discussion from the literature to make it fit the organizational pattern which evolved would have destroyed the meaningfulness of the discussion.
In these cases, the effort was to place the discussion at that place where it seemed most meaningful. Then in the summarizing and evaluative statements for major divisions, reference was made to all information from the literature which applied to that major division. For example, if a discussion from the literature is most meaningful in relation to the division, "Students Should Participate in All Phases of the Learning Situation," but also has interwoven ideas which have meaning for the division, "Ways in Which Students Can Participate in Evaluation," the discussion is placed in the division, "Students Should Participate in All Phases of the Learning Situation," with reference being made to it in the summarizing and evaluative statements dealing with the division, "Ways in Which Students Can Participate in Evaluation."

This chapter contains excerpts from the literature of business education which deal with teacher-pupil planning as regards all phases of the learning situation itself and the planning which must precede the teacher-pupil-planning learning situation. These excerpts are summarized and evaluated at the end of major divisions within this chapter.

I. STUDENTS SHOULD PARTICIPATE IN ALL PHASES OF THE LEARNING SITUATION

Business education in general. In making an appeal for democratic relations in business education classrooms, Murphy and Murphy say:

The very organization of the school, from the administration to the classroom, can be a laboratory in democracy. The students should have a part in planning the work, deciding which experiences are important, and in taking responsibility for their own actions.
Provision should be made for students and teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of their working together. This evaluation should be done in terms of objectives which are set up cooperatively and, which have in turn, served to change their ways of thinking and acting. They should decide together on the work habits and the skills and the degree of skills to be attained. Joint teacher-student planning should be featured throughout the year. Students will feel more responsible for working toward goals which they have helped to formulate.

In discussing curriculum planning in business education, Forkner says:

Interpreting the curriculum to the learner ... involves co-operative planning on the part of the teacher and the pupils. Co-operative planning assumes that the teacher knows what he wants to accomplish and knows the best ways of reaching his goals; but it also assumes that if the learners are to be intelligent about the objectives, they will be helped most if they have a part in the planning. There will be planning not only on the objectives but also on how to determine whether or not the objectives have been attained. Unless the pupil has the experience of evaluating his own work in terms of his abilities and work habits, much of the learning that takes place will have little relation to building better work habits and attitudes toward high standards of achievement.

In discussing student-teacher planning in problem solving, Christensen says:

Student-teacher planning in problem solving may be used in any area of business education. In fact, this technique should be used to teach understandings and cause and effect relationships. In basic business, accounting, or clerical classes, the procedures would be the same . . . except that the problem would be defined in that area.

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1Glen E. Murphy and Katherine Murphy, "Business Education Contributes to Democratic Living," The National Business Education Quarterly, 20:20-21, Fall, 1951.


Typewriting. In making an appeal for pupil participation in planning, Forkner says:

The teacher of typewriting, for example, can begin very early to help students plan their daily work. Instead of merely assigning an exercise or lesson, the teacher who plans with his students will draw from his students what they hope to accomplish by the exercise. The students, with the help of the teacher, will then decide what methods they might use to arrive at a satisfactory result. And finally, they plan how to evaluate their individual and class achievements.4

In discussing the teaching of typewriting, Harms says:

Four elements are basic to any skill-building program: (1) What? There should be a meeting of the minds of the teacher and students on the objectives for the period under consideration. (2) How? If possible, the students should agree on the method to be used to achieve the above objectives, (3) The Doing. The teacher, as director of learning, should give guidance and encouragement to see that the objectives agreed upon are actually put into operation by the methods selected (practice). (4) Evaluation. A continual appraisal should be made of the work accomplished in the light of established objectives...5

In a discussion of the teaching of typewriting, Blackstone and Smith say:

The theory of teaching typewriting, as that of teaching most drill subjects, seems to consist of two essential points: (1) the demonstrating of correct procedures of manipulation; and (2) the requiring of enough practice to develop a certain degree of speed and accuracy. These fundamental ideas are embellished to some extent, in typing at least, by some attention to motivation, to effective practice in habit formation, to diagnosis of difficulties, to the use of tests for the measuring of progress or achievement, and so forth; but the fundamentals commonly accepted are still the same: Show the student how to do it, and see that he practices


enough to master the activity. Nevertheless, these so-called fundamentals are entirely inadequate.

... Along with these ideas have appeared certain catch phrases,—used so often that they have become traditional—such as: "require that the first attempt be correct"; "an incorrect start is fatal"; "any erroneous procedure should be stopped immediately and the correct procedure substituted for it"; and "students cannot be expected to determine correct procedures for themselves." Thus, in the literature of typing methodology there is much concerning the necessity of a high degree of typing skill in the teacher, much concerning demonstration stands, and much about "getting the right start," but very little about developing in students any understanding of why a given procedure is best or about giving them a chance to reason and to judge procedures for themselves.

This is perhaps only an extension of the procedures to which students have been subjected throughout their elementary school training. After all, many teachers spend most of their time doing nothing more than telling students how to do things, and checking their performances to see that they are being done correctly.

... The story is often told of an incident observed in an elementary school. An observer visiting a primary class saw the teacher trying to teach the youngsters how to make a toy boat. The teacher used the following procedure: He showed the children a finished model of a paper boat, and asked if the boys and girls would each like to make one (motivation). The response being favorable, he proceeded to pass out paper, scissors, and paste. Before all the supplies had been distributed some of the eager youngsters started to fold and cut, only to be stopped by the teacher, who told them that they must wait for instructions or they would spoil their boats (curbing of initiative). This admonition not being sufficient, he finally told them to place the supplies on their desks and to fold their hands and wait until they were told what to do. Then he demonstrated the first step, by folding the paper (demonstration) and requesting that the children be very careful to get the fold exactly right, and then gave the command, "fold." He then passed about the room seeing that each fold was correct (checking), himself refolding any papers that were poorly done. During this time he had to curb again some of the children who wanted to proceed to the next step without instruction. Then he demonstrated the next step, and again checked the work of each student, and again curbed those who wanted to go ahead. Step by step he led them through the entire process and, at the end of the period, each child had a good-looking boat all finished.
The bell rang for dismissal, and one of the boys ran up to the observer to show him his boat. The observer pretended to be very much impressed by it, and expressed a desire to have one. The boy, a neighbor's child, didn't want to give the observer the boat, but promised to come over after lunch and make one for him. Sure enough, right after lunch the boy came over, got materials out, and started confidently to make another boat, using his own boat as a model; he soon got into difficulties, however, puzzled about the job for a while, and finally gave up.

That child couldn't make a boat. However, had the observer said as much to the teacher, the latter would probably have smiled at his ignorance and told him that the child certainly could make a boat for he had made one that very morning, and that it was a well-made boat, too. Could the boy make a boat? No, he could not. The teacher had made the boat, using the child's hands, and when the teacher was not available to help the boy at each step, to check his errors, and to show him what he should do instead of what he was doing, the child was helpless.

... One often wonders if teachers are not, in their typing classes, just making boats, and if much of the school work in other classes is not of the same type. ... Are they, by this traditional process of demonstration, and by their insistence that students wait for instructions so that materials may not be spoiled, simply using the hands of their students as they might the hands of robots? Are they not driving the initiative and resourcefulness out of their students by requiring the students to wait for instructions, and by their overwillingness to show the students what to do when they are puzzled?

While typing teachers are not the only ones who have the mistaken notion that a satisfactory product is the objective of activity, they probably contribute their share to the process of repressing the genius of the younger generation. After all, during the learning period, the material product—the finished paper—is decidedly less important than is the process by which the output is produced, and the assurance that the process will develop the student's ability to achieve the objective independently, when the teacher is not present to help. When this theory is accepted, there will be less interference and curbing of activity by the teacher and more freedom of action, of planning, and of judging by the students.6

Shorthand. In discussing "gentle prejudices" which have become barriers to progress in business education, Morgan says:

The teacher of shorthand who directs every aspect of class activity because she believes that students lack the capacity to participate democratically in planning their activities has a gentle prejudice.7

Bookkeeping. In discussing the planning of a unit of instruction in bookkeeping, Harms says:

"For tomorrow, we will take the next five problems," is still a common way of making the next day's assignment. The ideal is a situation where the teacher and the pupils get together and plan an endeavor that will challenge each member of the class for a period long enough to enable him to do some independent thinking and planning and to see the results of such activities. . . .8

General business. In discussing needed changes in the teaching of general business, Musselman says:

We Need a Clarification of Content Materials. This clarification must be accomplished by considering the needs and interests of the students who are to take these courses. We must give the students a voice in the planning, executing, and evaluating. . . .9

Business law. In making an appeal for getting away from the lecture method, case method, and textbook method in the teaching of business law, Hawes says:

... To devise a course more functional or purposeful we must give the students (1) a chance to satisfy their own needs, (2)


8Harms, op. cit., pp. 210-11.

an opportunity to develop new experiences, and (3) an environment in which students can manage their own experiences intelligently.

To make the law course become more functional will necessitate less stress on teacher domination and more stress on student participation. This can be accomplished even in commercial law teaching if we will only think over and beyond the adult-centered and teacher-dominated horizons that have been employed altogether too commonly in our law classrooms.

Our teaching method in law must consider the entire class. This can be done effectively only by giving all the students the chance to participate. In law this only can be done through some form of projects or other practical means which are focused on student needs, and which allow the students to correlate with the study of law whatever experiences are parts of them, and to project this environment to new situations. It is also advisable to give the students the opportunity, wherever possible, to manage their own progress intelligently.¹⁰

**Business English.** In suggesting improvements for the teaching of business English, Franck says:

... A co-operative effort on the part of the teacher and the student could be set up to establish definite goals and to develop a well-defined procedure by which these goals may be attained.¹¹

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If the subjects taught in business schools, in training schools and in all others devoted to occupational preparation are so taught that the student has an opportunity to learn how to carry responsibilities, how to plan with his fellow students, how to pursue on his own initiative the questions, issues and interests which concern him and his fellows, he will develop the characteristics which are exercised by this kind of study. If he is taught how to think deeply, how to gather facts with respect to any issue which confronts him, how to organize those facts, how to draw sound conclusions he will by that very process of teaching, develop the general habits which are known as good character. He will develop those tolerances of personality which make him attractive to others and he will have the potentialities of leadership in his being.

Such a program of teaching requires that both student and teachers participate on an equal basis in planning what is to be studied in the course and how it is to be undertaken. When genuine teacher-pupil planning is carried out, every student learns tolerance for the views of others, to participate in the discussion of common problems, to accept the will of the majority, to pursue the interests of all concerned, to become an effective social participant, to lead the thinking of his fellows when occasion demands. Contrast with him the student who dumbly accepts handed-out assignments drawn up entirely by the teacher without any consultation with the learners. This person learns submissiveness, silence in the face of commands from superiors, the attitude of one who accepts the requirements of his taskmaster. Such a student is developing those characteristics which will prevent him from becoming a socially effective person and a competent leader among his fellows.

The student who is marked strictly upon his individual conformity to the assignments of the teacher and who is taught to seek a high mark for himself regardless of the welfare of others is being prepared for a selfish individualistic position in society. With such attitudes he may trample over his fellowmen in the struggle upward but he will not become a leader in the true sense of the word, however much of eminence he may achieve for himself in the "Who's Who" records of his day. In contrast with him, the student who is rated on his achievement, not only by his teacher but by all of his fellow students, who is evaluated with respect to his effectiveness in the group with which he works, this person will learn the habits of social effectiveness which represents the best character of any group, which make one most attractive as a personality to his fellowmen and which prepare him best for leadership of others. If marks are to be given in any academic pursuit, they should be given by all the persons involved in that pursuit if we wish to build character in those involved and prepare them for leadership in subsequent social situations.
One who learns through his studies to merge his own interests with those of others, to plan with others wherever he is concerned and to co-operate under the control of the will of the majority, is learning how to live socially. He who is evaluated by his fellows and helps to evaluate them becomes highly sensitive to those things which are regarded as valuable in the society in which he lives. One who learns it also as a way of increasing goodness among his fellowmen, is developing character, leadership, and social sensitivity by such learning regardless of the subject matter studied.12

In discussing business education in relation to progressive education concepts, Beatty says:

In general, the progressive educator believes that education must, (1) have regard for individual growth; (2) make provision for the largest possible amount of self direction, including, of course, activities that require originality or creativeness; (3) place an individual in harmonious relationships with his home and larger community life; (4) accomplish these objectives by introducing purposeful activities into the classroom, thereby identifying it with the active life of the child outside of school.

The difficulty in seeing immediately the application of the broader aspects of progressive philosophy to technical education arises from the fact that technical training in many instances is concerned chiefly with forms of skills of learning rather than with content. However, the modern educator insists that there can be no effective teaching of skills without recognition of the attitudes, habits, and knowledge for which these skills will become a tool of expression. Business education has given little or no thought to the obligation of business and industry and of those associated with it so to plan their activities and operations that the general welfare of society is served. Business and industry, like government and schools, get their rights to continue to exist on the basis of their capacity to contribute to the common good. In brief, the criticism of the present business school, in many instances, is that it has made an individualistic approach to a piece of education which can be justified at public expense only when the approach is a social one.

The contribution of progressive education has been particularly

significant in this broader attempt to relate all education to culture and life and to develop in the individual not only the fullest realization of his own individual aptitudes and capacities but at the same time a recognition of the fact that this development carries with it an obligation to understand and serve the general welfare of society. The tendency to think of business education as involving solely the skills of typewriting, shorthand, and bookkeeping and accounting, is comparable to thinking of general education as limited to training in reading, writing, and speaking. In neither field is the skill fully useful until it is related to some socially significant value in the mind of the learner.\(^{13}\)

In discussing the relationship of general education and business education, Etier says:

Business education as well as general education should promote habitual democratic living in the classroom in order that it may be transferred into the society of the community and the world.

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Best results may be attained as the result of pupil-teacher planning. Business education must provide numerous opportunities for students to plan together. Through this type of education, students learn to work in harmony with one another, to respect and understand the rights and opinions of others, and to develop responsibility and leadership.\(^{14}\)

In discussing learning through group participation, Packer says:

Living in this present-day, complex, atomic-energized world now becoming known to man has made educators more aware than ever of the importance of helping their students learn to live and work in a group. As scientific research and industrial ingenuity constantly bring all men closer together, it becomes increasingly evident that people must have or acquire the skills, the know-how, and the desire to live and work together harmoniously. For, on the other hand, if people cannot or will not function interdependently, there remains only the alternative of chaotic conflict and destruction.


Educators, the world over, have the responsibility of becoming the leaders of thought and action in helping our world society learn to live and function as a united whole. And, from American educators, just as from American businessmen and American statesmen, the world is waiting for the pioneers who are willing and able to blaze new frontiers in human living.

Already the mold is being formed, with emerging school curricular patterns, such as life adjustment education for all American youth and instructional programs in common learnings. Are business education teachers to ignore their share in this responsibility by shrugging their shoulders and saying that such instruction should be charged to the social studies department or to the elementary schools? Are departments of business education in secondary schools and institutions of higher learning mistaking their role in education by thinking in terms only of developing vocational skills and lagging behind in recognizing that their students are learning in a classroom group; that they are soon to enter a world of business, whose structure is one of a highly integrated business organization? Won't these students soon be able to become participating citizens in a democratic nation striving to protect and foster its ideals throughout the world? Even now, these students are part of a family group. They are connected with some teen-age group: it may be well-organized and have some noble purpose; or it may be disorganized and perhaps exerting a disrupting and unwholesome influence on the young people within its membership. Today's youth are already members of some groups, and they are looking forward to a future when they can become a part of adult groups in both business and social life. It seems, then, if business education instruction is to be an integral and vital factor in today's schools, business teachers, along with all teachers, must seek and develop techniques for helping students to learn through group participation.15

In discussing the question as to whether or not it is a business teacher's responsibility to indoctrinate pupils with concepts such as free enterprise, individual initiative, and democratic processes and ideals, Hanna says:

The whole educational program is, in reality, an indoctrinating process. The fact that we have goals and objectives implies

indoctrination. In a democratic society we believe in free enterprise, individual initiative, and democratic processes. It is the responsibility of the public school system, therefore, to indoctrinate youth with an appreciation for and a belief in these concepts. These outcomes are not the responsibility of any one course or any group of teachers, but must be assumed by all courses and teachers.

The unfortunate thing is that we have many school systems where only lip service is given to such educational outcomes. In place of encouraging individual initiative, it is stifled. In place of making the system a sample of democratic processes at work, they are purely autocratic institutions from the administration on down through the classroom.

We do not develop individual initiative by having students read success stories, nor do we develop an appreciation for democratic ideals by having students study the constitution or repeat daily the oath of allegiance. We develop individual initiative by giving students an opportunity to exercise initiative in solving their day to day classroom problems. We develop an appreciation for democratic ideals by making our schools and classrooms examples of democratic practices in action.

Our emphasis in business education on classroom efficiency to the point of having our skill training courses completely teacher planned and teacher dominated, may be subject to criticism. Pupil-teacher planning is essential to a democratically run classroom. Flexible lesson plans are necessary if individual initiative is to be encouraged. We need to give more consideration to pupil-teacher planning in business education courses. 16

In discussing the development of desirable traits, habits, and attitudes VanBuskirk says:

So far as techniques for developing desirable traits, habits, and attitudes are concerned in any of the business subjects -- office training, distributive, or general -- we could first make a negative statement and say that they won't be learned out of a textbook, nor by the teacher's talking about them. They will be learned and developed only through opportunity to exercise them and practice them. . . . If we can set up situations in school in which there is ample opportunity for the student to assume

responsibility, carry out a job, evaluate the results he gets, experience the reward and praise that may come for a job well done, or feel the social disapproval, the censure, the embarrassment, or whatever that may come from a responsibility not fulfilled, then the student will be developing. He will be developing because he will be being given an opportunity to function in situations where important traits, habits, and attitudes have a chance to come to the surface. Of course the teacher has to face the fact that very often the failure of the student (if it turns out to be that) may reflect upon him. If he is willing to stand the criticism, knowing in his heart that maybe the more important point is that he is giving Mary an opportunity to learn and to develop, then he will be fulfilling his mission as a leader in the classroom. But if he steps in and rescues a situation, possibly his own prestige is saved, but the learning and developing opportunity for one or more individuals is probably gone.

If the teacher will permit students to help plan and think through a problem, then be willing to stand by in the role of an observer, consultant, or advisor while the task is executed and, after its execution, let the individuals or the group analyze what they have done -- decide how and why it failed, if it did -- then some valuable learning and development will doubtless have taken place. If the project failed because someone failed to fulfill his particular responsibility in the group or because someone else failed to come up to the needed standard, then the social pressure of the group or the criticism from an outsider will speak much more loudly and effectively than the teacher could do.17

In discussing student-teacher planning, Christensen says:

Businessmen are pleading: "Send us workers who have initiative, who can meet the public personally and by telephone, who can relieve us of routine and detail, who can create good will in the organization."

It is not enough for teachers to merely agree that such habits and attitudes are difficult to teach. Ways and means must be found of preparing employees for business who are equipped with understandings and abilities sufficient to enable them to adjust adequately and to act wisely on the job.

Problem solving and student-teacher planning are methods of learning through which students will be better prepared to meet

the challenge of a complex business world. Practice in analyzing and defining problems, planning an attack, working through the plan, and evaluating the results, and doing these in a group situation will give valuable practice in adjusting as workers in this democratic society...

In making an appeal for pupil participation in planning in business education classrooms, Forkner says:

Boys and girls whose teachers believe in and practice pupil-teacher planning not only learn how to perform the duties required of them, but how to work independently because they have learned how to carry out major tasks. They know how to plan their time, their work, their use of materials; and they learn how to evaluate the finished product.

... Businessmen have long criticized the schools because young people come to them without knowing how to assume and carry out responsibilities. That more businessmen do not complain is quite surprising when we see what goes on in most classes.

Too often, the teacher makes all the decisions regarding what the individual is to do; how he is to do it; whether he has done it in a satisfactory manner; and what grade he will receive at the marking period. Is it any wonder that the student has failed to develop responsibilities for undertaking a task, getting it done in minimum time, and determining whether it is well done?

A few months ago I was talking with a personnel manager about the best source of young people for his office positions. He said that he got the best students from a certain school. I knew the community where the school was located, which was like many of the surrounding communities. The boys and girls came from typical American families, and their high school seemed typical of other schools.

... I immediately made plans to visit the school and find what it was doing to train more responsible office workers.

The answer to the question was not difficult to find. There were three business teachers in this school. One of them taught most of the typing classes, another the shorthand and office

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practice, and the third, bookkeeping and related basic-business subjects. This division of responsibility was typical of many schools. But what was not typical was that each of these teachers believed in and practiced pupil-teacher planning.

I found these three teachers believed that it was more important to use some time in planning with their students and teaching them how to plan, than to use all the time to build an extra few words a minute in shorthand or typewriting or machine transcription.

I found, too, that even though considerable time was taken in each class to plan, the classes had not lowered their standards, and I also found that the school was asked for more graduates to fill positions than they had students for the jobs. Employers had learned that these young people had attained a knowledge that other schools failed to give their graduates.

The teachers went into the pupil-teacher planning program with some misgivings. They were not certain that pupils would accept responsibilities for their own work. But they reasoned that if the students did not learn to accept responsibility while in school, it would be a reflection upon the school when they went to work. The decision had paid off.

I think we will all agree that these teachers have found the solution to the problem of how to develop responsibility and at the same time maintain high standards that employers want. I am certain that if we were seeking office help, we would rather engage boys and girls who had experiences similar to these than those who have had the traditional experience of teacher-made assignments, teacher-made evaluations, teacher-made decisions.

The chief thing to bear in mind is that we want young people to develop responsibilities. We have not been successful under our traditional methods, but planning with students has resulted in such development of responsibilities...

In discussing the developing of employable qualities in business education students, Forkner says:

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The development of a sense of responsibility in our young people is one of the major tasks of those who are preparing youth for office and store occupations. To learn to assume responsibility for effective planning, for carrying out assigned tasks in good form and with accuracy, for promptness and for good personal relations requires an experience which students often miss because the school or the teacher does all the planning and the work.

Too much cannot be said about giving responsibility to those who show a lack of it. The irresponsible student is irresponsible because of the environment in which he has lived just as the responsible student learned to be responsible because of his environment. The school should provide the kind of environment necessary for student development.

... There are tasks in every classroom which can be performed by those students who give evidence that they need to develop this quality. Too often in our classes, we make the mistake of giving responsibilities to those who have already developed the ability to do things well and can be depended upon. We do not ask a student to learn something he already knows. Our job is to teach those who do not have a specific knowledge or skill. It should also apply to the development of personal qualities.

The transcription teacher, for example, knows that one of the major problems is to attain a high degree of accuracy in the use of punctuation marks. If he will appoint the students who need to develop a sense of responsibility, as well as competence in the use of punctuation marks, as a committee to prepare drills and exercises for the rest of the class, he will soon discover that these students have become proficient in this task and also have learned to assume responsibility.

A committee on letter forms might be selected. It would be responsible for checking for proper form all papers turned in by the class. Its members would be expected to collect letters from business correspondence sent to their homes, and to display, analyze and make posters of proper letter forms. If young people who need to develop competence are put on the committee instead of those who already are competent, a great many of the teacher's problems will be solved.

A committee to handle class records is also a valuable means of helping young people develop responsibility. . . .

There should be a spelling committee for the shorthand, typewriting and Dictaphone classes. It could make lists of words commonly misspelled, post these lists and conduct tests for those who cannot spell all of the words.
A calculation committee would be desirable in bookkeeping and retailing classes to develop drills and present situations in which ordinary computations would be stressed. It could also prepare tests for determining the abilities of the students.

The teachers of typewriting and transcription should certainly have a proofreading committee. Businessmen have been pleading for typists and stenographers who catch their own errors. Teachers who do all the paper checking are thus depriving their students of the opportunity to develop this most important skill.

Students who are careless in their checking should be on the proofreading committee, for if they return incorrectly checked papers, they will soon hear about it from their classmates. When one student checks another's paper, we often get more accurate work than when he is continually competing with the teacher to see if he can get by.

A committee on bookkeeping forms might collect examples of the kinds of records used by local stores and shops so that the bookkeeping teacher could adapt the problems in the textbook to real situations which the young people will face as they go to work in offices in the community. It might also be responsible for bringing into the class actual business problems for solution. For example, suppose a new store or repair shop is opening in the community. The committee would present the facts, and ask the class to design a simple system of records for an owner who knows nothing about bookkeeping.

The bookkeeping teacher should have an auditing committee through whose hands a large percentage of the class papers would clear before coming to the teacher for final approval. Students who are having difficulty in learning how to keep records will, by working on an auditing committee, soon gain a clear insight into problems which otherwise weeks of routine exercises might never accomplish.

Every class should have a supply committee to keep accurate records of supplies used by each student and supplies needed for the class. One of the common criticisms of businessmen is that young people have little or no conception of the cost of materials they use and consequently are apt to be wasteful.

Every study that has been conducted on reasons for the failure of young employees has shown that it is rarely because they cannot do the work for which they are hired, but because they do not take responsibilities or know how to get along with others. Business teachers too frequently have failed to take this fact into account,
and have continued to develop skills in specific jobs without stressing these qualities.

We do not expect students to learn to typewrite, or keep books, or operate an office machine, or sell merchandise, unless we give them practice. The teacher who has been successful in teaching all phases of office and store work is equally able to provide opportunities for other skills.

The alert teacher will have students work in groups so that he may detect those who need to develop the ability to get along with others. If the class consists of teacher-controlled situations all the time, there is little opportunity to discover which students need to learn to be tactful, sympathetic and cooperative. In bookkeeping, typewriting, transcription and office-machine classes, students should have an opportunity to work together in completing assignments.

Teachers, alert to what goes on in the better offices, know that there is a spirit of cooperation and helpfulness among the personnel. Students need this kind of experience in school.

The selfish student needs to realize that, if he is going to get along well with others on the job, he must share his abilities. The timid student, who lacks the know-how to become a member of a group, needs to learn how to work with others. The over-confident student, who knows all the answers, must be taught how he can prevent others from disliking him.

If the class is conducted along traditional lines, with the teacher always in control, the student will have a difficult time getting adjusted to an office where he has varying degrees of freedom, and where he is responsible for doing his work accurately and for getting along with his co-workers.

The teacher who believes that learning cannot take place unless everyone is quiet and working alone will not be able to lead a class along the lines suggested. Such teachers should visit offices where people do work together, where people are not seated in rows and move only when they raise their hands or when the bell rings.

Most young people are eager to take responsibilities and will assume them, if we give them the opportunities. We have also learned that it is teamwork and not individuals in competition with each other that gets the job done. The application of this knowledge will do much to make teaching a pleasure and
learning a happy experience.  

**General business.** In discussing teacher-pupil planning in general business classes, Johnson says:

The efficacy and promise of democracy can best be met in the schoolroom by offering to each student every opportunity possible for creative action and cooperative conclusion.

The purposes of democracy can be well served in the teaching of general business for it lends itself to a pupil-teacher planned program and group work better than almost any secondary school subject. To let the students know at the beginning of the year that the class is theirs is an effective method of involving pupil interest. Theirs because they can plan the course content within limits, the procedure within units of work, and the extent to which a unit is developed.

In discussing pupil participation in their learning activities in general business classes, Wells says:

... Pupil participation in planning the goals and the activities of learning is democracy in action. Co-operation, self-reliance, recognition of rights of others, appreciation of and responsibility toward common goals, and other desirable personal characteristics are given an opportunity to grow. These traits are never available in a teacher-imposed, teacher-dominated learning situation.

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**Student Participation Enhances Learning**

**Business education in general.** In making an appeal for pupil

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participation in planning in business education classrooms, Forkner says:

It is an established fact that those who share in any planning take more interest in the outcome than those who merely perform tasks. Should not business teachers capitalize on this fact? Can we not spend more time on initial planning with our students and thus motivate their learning more effectively?23

In discussing methods of teaching business subjects, Enterline says:

The teacher will find that a student-promoted lesson will create a higher degree of enthusiasm on the part of all students than one which is teacher-dominated. We as teachers talk too much. The best teacher is one who acts as supervisor, stimulator, director, and guide—but, stepping aside, so to speak, so that student interests and desires may express themselves in purposeful and enthusiastic learning activity. Increased participation on the part of more students will result... 24

In discussing learning, Wood says:

Learning, as described by many psychologists, is the phenomenon that results from the effort of the human organism to restore its equilibrium or balance. Just as food is a definite need for survival, certain abilities, skills, and understandings are also essential for survival. When physical energy is depleted, the need for food is transmitted to the stomach in terms of "hunger pangs" which persist until the need is satisfied. In this way a constant balance or equilibrium is maintained with respect to physical energy.

In similar fashion the child hears people talk and sees how much more successful this method of getting things is than his crying or snatching. He recognizes a need to be able to talk. This recognized need becomes his objective (aim, goal, purpose) and provides the motivation for learning how to talk. As long as this recognized need persists, he will continue to pursue...


activities which to him seem to help satisfy this need. When he has learned how to talk, he has satisfied his need (at least, for himself and for the present). The motivation disappears, and learning literally ceases in this respect. Before there can be very much improvement (new learning) in his talking, the need must be re-established (in his mind as well as his teacher's) so that there will be proper motivation or urge to continue learning.

Learning in commercial education follows this same pattern. If the teacher can direct the student in identifying and recognizing his needs in this area to the extent that he accepts them as more important than other conflicting and perhaps spurious needs, motivation is established. Recognition of the need upsets the complacency or equilibrium and creates a desire or urge for some ability, skill, concept, or understanding which the student does not now possess. The teacher's next task is to help him select activities which he—the student—believes will satisfy his needs. To the extent that this selection is successful the student will have confidence in his teacher on future occasions, for his needs will be satisfied and complacency restored.25

In discussing business education in relation to progressive education concepts, Reynolds says:

Education is more or less loosely defined as a process of continuous adjustment, of growth. Progressive education regards learning as taking place as the result of the relatively spontaneous, free activity of the learner. It regards the process as beginning with the environment in which the individual learner finds himself at the moment of beginning to learn. In the process of making adjustments to that environment, he develops the ability to adjust to progressively complex environments. Thus learning becomes a problem of adjusting to the immediate demands of the environment—not a process of preparation for a future environment which, as a matter of fact, may not and probably will not materialize—certainly not in a form which can be anticipated accurately.

Interest on the part of the learner is real, since the problems which he is facing have meaning and validity for him. He learns to read when he is ready to learn—and by reading; not first by spelling and putting together minute items which interfere with the satisfaction of his need. He develops an understanding of

transportation by first-hand contacts with the various means of transportation. He learns about industry through the study of his local industry—through independent investigation and observation.

The role of the teacher in this scheme becomes that of a wise guide who assists pupils in the selection of socially defensible activities, and in the later evaluation of the outcomes of these activities.

Persons with business ability are to be developed by the business education curriculum. To accomplish this, business education by providing opportunities for self-initiated and self-directed learning under wise guidance must seek to enable high school pupils to be intelligent members of and contributors to their business environment while they are still in school so that they may maintain this ability throughout life.26

In discussing business education in reference to the concepts of progressive education, Beatty says:

Making the child's work in school purposeful simply means that his school environment should be so planned and his activities so directed that he becomes a willing, active and self-motivated learner. This concept is entirely absent from the traditional philosophies of education.

... In studying shorthand, typewriting, bookkeeping, accounting, and the like, students are learning a skill and in the learning of a skill, drill is fundamental. Drill which is unmotivated is wasteful and uneconomic and does not last. However, courses of this type lead to their own reward so naturally that it would not seem necessary to fall back on old-fashioned types of artificial stimulus by extraneous prizes. It should be so easy to find real situations in which typewriting, shorthand, or bookkeeping still can be used, that unless the school deliberately and artificially routinizes the teaching of such subjects, the purposefulness which the progressive educator seeks for all phases of education, appears to be already present... 27


In discussing business education in relation to the progressive education movement, Tonne says:

... progressive education must be given recognition for adapting the findings of psychology to school practices. The traditional school has been compelled to deviate from continuing without question the formal practices of rote learning. ... 

Most business teachers have discovered that students from progressive schools are likely to show greater initiative and intelligence. They have a clearer idea, as a rule, of what they want to do and pursue these objectives with more urgency. Progressive schools give the student a security which the product of the conventional school often lacks. He is secure because his native abilities have been fostered and respected. The focus of schooling has been upon the student himself, on what he is and what he can make of himself.

The business teacher is usually subject-minded, and therefore, all too frequently, finds the natural exuberance of the child brought up in a progressive school trying. Business teachers have been brought up on a notion that students should do what they are told to do, learn because the teacher says that learning is important, and be concerned about test results. Business teachers must not, in their annoyance at having to make adjustments, dismiss the great gains that this enthusiasm for life begotten from the progressive school achieves.28

In discussing the improvement of classroom teaching in business education, Forkner says:

The third point has to do with the statement that much of what is called "business education" is not education but is merely training. My distinction between education and training is simply this: Animals can be trained to perform certain difficult feats. These feats are independent of the rest of the life of the animal. The performance is the result of a series of learned responses to certain well-defined stimuli, usually in the form of responses to punishment. The responses are "thoughtless" responses. They do not alter the other phases of the life of the animal. In education we attempt to get the learner to utilize the experiences of the past and to project those experiences into the future to determine

a satisfactory course of action. He learns to use judgment in
making decisions by bringing the experiences of the past to bear
on the present. He learns to perform new tasks by relating them
to the use he will make of them and to his former experiences.

Of course, where teaching is controlled by a system of exami-
nations which are to determine whether or not a student is to be
promoted, education ceases and only training takes place. The
examination becomes the stimulus and the learning occurs under
conditions that are entirely remote from their use or from their
relations to other fields of learning. Teaching under such conditions
becomes coaching rather than directed learning. The effective
teacher is one who helps others to find and take the easiest and
best way to gain knowledge and to develop skills in relation to
desirable objectives. The effective teacher does more than pour
in facts and drill on skills. He directs the student toward be-
coming his own teacher, to evaluate his own outcomes, and to
improve where improvement is needed. The effective teacher uses
subject matter or drill as vehicles to carry the student into
new experiences and new ambitions. Effective teaching cannot take
place, however, when all children, regardless of abilities, needs,
and ambitions are subjected to the same detailed pattern; when
teachers are expected to see that all the students attain certain
arbitrary standards, set by uniform examination.29

In a discussion of learning, Harms says:

Basically the principles involved in learning a skill do not
differ from other modes of learning. The procedure is simply
a matter of having a meeting of the minds of those concerned—
students, teachers, parents, and administrators—as to: (1)
What behavior patterns, general and specific, are desired, (2)
how to bring these mutually-agreed-upon goals into being, (3)
supervision on the part of the teacher so that by intelligent
guidance and skillful motivation the plans decided upon may be
put into operation, (4) evaluation in terms of acceptable voca-
tional standards.30

Distributive education. In discussing unit planning in retailing,

29Hamden L. Forkner, "The Improvement of Classroom Teaching in
Business Education," Twelfth Yearbook, Eastern Commercial Teachers'

30Harm Harms, Methods in Vocational Business Education (Cincinnati:
Swank says:

In the development of the plan, it is well to remember that to increase and to utilize fully the interest the pupils have for the work at hand, they must feel that it is their plan, and not just another assignment thrust upon them by the teacher. Learning takes place when pupils accept study activities as purposeful. Care must be taken that direction of learning activities does not become dictatorial command. The individual student should be encouraged to furnish much of the information for the unit.31

In discussing student activities in distributive education,

Kneeland says:

Activities for their own sake have little to recommend them. But activities, guided carefully by an alert instructor and engaged in purposefully by understanding students, represent what is probably the most effective way of learning. Directed activities put theory into practice.

The entire vocational emphasis in distributive education is based on the concept that students, under proper direction, learn by doing. That is the philosophy of co-operative training. That should be the philosophy and practice, in every D. E. classroom, as well.

The start of the activity depends on the kind of project and number of students who participate in it. Most activities (one is tempted to say all) should be initiated in class, so that there is ample opportunity to review what is to be done.32

General business. In discussing pupil planning in basic business courses, Heimerl says:

If pupils in basic business courses have an opportunity to help


in the planning, they will take more interest and consequently benefit more from the activities.33

In discussing the motivation of junior business training classes through pupil activity, Bente says:

. . . The words "pupil participation and pupil doings" immediately form in my mind a pattern of activity on the part of the pupils. It presents for those resourceful teachers a solution to the problem of motivating pupil interest. By activity is not meant the meaningless "busybody" work which characterizes so many of our business training courses as they are now taught. Rather it means both mental and physical participation in actual experiences on the part of the students. Ways should be found to put into actual practice such fundamental business principles and activities which are being taught. Boys and girls learn better that information and material in which they actually participate.

 Probably no other subject lends itself so well to the various techniques and devices of teachers. . . . Practically all topics studied may be developed and planned with a view to creating a learning situation in which the learning is achieved through pupil participation.34

Consumer education. In discussing learning activities in consumer education, Price says:

. . . learning situations involving the maximum of pupil participation are likely to be superior to those situations that are completely dominated by the teacher.

The interest of pupils and effectiveness of learning is likely to be increased in proportion to the extent to which pupils are given responsibility by the consumer teacher in planning the


course and in gathering and interpreting data. The ability of pupils to recognize and solve their problems as consumers is certain to be in direct proportion to their opportunities to actively participate.

Committee reports in terms of dramatizations, debates, round-table discussions, and quiz programs are stimulating and interesting to both the participants and the other members of the class. Any procedures that make maximum use of planned pupil activity is likely to pay big dividends in effective learning. It is obvious that such learning devices must be used intelligently in order to avoid situations that provide only busy work. Any method which encourages wide use of pupil initiative and responsibility is likely to be more effective than those which do not.

Summary and Evaluation

Students should participate in all phases of the learning situation. All of the excerpts from the literature of business education in this section include in some way the idea that students should participate in the learning situation. The idea is present that this is true of all subject matter areas within business education—some of the writers were discussing business education generally without reference to particular subject matter areas within business education; other writers expressed this concept in relation to the subject matter areas


of typewriting,\textsuperscript{37} shorthand,\textsuperscript{38} bookkeeping,\textsuperscript{39} general business,\textsuperscript{40} business law,\textsuperscript{41} business English,\textsuperscript{42} distributive education,\textsuperscript{43} and consumer education.\textsuperscript{44} One writer specifically states that teacher-pupil planning can be used in any area of business education.\textsuperscript{45}

Fewer of the discussions spell out that students should participate in all phases of the learning situation—that is, participation in determining goals and objectives, participation in working toward goals and objectives, and participation in evaluating the extent to which goals and objectives were reached.\textsuperscript{46}

A number of reasons are given as to why students should participate in the learning situation which are in conformity with the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning as set forth in this study. First of all,

\textsuperscript{37}Cf. ante, Forkner, p. 189; Harms, p. 189; Blackstone and Smith, pp. 189-91.

\textsuperscript{38}Cf. ante, Morgan, p. 192.

\textsuperscript{39}Cf. ante, Harms, p. 192.

\textsuperscript{40}Cf. ante, Musselman, p. 192; Johnson, p. 205; Wells, p. 205; Heimerl, pp. 211-12; Bente, p. 212.

\textsuperscript{41}Cf. ante, Hawes, pp. 192-93.

\textsuperscript{42}Cf. ante, Franck, p. 193.

\textsuperscript{43}Cf. ante, Swank, pp. 210-11; Kneeland, p. 211.

\textsuperscript{44}Cf. ante, Price, pp. 212-13.

\textsuperscript{45}Cf. ante, Christensen, p. 188.

\textsuperscript{46}Cf. ante, Forkner, pp. p. 189, 200-205; Harms, p. 189; Blackstone and Smith, pp. 189-91; Musselman, p. 192; Trout, pp. 193-95; VanBuskirk, pp. 198-99; Christensen, pp. 199-200.
there is support for the concept that it is the responsibility of education to develop democratic citizenship with recognition being given that this is a responsibility that must be assumed by all areas, including business education.\(^\text{17}\) There is more support for the allied concept that student participation develops the characteristics and skills needed in a democracy.\(^\text{18}\) At most, though, it could only be said that meager thought has been given to these concepts in the literature of business education. When the entirety of the material uncovered by this study is considered, it becomes apparent that in the majority of cases where teacher-pupil planning concepts and practices appear, the explanation for the concept or practice is usually that learning is enhanced thereby. In terms of the importance to teacher-pupil planning of the concepts that the major responsibility of education is to develop democratic citizenship and that student participation develops the characteristics and skills needed in a democracy, it seems particularly crucial that little thought has been given to these concepts in the literature of business education.

There is support in this section for the concept that student participation in the learning situation enhances learning.\(^\text{19}\)

\(^{17}\)Cf. ante, Packer, pp. 196-97; Etier, p. 196; Hanna, pp. 197-98; Johnson, p. 205.

\(^{18}\)Cf. ante, Trout, pp. 193-95; Etier, p. 196; Packer, pp. 196-97; Hanna, pp. 197-98; VanBuskirk, pp. 198-99; Christensen, pp. 199-200; Forkner, pp. 201-5; Wells, p. 205. Cf. post, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 467-72.

\(^{19}\)Cf. ante, Forkner, pp. 206, 209-10; Enterline, p. 206; Wood,
In Chapter V, it was pointed out that teacher-pupil planning is consonant with newer concepts as to how learning takes place. Certain concepts of the field theories creep into the literature—the individual learns to do by doing; learning is a process of achieving adjustment by means of relieving tensions which have been created in the interaction of the individual with his environment; learning is the result of the continuing interaction between the organism and its environment; each experience to which the individual adjusts leaves the individual changed so that he behaves differently thereafter—he has new capacities for confronting future problems which will confront him in his environment; the needs and interests of the individual provide the force which impels him to seek and attain adjustment. However, even an effort to piece together concepts from various sources does not evolve anything which might be considered a complete consideration of field theories. And there is no evidence in the literature of a coming to grips with the two basic schools of thought as regards learning—association theories and

pp. 206-7; Reynolds, pp. 207-8; Beatty, p. 208; Swank, pp. 210-11; Kneeland, p. 211; Heimerl, pp. 211-12; Bente, p. 212; Price, pp. 212-13.

50 Supra, pp. 122-28.
51 Cf. ante, Reynolds, pp. 207-8; Kneeland, p. 211.
52 Cf. ante, Wood, pp. 206-7; Reynolds, pp. 207-8.
53 Cf. ante, Reynolds, pp. 207-8.
54 Cf. ante, Reynolds, pp. 207-8; Forkner, pp. 209-10.
field theories. The usual explanation for the fact that student participation enhances learning is that such participation provides more effective motivation stemming from greater interest on the part of the student.\footnote{Cf. ante, Forkner, pp. 205-6; Enterline, p. 206; Swank, pp. 210-11; Heimerl, pp. 211-12; Bante, p. 212; Price, pp. 212-13. Cf. post, Enterline, p. 226; Blackstone, pp. 226-27.} While this is true, it seems critical that the literature of business education should not have given fuller thought to concepts as to how learning takes place.

It should be pointed out that there is added support for the "learning to do by doing" concept as to how learning takes place through some support for the concept that the characteristics and skills necessary for democratic living can only be learned through experiencing situations which develop those characteristics and skills.\footnote{Cf. ante, Hanna, pp. 197-98; VanBuskirk, pp. 198-99; Forkner, pp. 201-5.} There is not as much support, however, for this concept in relation to subject matter knowledges—that as Reynolds expresses it, "he [the student] develops an understanding of transportation by first-hand contacts with various means of transportation. He learns about industry through the study of his local industry—through independent investigation and observation."\footnote{Cf. ante, Reynolds, pp. 207-8.}

The excerpts from the literature of business education in this section reveal certain special implications of teacher-pupil planning concepts for business education. These will now be considered.
The characteristics and skills needed for successful democratic living are also the characteristics and skills needed for successful participation in business. The development of characteristics and skills necessary for successful democratic living has special meaning for business education in that these are the characteristics and skills which are also needed for successful participation in business.\(^5^9\) One aspect of this is that business in a democracy, just as with the government and with schools, gets its right to continue to exist on the basis of its capacity to contribute to the common good. That is, business in a democracy is not an island set apart from the ideals to which a democratic society subscribes. Business needs people who possess the characteristics and skills needed for planning and carrying out the activities and operations of the business so that the general welfare of society is served.\(^6^0\) These characteristics and skills are not different from those needed by an individual for successful participation in non-business activities.

More specifically, for at least a decade businessmen have been pleading for office workers who possess characteristics which enable them to get along with others and who have skills for assuming responsibilities.\(^6^1\) All of the studies which have been made on reasons why

\(^5^9\)Cf. ante, Christensen, pp. 199-200; Forkner, pp. 200-205. Cf. post, Girls High School, pp. 188-90.

\(^6^0\)Cf. ante, Beatty, pp. 195-96.

\(^6^1\)Cf. ante, Christensen, pp. 199-200; Forkner, pp. 200-201.
office workers fail on the job indicate that it is rarely because they cannot do the work, but rather, because they cannot take responsibilities and do not know how to get along with others.\textsuperscript{62} Of the implications of this for business education, Forkner says:

The development of a sense of responsibility in our young people is one of the major tasks of those who are preparing youth for office and store occupations. To learn to assume responsibility for effective planning, for carrying out assigned tasks in good form and with accuracy, for promptness and for good personal relations requires an experience which students often miss because the school or the teacher does all the planning and the work.\textsuperscript{63}

Thus, it could be said that the general education objective of developing characteristics and skills necessary for successful living in a democracy is also a vocational objective of business education; and that teacher-pupil planning becomes the means of developing better vocational workers.

**Student participation in all phases of the learning situation** applied to the skill areas as well as the non-skill areas of business education. Another special implication of teacher-pupil planning for business education has to do with the skill area of business education. In the main, skill courses are teacher planned and teacher dominated.\textsuperscript{64}

There is a rather common feeling in business education that skill courses must be taught differently from non-skill courses. If there is

\textsuperscript{62}Cf. ante, Forkner, p. 203.


\textsuperscript{64}Cf. ante, Hanna, pp. 197-98.
a logical explanation for this feeling other than the influence of textbook writers and publishing house representatives, it is that a concept exists that learning takes place differently in a skill course than in a non-skill course and that these differences make it necessary for skill courses to be teacher dominated. A popular methods book in business education expresses this concept as follows:

The activity that results in student learning in the social-business subjects is quite different from that found in the business skills. In typewriting practice, the student imitates as faithfully as possible the examples set by the teacher, using the drill material supplied. In studying a unit in the social-business subjects, however, a variety of procedures is used. For instance, if the study of the Pan-American Highway is presented as a unit for integrating a variety of learnings about economic geographical conditions in North and South America, the students would read selectively, participate in small discussion groups, study maps, and possibly develop various small projects. The teacher's function in a unit of this type is to help students obtain materials, differentiate between important and unimportant materials, see relationships that might not be apparent to the student, and eliminate waste effort if poor reading materials have been selected.65

As has been stated, there is no evidence in the literature of a full consideration of concepts as to how learning takes place. There is little to throw light on the question as to whether learning takes place differently in skill than in non-skill subjects. Harms does state that the basic principles involved in learning a skill do not differ from other modes of learning.66 The position of this study is that there are not basic differences—that an indefensible dichotomy

is set up when learning is considered to take place differently in different areas.

The question as to whether or not teacher-pupil planning should be utilized in skill areas, however, does not turn on the question as to whether or not differences exist in how learning might take place most effectively in the skill areas as compared with the non-skill areas. Even if it were true that a higher level of word-per-minute skill could be developed by autocratic methods, it is more important that the student develop the characteristics and skills necessary for successful living in a democracy. And it is not a question of doing both—that is, the answer is not to be found in saying that typing and shorthand classes will develop word-per-minute skill and leave democratic skills to be developed by other ideational areas in business education and in the school. Individuals are developing social attitudes and habits in each environment they contact. If business education skill courses are teacher-dominated, autocratic learning situations, then the major responsibility of the school to develop democratic citizenship will be jeopardized. Schools which are dedicated to the philosophy of developing democratic citizenship through teacher-pupil planning will not permit this objective to be jeopardized by the existence of autocratic environments. 67 Another aspect of this which is inferred by Tonne is that students who have developed characteristics and skills for group participation are not going to be the submissive students required

67 Supra, pp. 133-38.
in a classroom where, for example, the shorthand teacher directs every aspect of the course. 68

Even though the question as to whether or not teacher-pupil planning should be utilized in skill areas does not turn on the question as to how skill can be most effectively developed, there is support that learnings other than the development of characteristics and skills needed for successful living in a democracy will be more effective if teacher-pupil planning is utilized. If learning is conceived to take place in the same way in skill areas as in non-skill areas, then the experimental research which has been done in non-skill subject matter areas has meaning for skill areas. This research indicates that teacher-pupil planning is a superior method of achieving traditional outcomes—students learn more subject matter. 69 In this connection, reference should be made to the report by Forkner in this section that in a school where teacher-pupil planning was being used in skill areas, the students were developing as high a degree of skill, even though considerable time was taken in classes for teacher-pupil planning activities. 70

If students are to participate in the learning situation in skill areas, teachers of typewriting will have to discard the routine of first demonstrating to the student the correct way of machine manipulation and then checking to see that the students practice enough

68 Cf. ante, Tonne, p. 209.
69 Supra, pp. 1h0-47, 180-81.
70 Cf. ante, Forkner, pp. 200-201.
to master the thing that has been demonstrated. Teachers of shorthand will also have to discard the routine of telling and showing how something is done, followed by teacher-planned and teacher-conducted drills in terms of the thing told and showed. Skill area teachers must recognize that skill, as with other learnings, is something which must be achieved by the learner himself—it is not something which is bestowed on the learner by the teacher.

II. STUDENT PARTICIPATION DEMANDS A LEARNING SITUATION BASED ON THE COMMON INTERESTS, PROBLEMS, AND PURPOSES OF THE STUDENTS

Business education in general. In discussing curriculum planning in business education, Forkner says:

The only determiner of curriculum content that is designed to enhance the growth and development of the individual is the learner himself. If we define his interests as those things he is excited about, his needs as those things that our adult experience indicates he will have to have to live successfully, and his concerns as those things that he is uncertain about, then we have the center around which to develop the content.

But content must not be thought of as subjects, isolated from each other. Content of the business curriculum, whether we refer to vocational skill subjects or to basic business subjects, is determined by the interests, needs, and concerns of the individual. It is not determined by the content of examinations that someone or some committee develops for average boys and girls in average situations. It is not determined by a textbook author, who never intended his book to be used as the curriculum but as an aid to the curriculum.

71 Cf. ante, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 189-91. Cf. post, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 467-72.

72 Cf. post, Lessenberry, p. 227.
Mary Allison is a student in a small high school where there is only one business teacher. She wants to learn enough bookkeeping and secretarial skills to be able to hold a job in the local creamery, which her uncle owns. He rarely dictates letters but will expect her to be able to answer most of the letters that come to his office. He handles the problems of the monthly financial statements, but he wants her to know how to keep the set of books he has established. Mary lives in a state where she must take certain state examinations before she can secure a Regents diploma. The Regents diploma has been held up as the proper thing to work for. The high school curriculum is built around the Regents requirements. The school that she attends has a record of high accomplishment on Regents examinations. What are Mary and the business teacher in that school going to be able to do to meet Mary's interests, her needs, and her concerns? Precious little. Mary may know some abstract theories about bookkeeping, but neither she nor the teacher will be able to work out principles that apply to her uncle's business because they must prepare for the Regents examination. Mary will probably never need to take dictation at 80 words a minute, but she must learn to do much better than that because one can never tell how difficult the examination may be and one must be able to write the simple words at a much higher rate in order to have time to construct the outlines for the unusual words. Of course, in her uncle's business no one is going to collect her notes to see if she wrote some longhand words for those unusual words, but the state examination committee will. Mary would like to have learned something about how to take a letter and construct a good letter in reply, but the pressure is on the teacher and on her to meet high state standards for something she will very likely never use; consequently she does not have time to learn how to handle correspondence.

Mary's case could be repeated in literally hundreds of thousands of cases. The pressure is on to complete so many pages or chapters in a book, or to cover all the topics in a syllabus, or to meet standards of city or state examination committees. Education is incidental to this procedure. And so Mary graduates, and the next few months are spent in her uncle's office learning to do the things that the school should have taught her if it had taken her interests, needs, and concerns as the curriculum content.73

In discussing the values of pupil initiative in the learning situation in business education classes, Ragsdale says:

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Anyone can make a game of asking questions and raising doubts. Intellectual curiosity implies an important something more; the really curious person is concerned about the answer; he sincerely desires to know something because it is important to him. The art of arousing intellectual curiosity is the art of creating desires, wants, interests. These things cannot be forced upon a student; the teacher may secure work that passes for study by threat of punishment or promise of reward. Real interest has other sources; it comes from the prior existing activities of students. To develop a new interest start with a present desire. The teacher must be alert to the interests and activities of students, must be a student of the community life; must be aware of the events of the day. Has a bank failure affected the lives of the students? If so, use it as a motivating force for studying banking, as a source of questions about financial matters. Has a new store been established in the community? Start there with a study of the services, functions, rewards, and responsibilities of the retail merchant. Is there a labor disturbance in a local industry, or a bonus given at Christmas time to employees? Let such events lead to questions about labor relations in industry. What is the current condition as regards rainfall, temperature, agricultural production? Study these things in relationship to the welfare of local and national commercial institutions. Is some current work of fiction being widely read in the community? Explore it for good opportunities for enlightening discussion of business matters.74

In discussing the sequence of experiences in the business curriculum, the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota says:

The kinds of experiences students have and their sequence will depend upon the previous experiences of the learners in any group and upon their expanding needs and insights. Continuity of experience lies within the learner, not within the materials he uses in solving problems. Each experience that the learner has builds upon and expands his insights. Each experience reveals new needs and interests. The order in which that expansion will take place will vary.75


In discussing methods of teaching business subjects, Enterline says:

It was stated previously that heterogeneity is an asset. Too frequently we think of heterogeneity only in terms of intelligence. The term heterogeneity is being used here in a very broad sense—to include not only mental ability, but family background, interests, and so on. It is the responsibility of the teacher to discover these interests.

The discovery of student interests is not always easy. They are frequently submerged. Capitalize on student interests. Put them to work. Interests represent the avenue through which students are stimulated. The mistake is frequently made of expecting each and every student to express the same degree of interest in each and every unit of work. Life is not like that. Life is made up of a variety of interests.

Having discovered the interests of students, activity will follow as a natural psychological sequence. If three or four students express interest in a particular area of work, permit them to prepare the lesson, conduct demonstrations, make necessary researches, and then present the lesson—all under teacher guidance and direction, of course.

In discussing criteria for evaluating teaching in business education, Blackstone says:

The second criterion is the wholeheartedness of the purposing exhibited by the students. If the lesson is one which the students accept as a worth while activity for themselves, in the present as well as in the future, they will be eager to learn it. Not all lessons are so accepted, unfortunately. Many seem futile and useless to the students, and the teacher sometimes excuses the presentation of such a lesson because "it is required by the course of study" or because "the time will come when you'll be glad I made you learn it." Out of all the worth while things there are to be learned about business, it should be possible to select those which students will recognize as worth learning or

so to stimulate the lesson that students will accept it willingly.77

In discussing the necessity for knowing pupil objectives, Angleton says:

Business teachers have manifested a great deal of concern over what businessmen expect of our graduates. Thesis after thesis has been written on such topics as "What Business Demands of the Clerical Worker." Very little emphasis has been given to what the students in our departments of business education want.

Pupils have definite reasons for choosing the elective courses in which they enroll. To the administrator and teacher who has had so much more experience than the pupil these reasons may seem very insignificant. But to the pupils who are in a course for definite reasons these reasons are important. Therefore, the pupils' objectives certainly should be known by the teachers.78

Typewriting. In discussing motivation problems in the teaching of typewriting, Lessenberry says:

The starting point in the teaching of typewriting is with the student. His needs must determine the content of our courses; his attitude will, to a large extent, determine his success or failure in his work. Teaching typewriting, then, calls for a co-operative attack by teacher and student. The student must understand his responsibility for organizing teaching materials into problems through which typing power can be achieved--for achieved it must be--it cannot be bestowed. . . .79

Distributive education. In discussing the effectiveness of instruction in distributive education classes when the instruction


grows out of the felt needs of pupils arising from work experiences, Brown says:

It is axiomatic that people learn most readily and permanently that which is learned when it is wanted, when it is needed, and when it is used to serve a need recognized by the learner. Since compulsory school attendance laws, together with child labor laws, have combined to postpone the initial wage-earning experience of pupils, the cooperative part-time program frequently provides the first work experience of pupils. Therefore, as pupils prepare to enter work situations with regularly employed adults, they feel keenly their need for help and look to the coordinator for assistance in solving their problems.

A typical class in distributive education is made up of pupils placed in many different types of businesses and in many different jobs within those businesses. The teacher-coordinator is faced with the problem of meeting the varying needs of all pupils.

General business. In discussing group guidance techniques in general business, Hypp's says:

With beginners in a "general business" class, the starting point is with them and their interests, rather than with a regular assignment chosen with no previous knowledge of the incoming pupils . . . Guidance . . . becomes the keynote for their successful orientation into the social-business environment in which every citizen lives and to which he contributes.

The best guidance does not consist of direct leadership, but well-planned assistance by which pupils learn to make personal progress toward consciously chosen standards for the common good. No teacher of general business can lend this type of well-planned assistance without first knowing what the knowledges, attitudes, and interests of the pupils are in relation to business. The easiest way to find out these things is to ask.

In discussing the fact that the sequence of experiences in the


business curriculum should provide expanding insights and understandings, the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota says:

The first experiences in the study of business education for everyday living, for example, will be those which students recognize as immediate problems. For one group, the problems may deal with efficient handling of money; for another group, they may be concerned with the buying of clothing or other goods; for still another group, they may be problems of evaluating advertising. Out of the experiences students have in solving their immediate business problems, new interests will be revealed and will lead into succeeding problems which will afford constantly widening experiences.82

**Business law.** In discussing the improvement of teaching business law, Jacobs says:

... in the teaching of business law, teachers should examine the topics and subjects that will fall within the life experiences of our young people. No wonder law classes become dull and uninteresting when the teacher spends hours upon topics far removed from the life experiences of the pupils. When will the average high-school student use or need partnership and corporation law? Certainly not for many years. If this necessity ever does arise, the learning process will be speeded up by the urgent need for the information at that time.83

**Problem Type of Approach to Learning**

**Business education in general.** In discussing the necessity of teaching pupils how to think, Huffman says:

The need for business educators to be seriously concerned about the development of critical and independent thinking in their students is evident. Under the traditional system of education, pupils are for the most part denied opportunity to recognize

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their problems and to devise satisfactory solutions. Instead they are presented with the accumulated culture of man and expected to develop somehow mysteriously their powers of creative thinking by emulating the best thinking of the past. On the other hand, modern education has shown that in order to develop a basis for sound judgment the pupil must increasingly be allowed to formulate and to act upon his own judgments. As he meets his problems, devises alternative solutions, chooses the one that appears most appropriate and puts it into action, and finally evaluates the results—in this way, he is learning by first-hand experience to refine his thinking.

In discussing the values of pupil initiative in the learning situation, Ragsdale says:

... The teacher must take the lead in asking questions; we do not refer to asking the student to recite what he has memorized. The teacher must raise doubts in his own mind and in the minds of the students which can be resolved only by a study program undertaken together. The student must not feel that the teacher already knows all the answers and is merely waiting to catch the student in errors; the teacher should be a more mature leader who is working with the class in the attack upon problems whose final solution is as yet unknown to teacher and students alike. This classroom attitude is fundamental to the stimulation of student questioning activity. A good, healthy skepticism is one of the marks of a good classroom. To memorize facts unrelated to recognized problems is deadening; the true function of facts is found in their usefulness in solving problems.

How, then, do questions and problems arise? They arise primarily out of the conviction that all is not known about any important matter. When a business practice is being described and studied, question its effectiveness, its suitability to local conditions, its applicability to other types of business, its ethical justification; do not accept it as merely something to be learned in a course in business training. Starting in the first class meeting, encourage the students to intelligently question and doubt the theories and practices that are being studied; let pupils learn that study means critical evaluation much more than memorizing. Encourage students to draw up lists of key questions, similar to those mentioned in this paragraph, to be used in getting started at questioning in any particular case. Certainly we do not mean that

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either teacher or pupil should ordinarily propose questions merely to confound their associates in study; every legitimate question should lead to an earnest search for an answer, an ultimate conclusion, even though highly tentative. Any question is legitimate when the person asking it earnestly desires an answer.

The foregoing discussion should make it clear that curiosity begins when individuals see that everyday happenings of all kinds affect their lives and the study of events will give rewards in terms of more effective and more satisfactory living. Questions or problems arise because an individual is alert to occurrences in his environment. The teacher should not so much assign problems for study as set an example of initiative in discovering problems and thereby lead students to do the same for themselves. In general a good pupil-proposed question should be studied in preference to a good teacher-proposed one.

The atmosphere of the school must be free from pressure to accept teacher-or textbook-sponsored ideas; the emphasis must be upon the need for personally convincing evidence. The distinction between authority and direct evidence must be learned. The school may legitimately expect familiarity with important authoritative opinion but should not require its acceptance. Students who doubt authority and give evidence should be esteemed more highly than those who accept blindly. On the other hand a student's opinion unsupported by evidence within the student's knowledge must be questioned by the teacher even though the opinion is good. The teacher must work for the development of an attitude of suspicion of any opinion or generalization that is unsupported by important evidence. While the early appeal to authority is to be avoided, it has a proper place as the last resort of an individual who is unable to form an opinion of his own; on this account it is desirable to learn the characteristics of good authority and the sources of authoritative opinion. The functions of reference works, and of professional advisers such as medical men, lawyers, and teachers, should be studied. It is essential also that certain sources of propaganda be studied, such as newspapers, motion pictures, the radio, and political pronouncements. It is out of the free exchange of opposing opinion and conflicting evidence that caution in accepting generalization is born.

The news of the day is full of opportunities for teaching caution in accepting opinions. In the past decade we have seen the wide extension of chain stores coupled with legislation designed to hamper their growth, the great development of consumer co-operatives aided by favorable legislation and opposed by large and small private enterprise. Prejudices for and against are strong; the evidence needed for critical evaluation is incomplete and difficult
to obtain. It is through careful study of such matters, through specific listing of opinions and their sources, through collection and logical treatment of available, even though incomplete, data that students learn how to avoid prejudiced thinking and how to combat the continuous stream of propaganda. The teacher's concern in the classroom must be far more with the worth and soundness of the thinking processes than with the ultimate validity of the conclusions reached. The student who knows how to think will correct erroneous conclusions and meet life's problems effectively; the one who has merely memorized authoritative opinion will soon be hopelessly behind the times.\footnote{Clarence E. Ragsdale, "Teaching for Self-Discovery and Self-Direction," Fifth Yearbook of the National Commercial Teachers Federation, 1939, pp. 78-85.}

In discussing criteria for evaluating teaching in business education, Blackstone says:

The third criterion is the nature and effectiveness of the planning and executing which is done by the students. In a good lesson, students strive to find solutions; they are not told exactly what to do. Of course, at the beginning, they will be weak in planning, but the only way to strengthen them is to give them opportunity to learn how to plan better. The teacher who demonstrates a process at the beginning of a lesson takes away from the students the opportunity to learn, for themselves, as much as they can of the one best way of doing it. It is true that by demonstration the instructor may teach more quickly the skill with which she is immediately but shortsightedly concerned, but unfortunately, the skill is all that she teaches, and that is not enough. Students must be given the opportunity to plan and try out their own solutions. Then they should be encouraged to report their plans, to hear the solutions suggested by other students, to argue about the merits of each, and ultimately to plan together the best way of doing the task. This provides training in working together cooperatively, a thing they will be expected to do for the remainder of their lives. What could be more valuable? Out of such a process comes increased power to plan, to evaluate proposals, to seek and to demand good reasons for any proposed procedure. It is not to be expected that immature students will, by this process, learn the one best way of performing an operation; all that may be asked is that they try to solve the problems before they are finally told and shown the best way. Ultimately the very best way may be demonstrated to them, but such demonstration should be provided as a fixing or
summary process, not as original instructions. The good teacher, then, trains students to plan solutions ever more efficiently; she does not do the planning for them.86

Typewriting. In discussing the anticipation of student difficulties in the teaching of typewriting, Blackstone and Smith say:

... the teacher should recognize that the student will grow best if he has abundant opportunities to try to solve his problems himself, and if he can hit upon his own solution without the aid of the teacher, such achievement will be a great incentive to him to try other problems himself.

Perhaps the reasons that teachers give complete directions to the students at the beginning of a lesson and thus prevent them from running into difficulties are: (1) the teachers know that students will make mistakes and waste paper and other supplies; (2) the students tend to become discouraged very easily--at the beginning of the course at least. Although either of these situations may occur, yet the students will never, under any circumstances, learn to get things right the first time, or to refrain from becoming discouraged unless they are permitted to try. The wise teacher should be satisfied with low levels at first, but only if they become consistently higher, for such a condition would mean growth, which is precisely what he is seeking.

... [A] grave fault in skill building, and in other types of teaching as well, is that of telling students to do a thing a certain way merely because the teacher tells them to do so. A teacher who does this expects that students will do as they are told, not because they know the reasons for doing the task a certain way, but because he tells them to do it so. For instance, the teacher may say that in the operation of the typewriter, the ribbon-control key should be on the black; this statement is true enough, but is wholly unconvincing. Or, in teaching the shift key, he may state that it must be held down until after the capital letter has been struck. Again, this statement is true, but in neither case does the student know the reason why the procedure is correct.

A good teacher would have the students experiment with the

ribbon key in various positions—on the red, on the black, and on the stencil cut-out. Then he would ask them to determine the differences in ribbon behavior. He would attempt to have them discover that when the control is on the red, the ribbon must be on the black, and that as a result, each stroke must be somewhat heavier. Similarly he would ask the students to observe what happens when the capital is struck while the shift key is neither fully depressed nor fully released. He would have them investigate how the type bars are constructed and find out for themselves that it is necessary to raise either the carriage or the type basket the right distance to align properly the upper-case and lower-case letters. . . . The point involved here is that the teacher should encourage the students to find out why each given procedure is right, rather than try to get them to accept the procedure merely because the teacher or the textbook says that it is correct.

Perhaps teachers fail to stress reasons for procedures partly because they do not understand the importance of having students understand the reasons for doing certain things in certain ways, and partly because the teachers themselves often do not know why an accepted procedure is best. They fail to realize that even high-school students use their intelligence to some degree; that few if any students would continue to keep the ribbon-control key on the red if they knew that it was making their work more difficult; or that few students would continue to try to make capitals with the shift key only partly depressed if they understood why it should be all the way down. If neither teacher nor pupils can find reasons why a particular procedure is recommended, it would be highly desirable for them to try to find the reasons, or else to entertain grave doubts as to whether or not the proposed procedures was correct. Continuous stress on reasons should develop in the student an inquiring type of mind, analytical ability, and intelligent rather than mechanical applications of effort.

If . . . the teacher desires to develop students who can successfully find solutions for themselves, as they will be expected to do in vocational life, he will not set the model—at least not at the beginning. Instead, he will allow the students to try to find solutions for themselves. He will permit them to discuss their attempts at solving difficulties and to evaluate their own efforts. He will encourage them to try to discover reasons why their suggestions are good or bad. Then, and not before then, may he show them the procedure used by experts. . . .

In discussing causes of errors in typewriting, Blackstone and Smith say:

"... Lack of resourcefulness or initiative is probably a very significant cause of error. Unfortunately, too many instructors teach almost entirely by demonstration, expecting the students to follow exactly, uncomplainingly, and unquestioningly, the exact steps dictated by him in the learning of a new process. As a result, the follower type of student is developed: one who is able to do things, provided someone tells him exactly what to do at each step, but one who is unable to figure out things for himself. Tell him exactly where to set the tabular stops, exactly how far down from the top of the page to start, whether to single or double space, and so on, and he turns out a neat copy; but leave him to decide such things for himself, and he is helpless, incapable of making decisions for himself."

**Shorthand.** In discussing the utilization of work-experience problems in shorthand classes, Sharp says:

"Part-time jobs give students an excellent opportunity to utilize shorthand skill in a natural setting. Students should be encouraged to talk freely with the teacher about some of the problems they encounter in the office and how they are meeting these problems. When work-experience problems are discussed by teachers and students, the solutions offered may furnish valuable learning not only to the students employed in the job, but for all members of the class or discussion group."

**Bookkeeping.** In discussing the planning of a unit in bookkeeping, Lyons says:

"... There is, unfortunately, little agreement among scholars on what may be considered a unit in teaching. Perhaps this is just as well because it may help us to avoid the regimented and stereotyped procedures of the traditional school. If the unit is thought of as an area of work in which related situations

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present problems to be solved, the unit is not likely to become fixed because the pupils' problems are personal and no one else can discover their problems for them. Thus it might be both necessary and desirable to change frequently the scope and the material of the learning process. There is one test that can always be applied to the unit: Does it provide a sequence of related situations that will provoke such problems in the minds of the pupils as will challenge them to use their latent abilities to the utmost? If the pupils hit upon the problems themselves, they will put forth their very best efforts toward maximal achievement; if the teacher attempts to dictate to the pupils, regardless of their individual needs and purposes, they will soon learn to meet only the minimum standards that the teacher will accept.90

Distributive education. In discussing the values of a cooperative distributive education program, Morsey says:

The "content" of almost equally great importance [as the work experience] is the fifteen hours a week in school that are devoted to solving the problems the students meet on the job. The student will, of course, study retail merchandising, store organization, personality traits, arithmetic, advertising, etc., but these will be meaningful because he has seen the need for arithmetic, the effects of advertising, the necessity of desirable personality traits. Magazine articles and textbook material will help to solve real problems; demonstrations by students and experienced salespeople will be of interest and value because the student will see where he can put to use the techniques he observes and the suggestions that are made.91

Office practice. In describing a plan designed to give office


practice students work experience, Bixler says:

During the second semester, we arranged to place the girls in local offices for two to three hours a day.

After a few weeks, individual students' problems began to arise. From then on, the classroom period was given over to individual conferences, group discussions, and individual study. If a student needed practice in filing, she studied filing in the classroom and then helped with the filing in the high school office. A student who had difficulty in telephoning was urged to study her problem and to practice in the school office. Students who needed to improve their typing or shorthand skill spent the office-practice period in typing or taking dictation. In the same manner, attempts were made to solve other individual problems.92

General business. In discussing pupil participation in the formulation of purposes for their learning activities in general business classes, Wells says:

If growth in economic competency is to be taken seriously as an objective of basic business education, pupils must learn to recognize problems when they meet them, to analyze these problems, to set up hypotheses, to find and evaluate data, to reach and act upon conclusions. Pupil participation in the formulation of purposes for their learning and in the selection of the activities through which their purposes may be accomplished is essential if individual and group skills in problem solving are to be gained.

If pupil participation is encouraged, will pupils waste time? They will use time; but using time is not necessarily wasting it. Everyday living calls for exercise of choices in personal business experiences. Choices must be based upon judgments; wise judgments must be based upon reflective thinking; reflective thinking is problem solving; and skill in problem solving can be learned only

through practice in solving problems. . . .

In suggesting improvements for the teaching of general business, Harms says:

... We talk a great deal about democracy in our schools, yet we tend to shun co-operative endeavors in favor of emphasis on the individual. ... We need to give effective training in problem solving through committee technique: get all available facts, provide for plenty of discussion, withhold judgment, compromise if necessary, and set up a working model, try it out, revise, refine, polish, and amend it as necessary. . . .

In discussing a teacher-pupil planned project in general business, Holland says:

The teacher-student planning approach to classroom instruction gives the student experience in meeting new experiences and problems and in discovering their own solutions. It follows the challenge of life in that it allows one to realize that he can devise ways of meeting new problems from experiences he has had in tackling other problems. Self-confidence is developed and the student is released from teacher domination. . . .

In discussing the question, "Should the activity plan of teaching replace the topic plan of teaching the common units of work in junior business training?", Kauffman says:

The activity plan of teaching re-emphasizes educational principles which at various times have swept through the country and been accepted as forward steps. Motivation becomes a felt need or realization on the part of the pupil of the necessity for certain knowledge or skills. Pupil participation increases because more students work in solving problems which have stirred their

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interests and which they see as purposeful and related to everyday life situations. Learning by doing becomes a reality when the children divide into groups to gather information from all available sources to solve the problems which have aroused their initial interest plus other questions which they realize must be answered to help their solutions. During this period of doing, the scientific attitude of finding all available information from a variety of sources individually and in committees, and then evaluating the material by the entire group for the solution of common problems is individualization and socialization.

The everyday lives of our children and their families are replete with business problems and situations, the solution of which leads to a covering of the content of our course and the fulfillment of our objectives. Our subject belongs in the present. Books, a wealth of pamphlet literature, and business service offices are within reach of our pupils. The activity plan was made to order for the new Introduction to Business Course.96

**Consumer education.** In discussing learning activities in consumer education, Price says:

> ... The one thing about consumer education that every teacher should keep in mind is—your pupils are consumers now. Examples, illustrations, and problems do not have to be invented by the teacher in order to give realism to your teaching. The pupils can provide their own problems and experiences as a basis for further investigation and discussion.97

In discussing learning activities and instructional methods in consumer education, the National Council for Business Education says:

> Much of what is best in consumer education is not to be found ready-made and pre-digested in textbooks. Both the interest of the students and the effectiveness of learning will be increased by putting students on their own to assemble data and draw conclusions. The closer this sort of investigation takes the

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student to real life situations, the better. Some examples are:

a. Analyzing newspapers for proportion of space devoted to advertising and to news

b. Surveying local stores to find out what brands of butter are government-graded

c. Investigating how tax money is spent in the local community

d. Visiting local stores to determine what products and how many products are marked with standardized descriptive labels

e. Investigating the number and different kinds of prize contests being conducted by radio over a two-week period

f. Investigating the provisions of the small-loan law in the student's home state.98

Business law. In discussing the improvement of teaching business law, Jacobs says:

The high-school student is coming in contact with business law every day of his life. Business law should not be taught as preparation for life; it has life values here and now. Little respect for law or order will be gained if law teachers ask their students to learn the definition of law, know the classification of law, and be able to explain each, as the first night's assignment. Granted, it is logical procedure, but it is not psychological. Let us teach law from problems, examples, objects, and deduct our principles from them.99

Business arithmetic. In describing their work in mathematics, the students of The University High School, The Ohio State University, say:

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In our mathematics work we have studied business mathematics, elementary algebra, and plane geometry—courses required in the average high school. However, we studied these subjects for a different reason and in a different way. Our work was not done to cover certain pages in a textbook, but to give us a good understanding of the entire field of mathematics. We brought up our own problems; ones with which each of us had come in contact. These were usually the same as, or very similar to, the problems in textbooks, but they were very much more valuable to us since we ourselves had felt the need of solving them.\footnote{Class of 1938, University High School, The Ohio State University, \textit{Were We Guinea Pigs?} (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1938), p. 199.}

Organized Subject Matter Not an End in Itself but a Means Used in

Arriving at the Solution of Problems

\textbf{Business education in general.} In discussing the conflict between book learning and problem solving, Harap says:

From the point of view of learning, business education must give some attention to the conflict between book learning and problem solving. In many classes education has degenerated into drab lesson learning in which the instructor with an open book keeps one paragraph ahead of the pupils with their open books. Life in the school can have the quality of eager and inquiring learning. Young people have the right to have a part in deciding what their needs are; what they should learn; and how they should group themselves for cooperative study. They should have access to a variety of current, authoritative sources, and they should carry their activities into any field of practical inquiry which may help them to solve the problems which the group has set for itself.

Applied specifically to business education, the sequence of learning units in any year would probably be based upon an analysis of large blocks of duties of business workers. These are clusters of activities such as mailing duties, filing duties, using banking services, using postal and telegraphic services, shipping goods, securing and reporting travel information, transmitting payments, and so on. These blocks of duties are not learned as mechanical
tasks set out to be learned in textbooks, workbooks, or dictated directions by the teacher.101

In discussing curriculum planning in business education, Forkner says:

We have been too willing to accept a textbook as our course of study instead of using the products of textbook authors as resource materials to achieve particular competencies. We have been too willing to accept the idea of a course of study committee as the sole source of ideas about what we should teach. Or, what is still more likely, we are teaching the content and using the method that was taught to us when we were in school.102

In a discussion of the values of pupil initiative in business education classrooms, Ragsdale has the following to say with respect to the problem of developing students with integrated personalities:

... It is not surprising that the student who has had his school day sharply separated into periods for studying and reciting upon carefully delimited subjects should show the effects of such a program after twelve or more years. Under such a program the problem of integrating a personality looms large. The teacher must be ready at all times to cross subject-matter lines; more extensive use must be made of projects that are not defined in terms of school subjects; the school must be based more closely upon complete units of community life and not so much upon abstract phases of it as found in mathematics, language, or business narrowly defined. The student's social, emotional and recreational life must find their place; they must make their contribution to all phases of the school program.103

In discussing criteria for evaluating teaching in business


Stated broadly, there is probably no disagreement as to the chief objective of teaching; probably all would agree that the fundamental objective is the making of desirable changes in students. It is in the interpretation of "desirable changes" that disagreement arises, and particularly so since in the daily treatment of numerous specific items of information and skill, there is danger of losing sight of broader and more vital elements. All too often students are taught to parrot off rules about debits and credits, to quote rules of law, to place typewriter marginal stops at certain places, all without knowledge of the reasons for doing so or ability to make changes in their use when new circumstances require adjustment. Even in skill lessons, it all too often happens that students are told and shown exactly how things are to be done, with no understanding of the reasons for them, under the unhappy delusion on the part of the teacher that it takes too long to permit students to experiment to find the best solution, that pupils will get started wrong and develop wrong habits, or that students are too young to understand or appreciate the reasons for what they are being taught to do. Such students are being taught to repeat mechanically certain items of information or items of physical skill which are practically worthless. Skills and items of information are probably never worth teaching directly, but only as by-products of traits, attitudes, appreciations, and powers. Because they have been told what to do, but not why, students come from our classes able to do anything they have been taught, unless they have forgotten, but they are unable to make even slight adjustments to new situations, and then business men complain that they are lacking in important qualities and traits. The objective of teaching is to make desirable changes in pupils, but those changes should be chiefly in traits, attitudes, appreciations, and powers, and less in knowledges and skills, even though it is easier to develop the latter. The teacher must continually check her processes to determine whether she is developing relatively useless knowledges and skills which will soon be forgotten or lost, rather than the all-important traits, powers, appreciations, and ability to adjust to ever changing conditions.104

Distributive education. In discussing methods for the teaching of cooperative part-time students, Clark says:

Textbooks are valuable tools, but in cooperative part-time programs they should be used only as points of departure and not as rigid areas of subject matter to be covered. Preferably they will be used as sources of information in answering the problems which arise in connection with the pupils' experiences while at their place of employment. . . .105

In discussing the teaching of retailing, Swank says:

About the first week in October a telephone call comes to the school. The voice at the other end of the line gives the first indication that a new holiday season is rapidly approaching. The first inquiry as to the availability of extra store help brings to our attention the fact that many of the students of the retailing classes will soon begin to answer that all-important question—can they qualify for positions and can they fill these positions in a manner that is satisfactory to both their employers and themselves? At the same time students begin to drop in with the information that they have promises of work at the various retail establishments. Others will stop to tell of their efforts to obtain work and to ask advice as to where and how work may be obtained.

It these conversations and in classes, certain questions appear many times. "Will you show us how to operate the cash register?" "Will you teach us saleschecks?" "Why do the salespeople at the Blank store sometimes put a red carrier into the tubes and sometimes a black one?" "Why do salespeople have so many forms to fill out in some stores and none in others?"

Here is an opportunity the like of which occurs at rather infrequent intervals. True, at various times a few members of the classes will ask for the consideration of certain phases of retailing, but seldom will the requests be as numerous as now. The alert teacher will recognize the opportunity, and will develop it to the utmost.

But the selling process appears on the plan sheet for the next six weeks, and saleschecks and store system do not appear until April. Even the textbook does not consider these things until just before the last chapter, the one that deals with getting a job.

What of it? Even the text arrangement implies that saleschecks and store system should be taught before job getting. These

students are getting, and some have jobs, now. They have not had
the training they want and need. Or, in the case of advanced
students, they may have had the training, but they recognize that
retraining and more practice are necessary.

Are you helping boys and girls to become better citizens of
our democracy, or are you merely handling printed matter? Give
them the things they need most, when they need them.

Forget that for the last ten years sales checks have been taught
starting with the third Monday in April. Teach what is wanted and
needed, when it serves its purpose best.

To summarize, the progressive teacher will be alert to needs as
they occur. Certainly the textbook will be used for the aid it can
give the class, but not as a fixed path of travel for the students.
Whenever necessary, the teacher will devise new units as a means of
guiding learning. When organization and content of existing
instructional materials do not fit the needs, new ones will be
devised. The principles and criteria of a good unit will be kept
in mind, while the objectives of teaching always will be the deter-
mapping factor in the selection of materials for the unit. Thus
teaching will be raised to even higher levels of achievement.106

General business. After discussing briefly authoritarian and
laissez-faire methods of teaching general business, Curtis says:

The last theory, the experimentalist, characterized by the
happy satisfied teacher is an ideal one. The experimentalist
uses a textbook as a good reference source. What is in the
textbook may or may not be true for each individual in his
class. . . .

The text and workbooks are used in general business if the
teacher finds that they are useful. A majority of teachers find
that the text and workbooks have a place in the course. The
experimentalist would accept them not as ends in themselves, but
means to an end—the goal set for the course.107

106 Paul Swank, "Unit Planning in Retailing on the High-School
Level," Fifteenth Yearbook, Eastern Commercial Teachers Association, 1942,
pp. 269-73.

107 Paul Curtis, "Experimental General Business—A Challenge to
In discussing the work of business organization classes in which the viewpoint of the teacher was that "business organization can best be acquired BY ACTUALLY ORGANIZING," Haines says:

... The factual information of the conventional business organization syllabus should be introduced only in so far as it contributes to the problem. If the projects are selected and organized with care, they will bring into play the vast majority of factual information. This view discards a recitation of business organization facts. It deems them necessary only when they contribute to a specific organization project. 108

Consumer education. In discussing learning activities in consumer education, Price says:

Although the use of a textbook should not be ruled out, a course should not be dominated by one textbook. Other sources often give the student a better insight and understanding into a particular problem than can be obtained from any one textbook. 109

Economic geography. In discussing the way in which he teaches economic geography, Greene says:

Students are not limited to the use of a single textbook, as in some other classes, but obtain information from many reference books on hand in the classroom. This method is an advantage over the one-book method, because students are encouraged to read widely.

As the students work alone or in groups, they are encouraged to become self-reliant and co-operative, to do their own thinking, to be tolerant of the opinions and ideas of others, and to be

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original and creative in approach and execution.

**Learning Situations Based on the Common Interests, Problems, and Purposes of the Students Lead to a Broad Unit Type of Approach**

Business education in general. In discussing the characteristics of resource materials for units in business education, the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota says:

In constructing resource materials and in working with students in the classroom, it is well to keep in mind that the experience unit has certain distinguishing characteristics.

a. It begins with a problem that the students believe is important to them. Either they have recognized and proposed the problem themselves or the teacher has led them to realize that the problem is vital to them.

b. Because it is concerned with solving a real problem, the unit is centered in the present and looks to the future. It is concerned with the past only to the extent that knowledge from the past may help in solving the present problem.

c. Students and teacher together plan possible ways and means of solving the problem. If the students believe the problem is important and know that they may select methods of dealing with it instead of having everything planned and assigned by the teacher, they will have many pertinent suggestions for activities and materials.

d. Because the experience unit deals with a real problem, the activities and materials may cut across subject-matter lines and be drawn from any field that may contribute.

e. The solution of the problem will be different for different students. Not all members of the class will engage in the same activities nor will the same learnings be required of everyone. Certain activities will help some students; other activities may be more meaningful to other students. Some

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may have had previous experiences that give them an insight into the new problem and that provide them with some of the needed learnings; others may not have had so rich a background. The activities for each student will be those which enable him to have the experiences he needs to produce the desired learnings.

f. Students and teacher together evaluate progress made toward the goal of solving the problem. Evaluation procedures are planned in relation to the goal and are worked out as the unit progresses.

g. The students may expand the problem as they work on it if they discover possibilities not known when the original planning was done.

h. New problems for study may grow out of the one in process. Thus the course of study for the class may evolve naturally as one series of experiences leads to another.

In discussing the fact that business education must give some attention to the conflict between book learning and problem solving, Harap suggests the method by which problems can be solved in the classroom:

As a starting point for learning of this type, the students are confronted with a large and lifelike problem. Together with the teacher, they arrive at an understanding of the situation exactly as it might face the business worker. Teacher and pupils together plan the means of solving the problem. They determine what they need to do and what they need to know. They divide the work to be done. Each individual or group undertakes a phase of the inquiry; and, therefore, it is reasonable to hold each student strictly accountable for the responsibility which he assumes. This is the only way to develop the quality of self-reliance in young people. As they proceed, they work in a situation which reproduces business conditions as far as possible. They use the equipment of the school as far as possible for laboratory purposes.

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To sharpen the contrast between the purposeful learning unit and the recitation, a recitation recently observed may be used. It was a good recitation, as recitations go, conducted by a good teacher with a fine, dynamic personality. In the first place, the teacher does most of the talking and, consequently, does most of the learning. When the pupils speak, they express themselves largely in words and phrases, occasionally in sentences, and very infrequently in paragraphs. To learn to think and to speak fluently, a student must use his own ideas, his own words, his own sentences, his own paragraphs. In the fifteen minutes of participation, a careful record of the diction of pupils' responses was made. They answered in single words twenty-two times, in phrases sixteen times, in sentences ten times, and in paragraphs two times.

When the teacher asks the student to "tell us more about it" one would expect a coherent series of statements, but the response is only in words and phrases. When the teacher asks the student to describe it, which again calls for continued discourse, the response again is only in words and phrases. Questions which ordinarily call for fluent, extended expression elicit only fragments of spoken language.

In order to fill the gaps in the pupil's sustained thought, the teacher plies the class with a series of questions. This procedure relieves the pupil of the responsibility of outlining his thought and his speech. Invariably the teacher repeats the answer the pupil gives, thus the pupil develops the habit of ignoring the other pupils since the correct answer will be repeated by the teacher.

Here is a case of a good teacher entirely unaware of the negligible part which the pupil plays in the learning process. This description has been presented in detail because the remedy does not merely lie within the narrow limits of improved techniques of teaching. The fundamental remedy lies in a change of attitude involving the acceptance of two basic principles: (1) that the child is the most important actor in the drama of learning; (2) that learning is a purposeful, cooperative, and on-going enterprise.112

In discussing the use of projects or units in office practice, bookkeeping, and general business, Huber says:

The project . . . may be used to great advantage both in long and short sequences of material. These projects are designed to create the maximum of pupil participation. They are based on the assumption that pupils will be more interested and, therefore, learn more efficiently if they are engaged in constructive activities which are meaningful and purposeful. The formalism of the traditional schoolroom disappears when the project method is used. Pupils work in committees, or alone in some cases, preparing for the ultimate goal which culminates in presentation to the entire group of the results of their group and individual accomplishments.

From the pupil's point of view, he must be made to feel that the task is self-imposed, and not "assigned" by the teacher. Hence, the pupil must be allowed a maximum share in the planning of the project. . . .113

Bookkeeping. In discussing the planning of a unit of instruction in bookkeeping, Harms says:

... The criticism that has frequently been made of planning is that it terminates in a lesson plan, which chops the subject matter up into little arbitrary segments, looking forward only to the end of the next day's lesson. In such a plan the student generally has but little part, except to do as he is told; the felt needs of the student and community are seldom considered. Modern teachers prefer to think in terms of larger segments, generally known as units. . . .114

General business. On the basis of his observation of the teaching of general business in most of the high schools of Louisiana, Walker outlines the following suggestive teaching pattern for the teaching of general business:


a. Class discussion of "things they know" about the new unit and of the "things they should like to know." During this discussion individual and class objectives should evolve.

b. Under the close direction and guidance of the teacher the students engage in individual research and study or they may work in small groups.

c. The textbook serves only as a guide in the selection of problems for study and provides only a portion of the factual material needed. Full advantage would be taken of community resources. Pertinent business papers would be collected and used; information on business practices and services would be obtained through pamphlets and direct correspondence with business firms, agencies, and governmental units.

d. The individuals or groups report to the class on those phases of the topics under study which they feel may be of interest and value to the whole class.

e. These reports plus the discussion they should stimulate would culminate the work.

The time required for each of the above steps would vary with the unit, its objectives, the needs and interests of the students, and with other factors.115

In discussing the unit plan of instruction for a general business course, Todd says:

The unit plan of instruction has many advantages. The first and most important one is that it permits the teacher to adapt the subject content to the needs and the interests of the class members. In developing the Home Unit, for example, the teacher in one school may find that the majority of her pupils are members of families who rent their homes, while the teacher in another school may discover that the parents of the majority of her pupils own their homes. In the first school the pupils are interested in the rights and privileges of the tenant; they want to know how to determine what is a fair rental; and the teacher is eager for the pupils to understand the rights and the privileges of the landlord and to appreciate the renter's obligations to the landlord. In the second school the pupils are interested in the problems

that confront the home owner who may or may not be a landlord; the
teacher is eager for these pupils to appreciate the civic responsi-
bilities of the home owner. The approach to this unit in these
two schools will be different and the class activities may be
different or they may be similar. 116

Summary and Evaluation

Student participation demands a learning situation based on the
common interests, problems, and purposes of the students. All of the ex-
cerpts from the literature of business education in this section involve
in some way the concept that the learning situation must or can deal with
the common interests, problems, and purposes of the student. The idea is
present that this is true of all subject matter areas within business edu-
cation—some of the writers were discussing business education generally
without reference to particular subject matter areas within business edu-
cation; 117 other writers expressed this concept in relation to the subject
matter areas of typewriting; 118 bookkeeping; 119 distributive education; 120

116 Monette O. Todd, "A New Approach to the Teaching of Everyday
Business," The National Business Education Quarterly, 4:77-80, October,
1935.

117 Cf. ante, Forkner, pp. 223-24; Ragsdale, pp. 221-25, 230-32,
242; Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, pp. 225, 247-48;
227; Huffman, pp. 229-30; Harap, pp. 241-42, 243-49; Huber, pp. 259-50;
Walker, pp. 250-51; Todd, pp. 251-52.

118 Cf. ante, Lessenberry, p. 227; Blackstone and Smith, pp. 233-
34. Cf. post, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 473-76.


120 Cf. ante, Brown, pp. 227-28; Morsey, p. 236; Clark, pp. 243-
44; Swank, pp. 244-45.
general business; \textsuperscript{121} business law; \textsuperscript{122} consumer education; \textsuperscript{123} and economic geography. \textsuperscript{124} One writer specifically states that in both skill and non-skill areas of business education, the learning situation must deal with the interests, needs, and concerns of the students. \textsuperscript{125} Although there is support for the idea that the learning situation must deal with the common interests, problems, and purposes of the student, it is clear that the orientation of the bulk of the excerpts from the literature is with the non-skill areas of business education.

The fact that the learning situation should be based on the common interests, problems, and purposes of the student finds support from newer concepts as to how learning takes place. The more important reason in relation to teacher-pupil-planning concepts, however, is that democratic living will be achieved through group efforts to solve problems which are common to the group. \textsuperscript{126} There is support in the literature of business education for the following concepts as to what is involved in the problem type of approach to learning:

\textsuperscript{121} Cf. ante, Hyppes, p. 228; Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, pp. 228-29; Wells, pp. 237-38; Harms, p. 238; Holland, p. 238; Kauffman, pp. 238-39; Haines, p. 246.

\textsuperscript{122} Cf. ante, Jacobs, pp. 229, 240; Hawes, pp. 192-93.

\textsuperscript{123} Cf. ante, Price, p. 239; National Council for Business Education, pp. 239-40.

\textsuperscript{124} Cf. post, Einolf, pp. 515-17.

\textsuperscript{125} Cf. ante, Forkner, pp. 223-24.

\textsuperscript{126} Supra, pp. 28-29, 44, 117.
1. Problems have their origin in the experiences of students as they are challenged by something new or as the result of obstacles which obstruct their interests and are not things which can be assigned.  

2. As students have experience in solving their immediate problems, new interests will be generated that will lead to succeeding problems which will afford constantly widening experiences.

3. Teachers cannot rely on "canned problems," for what has been a problem for one group will not necessarily be a problem for another group.

4. Problems which confront students do not divide themselves into logically organized bodies of subject matter.

5. Organized subject matter becomes a means used in arriving at the solution of problems.

6. The group solves its common problems by the use of the method of intelligence—sensing a problem, setting up hypotheses, marshalling data, drawing conclusions, and acting on the conclusions.

7. Learning situations that involve group efforts to solve problems which are common to the group tend to utilize a broad unit type of approach as contrasted to the traditional day-to-day assignment of fixed quotas of subject matter.

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127 Cf. ante, Ragsdale, pp. 224-25, 230-32; Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, pp. 225, 228-29; Lyons, pp. 235-36.

128 Cf. ante, Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, pp. 228-29; Holland, p. 238.

129 Cf. ante, Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, pp. 228-29; Todd, pp. 251-52.

130 Cf. ante, Forkner, pp. 223-24; Ragsdale, p. 242; Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, pp. 247-48.


133 Cf. ante, Harms, pp. 192, 250; Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, pp. 247-48; Harap, pp. 248-49; Huber, pp. 249-50; Walker pp. 250-51. For illustrations of student participation in units of instruction in the areas of typewriting, bookkeeping, distributive education, office practice, general business, consumer education, business law, and economic geography, see Appendix A, pp. 467-517.
Some of the special implications for business education of this concept that the learning situation must deal with the common interests, problems, and purposes of students will now be considered.

Curriculum content should not be determined by textbook writers, courses of study, or by state examinations. In giving attention to the common interests, problems, and purposes of the student as the basis for the learning situation, a number of writers give consideration to the inadequacies of traditional concepts of determining curriculum content. That is, the curriculum content should not be determined by textbook writers, courses of study, or by state examinations. In terms of the numbers of writers concerned that textbook writers not be the determinant of the curriculum, it is interesting that the orientation of these writers was with the non-skill areas of business education—nothing is said concerning the inadequacies of textbook writers as the determinant of the curriculum in skill areas. If skill areas are to break away from the teacher-planned, teacher-dominated learning situation, the first point of attack may well be the development of concepts and materials which will make it unnecessary for the teacher of skills to rely exclusively on textbooks.

Curriculum content should not be determined by the needs and demands of business except as those needs are compatible with the

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134 Cf. ante, Forkner, pp. 223-24; 242; Blackstone, pp. 226-27; Ragsdale, pp. 230-32; Harap, pp. 241-42; Clark, pp. 243-44; Swank, pp. 244-45; Curtis, p. 245; Haines, p. 246; Price, p. 246; Greene, pp. 246-47; Walker, pp. 250-51.
recognized needs of students. A further implication for business education of the inadequacies of traditional concepts of the determination of curriculum content is that the curriculum content should not be determined by the needs and demands of business, except as those needs are compatible with the recognized needs of students. The needs and demands of business may represent recognized student needs, but the point of orientation is with the student and his interests, problems, and purposes, and not with the needs or demands of business. To illustrate with an extreme example, the student who is taking typewriting for personal, non-business reasons should not be subjected to a course whose point of orientation is with the needs and demands of business.

Business education classrooms should be places where business practices and concepts are subjected to critical analysis. Closely allied to the concept that the needs and demands of business should not be the determinant of the business education curriculum is the idea that the business education classroom should be a place where business practices and concepts should be subjected to critical analysis rather than just accepted as something which is to be memorized. That is, business practices should be questioned as to their effectiveness, their suitability to local conditions, their ethical justification, etc. In this connection, it should be mentioned that the consideration of controversial issues in business provide excellent media for the utilization

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135 Cf. ante, Angleton, p. 227.
of problem-solving techniques in the classroom. It is as groups attack controversial issues by means of the collection and treatment of all available data that they learn how to avoid prejudiced thinking.\textsuperscript{136} If business education classrooms were places where business practices, concepts, and controversial issues were critically analyzed, it seems unquestionable that light would be shed on how business practices and concepts could be improved. The result of this might well be that business would look to business education for means of improving itself as contrasted to business education's looking to business practices and concepts as a means of determining curriculum content.

\textbf{Sources of problems for business education students.} Other special implications for business education of the concept that the learning situation must deal with the common interests, problems, and purposes of the student have to do with sources of problems which are within the experiences of students. The excerpts from the literature indicate that the business education area is full of problems which are within the experiences of students. All of the students have business contacts as consumers, and many have jobs of one kind or another in which they face business problems. Additional business problems are within the experiences of students because these problems have arisen in their families.\textsuperscript{137} As students solve problems which are within their experiences, others

\textsuperscript{136}Cf. \textit{ante}, Ragsdale, pp. 230-32.

will be confronted which will become meaningful to them.\textsuperscript{138}

Work experience in businesses in the community is a highly desirable source of problems for classroom consideration. In cooperative work experience programs of the distributive education type, classrooms just naturally become places where all kinds of source materials are utilized in solving problems which students have met or where practice in typing and shorthand skills is engaged in because the student has found that his skill is inadequate in some respect for the job at which he is working.\textsuperscript{139}

Where it is possible, without interfering with necessary student realization of growth in other curricular or extracurricular areas, work experience should be incorporated into business education programs as a means of providing additional problems for classroom consideration. If it is not practical to incorporate cooperative training programs of the distributive-education type, work experiences in businesses in the community of a more limited type may be possible.\textsuperscript{140}

Work experience in business enterprises run by students within the school are also valuable sources for problems. Work experiences within the school are available to students through participation in

\textsuperscript{138}Cf. \textit{ante}, Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, pp. 228-29; Holland, p. 238.

\textsuperscript{139}Cf. \textit{ante}, Brown, pp. 227-28; Clark, pp. 243-44; Morsey, p. 236.

\textsuperscript{140}Cf. \textit{ante}, Sharp, p. 235; Bixler, pp. 236-37; Swank, pp. 244-45. Cf. post, Boynton, pp. 551-52; Spaulding High School, pp. 552-53; Altoona High School, pp. 553-54; Medford High School, p. 554; Senior High School, Kittanning, Pennsylvania, p. 555.
operating a school store;\(^{141}\) operating a school bank;\(^{142}\) running concessions for school athletic contests;\(^{143}\) operating a school placement bureau;\(^{144}\) keeping records and reports for the school cafeteria;\(^{145}\) selling tickets and keeping records for athletic contests, plays, and dances;\(^{146}\) etc.

Another source of problems for students may be as the result of particularly specialized interests which students have. For the student who has the objective of securing employment in a particular type of business, problems peculiar to that type of business will have real meaning and can become areas of special work for that student.\(^{147}\)

If in a bookkeeping class, for example, one student is interested in the retail grocery business, another in a furniture business, another in the electrical business, and still another in farming, each student

\(^{141}\) Cf. post, Middleton Union Free High School, pp. 549-50; Central Commercial High School, pp. 556-57; Brown, pp. 557-58; Jones, pp. 560; Franklin Junior High School, pp. 560-64.

\(^{142}\) Cf. post, Bagwell, pp. 550-51; Boynton, pp. 551-52; University School, Indiana University, pp. 559-60; The University High School, The Ohio State University, p. 567.

\(^{143}\) Cf. post, Plymouth High School, pp. 556-58.

\(^{144}\) Cf. post, High School, Mount Holly, New Jersey, p. 566.

\(^{145}\) Cf. post, Boynton, pp. 551-52; Randall Junior High School, pp. 564-66.

\(^{146}\) Cf. post, Boynton, pp. 551-52; Phillipsburg High School, pp. 558-59.

should have an opportunity to complete a set of records for the type of business in which he holds a special interest.\textsuperscript{148}

III. GROUP PROCESS -- THE PROCEDURES BY WHICH GROUPS CAN EFFECTIVELY ATTACK AND SOLVE COMMON PROBLEMS

Role of the Teacher in the Classroom

Business education in general. In discussing the role of the teacher in a business education class where students participate in planning, Forkner says:

We do not propose that the students be given such freedom in planning their work that chaos would result. It is the teacher's responsibility to make sure that the students plan wisely and evaluate the results correctly. He acts as a guide, drawing from experiences of his own and of other students to help each individual develop a workable and consistent plan. He makes suggestions regarding methods of work and directs the pupil in trying out different methods until he finds the one best suited to him.

Instruction becomes direction rather than telling. Pupils decide on their own levels of success and arrive at standards of achievement which conform to business standards. They become their own checkers, proofreaders and markers under the guidance of the teacher who helps them attain the standards that business will accept.

Planning of this kind takes the teacher out of the position of proctor, examiner, or "grade giver" and places him in the position of advisor to the student in developing responsibility for his own work.\textsuperscript{149}

In discussing the use of projects or units in office practice, bookkeeping, and general business, Huber says:

\begin{quote}
\textsuperscript{148}\textit{Cf.} post, Enterline, p. 485.
\textsuperscript{149}Hamden L. Forkner, "What Planning Will Do for Your Pupils," Dictaphone Educational Forum, pp. 11-14, September, 1950.
\end{quote}
The teacher, in this set up, remains in the background. The truth of the matter is that the teacher should be the most important but yet the most unobtrusive force in this picture. Here is the job of guidance and direction. . . .\textsuperscript{150}

In discussing the sequence of experiences in the business curriculum, the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota says:

The teacher helps the students select their problems for study in such a way that the best possible opportunity is afforded for growth in understanding and performance. Continuity of experience is achieved with any group of students in a classroom through continuous student-teacher planning and evaluation. The function of the teacher in this process is to assist the students in identifying problems that are important to them, to help them draw upon previous experiences as they attempt to solve their problems, to supplement student choices if they are inadequate because of the limited experience of the students, and to assist them in appraising their own growth in understanding and ability to perform.\textsuperscript{151}

In discussing teacher-pupil planning, O'Shell and Walker say:

The background, attitudes, and maturity level of our students will determine the ability of the class group to help formulate plans for the class. One does not need a senior group; a junior high school class can carry it through successfully if the students have the right qualifications. Other important factors to consider are: class size, equipment and supplies furnished, type of subject being taught, and how well the teacher is "sold" on co-operative planning. It is suggested that one start with something simple and easy in a small class, such as planning a field trip or a special class activity.\textsuperscript{152}


In discussing pupil participation in planning in business education classes, Forkner says:

A word of caution needs to be given, however. We must not expect that young people will be successful in carrying out their committee assignments or of working cooperatively together from the start, any more than we should expect them to be successful in typewriting a series of letters the first time they sit down at the typewriter. They will need careful guidance. An extensive amount of planning on the part of the teacher with the students will be necessary.

They will make mistakes. The teacher will help them to profit from these mistakes. They probably will not know what to do with their new-found freedom in the class where they are permitted to work together. Disorder may result until they have learned how to proceed in an orderly fashion.

Experimentation on the part of the teacher will soon convince him that he will have to move slowly. He may have to begin with only a single step in the procedure, and as the students gain experience and confidence in their ability to work independently, he can take another step. By the end of the semester, he will find himself the leader of the group instead of being a driver or policeman.153

In discussing the values of pupil initiative in the learning situation in business education classes, Ragsdale says:

... When the pupil leaves school he will be largely on his own resources; he should be almost in such a state during his last years in school if the transition is to be made easy. With progress through school the pupil should find in the teacher more and more of the friendly advisor and less and less of the authoritative ruler. In general, teachers need to watch pupils at work and avoid giving advice unless it is clearly needed; this is true at all ages from the pre-school through the university. One fundamental error should be especially avoided—do not feel it necessary to give advice every time an error is made by a pupil. Errors are a normal part of the learning process. The teacher

should discover them when they happen; when the pupil can discover them without the aid of the teacher he should be permitted to do so. Help pupils devise techniques for finding errors in their work and then let them go ahead under their own power. Each year give the pupil more and more responsibility for choosing his own problems for study, for choosing his own study techniques, for checking his own work, for planning his school year. Completely set and organized curriculums, formal recitation procedures, and rigid discipline prevent the development of independent scholarship and ability. Students must practice independent work if they are to learn to work independently.154

In discussing the evaluation of classroom work in business education, Rankin says:

... The use of evaluation by pupils as well as by teachers is stressed at this point because pupils should take more and more responsibility for their own growth as they progress through the grades of the school. The teacher's function should be shifting gradually from that of directing pupils' work to that of guiding and assisting pupils in achieving purposes that are accepted by them. This change in function needs to be recognized in all instructional fields at the secondary school level but is particularly appropriate in the commercial subjects where the goals are relatively immediate and clear to pupils.155

**Typewriting.** In discussing causes of errors in typewriting, Blackstone and Smith say:

... Rather frequently a student is not convinced that the teacher's way of doing a certain thing in typing is the best way. A typical case is that in which the teacher insists that the student write by touch. The student feels that he can hit the right keys better by looking and is not particularly impressed by the teacher's statement that all good typists write by touch. In such an instance, the teacher may make a grave error. He may insist that the pupil follow his method, and if the pupil is of a


complaisant nature, he will try to do so. However, if the student is independent and fully believes in his own intellectual integrity, he will not follow the teacher's dictum; nor should he. If, after adequate arguments and demonstrations by the teacher, he still is not convinced that the teacher's procedure is better, he should not accept it; to do so would be to betray his own intellectual honesty. If the teacher's method is right, but if he cannot demonstrate it to the student's satisfaction, his instructions are faulty, and the student should use his own method. For the teacher to insist upon his method by the weight of sheer authority is altogether faulty. Whenever the student seems unconvinced, he should be given an opportunity to express his convictions, to try out his own methods, to experiment, and to base on the results of such procedure his decisions regarding the method to use. After the student has been given such an opportunity, the teacher, if his method is right, will be able to demonstrate to the pupil that he can do the work better by using the teacher's method.  

**Shorthand.** In discussing self-learning and self-evaluation in shorthand, Duchan says:

... it should always be borne in mind that the heterogeneity of classes is such that the teacher should use the gradual approach to self-evaluation and self-learning. A pupil cannot be told to correct his faults and weaknesses; he must know how to do it, and he must be given ample practice and time to incorporate this trait into his character.

**Distributive education.** In discussing the value of group dynamics concepts for the teaching of distributive education, Waterman says:

Let's examine for a minute a typical classroom situation--it can be a class in English; it might be a class in history; could it even be a distributive education class? The teacher has located the problems and selected one for study; she defines it to the students; plans how it is to be studied, makes the assignments, and then evaluates the learning. Who has had valuable learning

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experiences? It has been the teacher, not the students. Is there a technique by which the students, instead of the teacher may be the ones to have these experiences? There is a method that is being used successfully by teachers in many subject areas and at various age and grade levels to give their students an opportunity to gain these experiences. This technique is called "group dynamics," a process which enables us to educate our students for living and working in our democracy by gaining experiences and attitudes as a result of democratic living and learning in the classroom.

... Group dynamics recognizes that people function as a group, that most human activity in our modern, work-a-day world is carried on within some type of group structure or organization. Isn't this particularly true of the life for which we are training our distributive education students? Where is the distributive occupation that does not involve working in an organization of people that does not require class cooperation with others? Yes, in distributive education, we can well afford to take advantage of this instructional technique called group dynamics.158

Office practice. In discussing student participation in classroom management in office practice classes, Collins says:

The teacher's decision to encourage students to participate in management of the classroom will be influenced by several factors--the level of student maturity, the type of class organization, the class size, and the nature of class activities. For instance, the teacher may find that some students require a longer training period before they are able to assume responsibility for any class activity. Such students may be accustomed to a regimented atmosphere and may require much guidance before they are able to approach their classwork with a mature attitude.159

General business. In discussing teacher-pupil planning in basic business classes, Johnson says:

In the group plan of conduct of a general business class the teacher functions as a mature and experienced member of the group.

His role is to advise, suggest, help students carry out their plans, consult with students about their work habits; not to conduct or dictate. He responds when his aid is sought. He travels from one group to another to confer, guide, inform, or direct toward information when needed. He causes sources of information to be available. He bears with the noise of constructive activity that group work entails and keeps the noise of that variety to a minimum. He motivates pupils to see their plan through to conclusion because evaluation is an important factor in growth in understanding of group procedures. He keeps uppermost in mind application of the principles of democracy. He works to produce the greatest growth in self development and direction of self on the part of the pupils and at the same time he promotes the efficiency of the group process.160

After discussing briefly authoritarian and laissez-faire methods of teaching general business, Curtis says:

The last theory, the experimentalist, characterized by the happy satisfied teacher is an ideal one. ... The experimentalist does not "abdicade" his position as does the laissez-faire teacher; neither does he "dictate" as does the authoritarian. He wants a course to have a general purpose or goal but he does not insist on any one way to reach that goal. One year of teaching general business is seldom the same as another year because the material for instruction changes and the individuals to be instructed are always changing.

The experimental teacher will be careful to recognize the desires of the students, but he must also be sure that he consciously "directs" this information finding without a dictatorial attitude so that student effort is not wasted or duplicated as is often the case in a laissez-faire class. ...

... [The experimental class] is primarily a class that demonstrates purposeful democratic procedures at work in the school. The teacher does not "dictate." It is true that the teacher guides and directs intelligently, but not with force. The instructor should allow the class to be "taken over" by the students for discussion or by one student giving a report. Class

members are free to question the validity of statements in the book and those made by the teacher. The teacher can learn as well as the student.161

In discussing the use of group dynamics in basic business classes, Seufer says:

... group process is far from being the easiest kind of teaching. He [the teacher] is busy every minute of the period helping and advising the groups when they seek his help. And they seek it often, especially during their first experiences in cooperative learning. However, once the pupils get the idea and produce effective results, both the teacher and pupils will have a feeling of accomplishment that will more than repay the teacher for his effort.162

In discussing pupil planning in basic business courses, Heimerl says:

... beginning teachers of basic business courses should proceed cautiously since pupils must be brought into the planning activity gradually. If they have had little experience of this kind, then one must begin slowly—each time having pupils do more planning.

When pupils are ready for more advanced planning experiences, they might plan activities for a unit, lists of references, outside speakers, committees, etc. Pupils after some experience in planning can do a fine job of suggesting activities which they might carry out to gain the most from a unit. Having pupil chairmen for planning sessions may also work satisfactorily but not until after much planning experience. ...163

Economic geography. In discussing pupil participation in the


activities of an economic geography class, Greene says:

After a new unit of work is introduced, the teacher divides his time between class discussion and direction of the work of the groups. He may help locate additional materials, make suggestions for improving a piece of written work, criticize an outline for a talk, or assist in gathering material for a graph or chart to be used in an oral report or for a display on one of the bulletin boards.164

Business law. In discussing the teaching of business law, Haines says:

Perhaps no subject on the entire business education roster is possessed of greater possibilities for student development than is business law. Yet the law class can become extremely matter-of-fact.

Too often we are prone to "preside" rather than "guide." Too often we are apt to issue extended "legal opinions." Not infrequently do we assume an air of judicial finality in what we say.

The student is entitled to his day in court—which should be every day. HIS opinions are the important thing. It makes little difference if they do not square with our own. Even the most brilliant legal minds in America disagree, else there would be little cause for court action. . . .165

An Atmosphere of Friendliness and Cooperativeness Characterizes the Climate of the Classroom Where Group Process Can Be Most Effective

Business education in general. In discussing different climates that can be created in business education classrooms, Packer says:

Between the extremes of laissez-faire and autocratic climates lies the classroom environment that will develop a spirit of


spontaneous cooperation. This is the climate where the feeling of belongingness rather than egotism prevails, where tensions and hostilities are reduced and where students and teacher experience success, harmony, and security as they calmly and serenely acquire the skills and information demanded of proficient businessmen and women. This truly democratic climate is created as the teacher and students direct their attention and effort to solving problems that are important to them. Here the teacher is a participant-leader of small groups of students working on problems pertaining to that phase of business endeavor with which that particular subject-matter class is concerned. It is the responsibility of the teacher to guide the students in their selection of problems that will be of pertinent and vital concern to them as they now study the business world and that they will probably encounter in the future as they become gainfully employed in business occupations.166

In discussing qualities of good teaching, Forkner says:

Among the important things that I consider to be characteristic of quality of teaching is the spirit that prevails in the classroom. Is there an atmosphere of friendliness? Or does the teacher set himself apart from the students as one who is superior in knowledge and intellect? Friendliness promotes good learning. Young people instinctively react toward friendliness in a friendly way. Conversely, their reaction to sternness and dictatorship is antagonistic. And rightly so.

Another characteristic of a good quality of teaching is an atmosphere of "busyness" in the room. When I see a room full of students passively sitting listening to another student reciting, I know that the quality of teaching is not of the best. Nor is good teaching marked by the teacher lecturing while students take notes. Neither of these represents "busyness."

But when I see students working in groups, talking problems through, solving problems together, sharing experiences related to the topic or actively engaged in class discussion, I know that good teaching is taking place.

The traditional teacher and school administrator will question the amount of conversation and even noise in those classrooms where

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teacher and pupils are working together, because most of our past experience in schools has been of the type that is characterized by students working alone at fixed desks where no talking is allowed. But if the business teacher, or any other teacher, would only realize that people in actual work situations do confer about their problems and are permitted to talk them over with others, they would realize that the best way to teach people how to do this quietly and efficiently is by practicing it in school.

Closely related to this quality of good teaching practice is the opportunity for cooperation that prevails in the classroom. Are pupils cooperating with the teacher or are they doing what he tells them because of fear?

Cooperation is the foundation of good work habits and of a healthy happy community. Unless the schoolroom is characterized by this kind of cooperative spirit, then we see evidences of disciplinary problems, tensions of the teacher and the students, and what is most important of all, a lack of trust on the part of the teacher toward the students, and vice versa.

In discussing criteria for evaluating teaching in business education, Blackstone says:

Perhaps the most important criterion of successful teaching is the spirit of pupil-teacher relationship which exists in the classroom. If the pupils consider the teacher a grouchy, unfair cantankerous slave driver, full of sarcasm, and menacingly watchful for offenders, they will quickly show resentment as openly as they dare. They will skimp their study, being satisfied merely to "get by," and will miss all the job and stimulation of voluntary endeavor. Where the proper spirit of pupil-teacher relationship exists, the pupils consider the teacher as a sympathetic guide, counselor, and friend; in other words a good scout. They like him outside the classroom as well as in it; they do not fear him, nor do they continually seek ways to annoy him. They quell disorderly pupils by group disapproval because they like the work they are doing and resent interference by unruly students. They find the class work interesting and willingly express their opinions about class projects, presenting the arguments upon which their opinions are based, feeling sure, that, while they may be

wrong occasionally, they will not be held up to scorn or ridicule, but will be given reasons why some other opinion is better and then be permitted to accept or reject those opinions according to their convictions. They feel, as adults feel, that they have a right to express their views, even if they are not accepted.168

**Shorthand.** In discussing the learning outcomes which result from different classroom climates, Packer says:

The most effective individual learning, the most coherent group progress are achieved in the democratic climate, for the learning is based on interests and needs of the individuals within the group. When the group members in seeking a solution to the problem of how to increase speed in taking dictation, for instance, find that certain specific types of drill will develop that speed, then, all the class members enter into the drill and practice with an understanding of what they can gain in increased mastery of that skill. The learning, in this democratic situation, both individually and for the group, will far out-distance that in either the autocratic or laissez-faire climates. The democratic climate fosters a maximum achievement, for there the students and their teacher are all working together to attain mastery of a common goal.169

**General business.** In discussing the teaching of a course in general business, Bahr says:

Our course in general business begins with an opportunity for the teacher to get acquainted with his students. Each student fills out a personal information sheet, listing his name, residence, interests, hobbies, parents' names and occupations, etc.

Students should be permitted to get acquainted with one another. They may be allowed to meet in groups around the classroom. It is well to group them first as to suburbs or sections of the city in which they live and then, in fruit-basket-upset

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style, as to hobbies or swing-band-leader admirers.\textsuperscript{170}

In discussing teacher-pupil-planning in basic business classes, Johnson says:

If the members of the class are acquainted with each other at the beginning of the year, pupil-planning by groups can be put into operation at once; if not, then the class may be conducted in such a way that students will soon learn to know each other's abilities. When the students become well acquainted, the teacher then explains to the class that most of the work can be pupil-planned and carried out through group work.\textsuperscript{171}

**Business law.** In making an appeal for a classroom atmosphere which will facilitate pupil participation in business law, Rosenblum says:

The techniques for setting the stage . . . are familiar to experienced teachers. A warm friendly relationship is created by the teacher's manner, by his judicious use of praise, his development of cross-currents of pupil-pupil discussion, his encouragement of pupil-pupil evaluation and commendation, the immediate use of pupils' names (first names preferred) both by the teacher and the members of the class, the wide distribution of discussion to encompass all, the gradual withdrawal of the teacher as pupil activity increases, and the balanced use of suspense to challenge the class and humor to send them away with a smile.

An active class directed by an enthusiastic teacher will find unlimited opportunities for tapping the resources of the pupils' interests and talents. Once the spirit of the class has been developed through mutual respect, enthusiasm, and give-and-take discussion, the class will be prepared to adopt the wide variety of techniques introduced by the teacher.\textsuperscript{172}


The Utilization of Smaller Groups Within the Larger Class Group

Bookkeeping. In discussing the utilization of smaller groups within the larger class group in bookkeeping classes, Boynton says:

Success as a bookkeeper is dependent upon more than technical ability in the keeping of books. This being so, the bookkeeping teacher who is concerned with teaching only the technical phase of bookkeeping is depriving his students of other experiences necessary for success in the bookkeeping vocation. He fails to see that the way people learn can be just as important, and sometimes more important, to their subsequent vocational and social success than what they learn.

Recent curriculum studies have shown that people in a democracy do much of their working and playing in groups. The studies further indicate that a successful learning experience for an individual depends in large measure on his ability to become a part of a group, on his feeling of belonging to a working or playing group.

The foregoing recommendation [provision for smaller working unit within the larger classroom unit] is in direct line with the demands of many employers and personnel directors. At the top of the list of shortcomings which they indicate in secondary school graduates is often found lack of character traits common to success and advancement on the job.

Character traits can be developed in relation to vocational subject matter. Using the small group process in the bookkeeping classroom offers a means of developing such traits at the same time that bookkeeping knowledge are developed. It seems obvious that this would be more desirable in training successful bookkeepers than the concentration of all teaching effort on technical bookkeeping concepts alone.\(^3\)

General business. In reporting classroom practices in general business, Wells says:

The use of many small committees rather than a few large ones has been recommended because working together in small groups has provided greater exchange of ideas and possibly more opportunity for exploring new interests. Small committees have also provided more situations for participation by shy, retiring students. When the members of the small groups became better acquainted, the pupils accepted the responsibility of helping one another. There seemed to be a tendency toward kindness, understanding, and less criticism of the individual members by other members.

In suggesting methods of teaching basic business education, Bahr says:

Perhaps you have noticed that even in discussing other teaching techniques, frequent references have been made to student committees, a favorite device. The members of your class never do as much work as when they are divided into groups in which they have individual responsibility. In an assigned textbook lesson, the happy-go-lucky boy or girl will take a chance that today is the day that he will not be called on and consequently labor little. But on the other hand, if he and his committee are scheduled to give a report that day, he will be hard at work then and even previously.

In discussing the use of committees in general business classes, Bahr says:

Student activity is never so profuse as it is under the student-committee system. Committees may be assigned to study banking, insurance, mailing, travel, the buying problems of the consumer, advertising, protection for the consumer, and selling.

If the teacher uses these topics as a basis for an overview, then the students will be able to choose the committee on which they prefer to work. Each committee is responsible for an oral report or program which will be presented during a full class period, a bibliography of books or articles used, and a folder

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containing all the material and information that it has col-
lected.\textsuperscript{176}

In discussing individual differences in relation to teaching
general business, Wells says:

Provision for individual differences is an aim of education
that has been given lip service but that has been hard to imple-
ment in formal classrooms. \ldots\  Although there are areas of learn-
ing which are thought to be essential, it is not necessary or even
at times desirable that all members of a class strive to arrive
at the same destination through the same learning procedures. If
we really cherish the individual because he is individual, because
he can make his own peculiar contributions to enriched living in
or out of the classroom, then the common mold into which we have
too often tried to pour him should be destroyed. It is true—\textit{and}
there can be no doubt about it—\textit{that the pupils within a class
will attack common problems at different levels of ability, interest,
experience, background, understanding, appreciation, and aptitude,
then individualization of learning experiences is necessary if
there is to be optimum development and not frustration.}

This is not to say that each pupil must work by himself, in
isolation. Quite the contrary. A common problem, undertaken
because of pupil interest (already present or stimulated), should
be undertaken by the group. But as in business or social life,
the results should be arrived at co-operatively. Small groups
or committees may choose the parts they want to investigate, and
the committee members may be chosen because each member can make
a different kind of contribution.

Some pupils may read a variety of materials, some interview
community members, some review films or slides, some make field
trips, some study charts and graphs. Based on data obtained,
results can be compiled and summarized co-operatively. One may
make a poster, another construct a bar graph, one write a report,
another prepare an oral report, some paint a mural, some write a
skit in which others will act out the parts. \ldots

\ldots\  The work of the group should be interrelated, directed
\textit{toward common goals}; but only when needs are identical should
experiences be identical.\textsuperscript{177}

\textsuperscript{176} Gladys Bahr, "The Beginning of Business Life," \textit{The Business

\textsuperscript{177} Wells, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 126-30.
Consumer education. In discussing learning activities and instructional methods in consumer education, the National Council for Business Education says:

Some teachers make very extensive use of the democratic procedure of having student committees help plan projects, gather data, and conduct class sessions. The use of committees is especially recommended for consumer classes. Some committees that might be employed are:

a. Committee to plan a Professor Quiz program

b. Committee to organize a panel discussion

c. Radio committee to survey and rate radio programs, posting recommendations on bulletin board

d. Movie committee to survey and rate motion pictures coming to local theaters

e. Publicity committee to write consumer articles for the school newspaper

Business law. In discussing the committee method of teaching business law as a means of improving pupil participation, Delman says:

... some of the following illustrations of the committee method can be profitably experimented with:

1. Law class newspaper with one or two staff meetings in class.

2. Preparation and presentation of a radio program.

3. Mock trial.

4. Preparation of a play or series of sketches to be given at the school assembly.

5. "Information Please" program.

6. Discussion of newspaper clippings selected by the committees as the most interesting.

7. Reports on selected books dealing with the law, lawyers, and judges.

8. Individual and committee reports on visits to the numerous courts in the metropolitan area.

9. Reports on selected cases from the New York Law Reports.

10. Debates between committees.

More and more we are bringing extra-curricular activities into the classroom and the committee method will facilitate this introduction.

. . . The committee method offers the students an experience that is invaluable for character training. It provides social contacts that are essential for the proper development of true leadership and the ability to recognize and follow that leadership . . . important factors in a democracy. These things can grow from the life-like reality of group contacts. . . .

Summary and Evaluation

In Chapter IV it was pointed out that the procedures by which groups can effectively attack and solve common problems are commonly identified by workers in the field of group dynamics by the term "group process" and that the developing concepts of group process throw light on what the teacher-pupil planning classroom, and the teacher's place in it, might be like.180

The role of the teacher in teacher-pupil planning. The central


180 Supra, pp. 76-77.
concept of the role of the teacher in the classroom is: in order not to
destroy the cooperative nature of the group, the teacher serves as a
guide and adviser rather than a master. There is support for this
concept in the literature of business education by writers discussing the
following areas: business education in general without reference to
particular areas; typewriting; bookkeeping; distributive
education; general business; and business law. In the discus-
sions of the role of the teacher as a guide and adviser, it is clear that
the orientation of most of the writers is with the non-skill areas of
business education.

Other group-process concepts as to the role of the teacher in the
classroom which find support in the literature of business education are:

1. The teacher guides the group from a position of active membership
   in the group.

2. The teacher does not become lost in the group—he is the most
   important element in creating a classroom atmosphere in which
   student growth and development can take place.

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181 Cf. ante, VanBuskirk, pp. 198-99; Enterline, p. 206; Reynolds,
   pp. 207-8; Forkner, p. 260; Huber, pp. 260-61; Ragsdale, pp. 262-63;
   Rankin, p. 263.

182 Cf. post, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 467-72.

183 Cf. post, Chaney, pp. 482-84; Peters and Stutsman, pp. 484-85.

184 Cf. post, Reich, pp. 605-6.

185 Cf. ante, Hyppps, p. 228; Johnson, pp. 265-66; Curtis, pp. 266-67.

186 Cf. ante, Haines, p. 268.

187 Cf. ante, Johnson, pp. 265-66.

188 Cf. ante, Huber, pp. 260-61.
3. The teacher's function is not one of giving answers to the problems under study, but, rather, it is to guide students in recognizing and solving their problems themselves.189

4. The teacher's function is one of protecting the process by which the group arrives at the solution of its problems, and solutions so arrived at must be accepted as the best solutions, even though the teacher does not agree with the judgment of the group.190

5. The teacher aids the group to identify its common problems and aids the group in its cooperative planning and working on the solution of group problems.191

6. In order to be in a position to aid students in identifying common problems, the teacher attempts to discover the common interests, needs, and purposes of the students in the group.192

7. As a member of the group, the teacher has the same right to propose problems and plans for consideration as any other member and will propose problems and plans which have been overlooked by the students.193

8. The teacher serves as a resource person and guide to learning materials.194

9. The teacher aids the students in the analysis of facts and protects the students from drawing conclusions on the basis of incomplete data.195

10. The teacher guides the group to evaluate continuously the effectiveness of their plans and actions in terms of the objectives which the group has set for itself.196

189 Cf. ante, Forkner, p. 260.

190 Cf. ante, Ragsdale, pp. 230-32; Blackstone and Smith, pp. 263-64.


192 Cf. ante, Hypps, p. 228.

193 Cf. ante, Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, p. 261.

194 Cf. ante, Johnson, pp. 265-66; Green, pp. 267-68.


196 Cf. ante, Forkner, p. 260; Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, p. 261.
A special implication for business education of the role of the teacher revealed by the excerpts from the literature is that the business teacher will be better equipped to serve as a guide in the learning situation if he is aware of business problems in the community which are affecting the lives of students. For example, the failure of a business or the creating of a new business may be sources for meaningful problems for group consideration. 197

Another special implication of the role of the teacher has to do with the skill area of business education. One of the functions of the teacher was described as being the protector of the process by which the group arrives at the solution of its problems, and that the solutions arrived at must be accepted as the best solutions, even though the teacher does not agree with the judgment of the group. The applicability of this concept is perhaps most readily seen where groups are considering controversial business issues. But what about skill areas where, for example, the students decide that the method used by experts in returning the typewriter carriage is not, for them, the best solution to the problem of how the carriage should be returned?

If the teacher is to assume the role of a guide and an adviser in skill areas, he cannot insist upon the use of his solution to a problem even though it has the weight of authority, experience, and research behind it. Situations may arise in which, after a consideration of possible solutions to a problem which has included consideration of the

197 Cf. ante, Ragsdale, pp. 224-25.
solutions of experts, the opinion of authorities, and the results of research, the student or group may decide on a solution not in conformity with the way the teacher thinks is best. In such cases, the student or group must be permitted to try out the method, to evaluate its results, and to use the method as long as they continue to feel that it is the best solution. 198

Other group process concepts as to how groups can effectively attack and solve common problems. Although quite a few writers have given attention to group-process concepts as to the role of the teacher, little attention has been given to other group process concepts as to how groups can effectively attack and solve common problems. Several writers do give attention to the importance of the climate of the group— that an atmosphere of friendliness and cooperativeness characterizes the group in which group process can be most effective.199 Also, a number of writers give attention to the concept that the establishment of smaller groups or committees within the larger class group can frequently increase the effectiveness of the utilization of the varied interests and abilities of the members of the group. 200 The only additional

198Cf. ante, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 263-64. Cf. post, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 467-72.

199Cf. ante, Packer, pp. 268-9, 271; Forkner, pp. 269-70; Blackstone, pp. 270-71; Bahr, 271-72; Johnson, p. 272; Rosenblum, p. 272.

200Cf. ante, Boynton, p. 273; Wells, pp. 273-74, 275; Bahr, pp. 274-75; National Council for Business Education, p. 276; Delman, pp. 276-77.
concept that appears in the literature is that groups are more effective where there is a group consciousness—a feeling of belongingness to the group.

Limitations on optimal utilization of teacher-pupil planning. In the discussions in the literature of the role of the teacher in the classroom, the following ideas appear with regard to certain limitations that may exist which will make impossible an optimal utilization of teacher-pupil planning and which are in agreement with the philosophy expressed in Chapter IV of this study.

1. Where a group of students have only experienced classroom situations which have been dominated by the teacher, an optimal shift of responsibilities cannot be made to the students all at once, for the students would not possess the attitudes and skills of effective group thinking and acting.

2. The teacher must start at the level on which the group can think and work cooperatively and aid the group to assume greater responsibilities.

IV. TEACHER PRE-PLANNING ACTIVITIES

Teacher Pre-Planning Activities -- For the Curriculum Structure

Business education in general. In discussing the necessity for the formulation of a philosophy of business education as a basis on which

201 Cf. ante, Packer, pp. 268-69; Boynton, p. 273.


203 Cf. ante, Forkner, p. 262; Heimerl, p. 267.
the business curriculum in a school is constructed, the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota says:

In a large school having several business teachers the formulation of the point of view will be a cooperative project, and the statement which results will represent those beliefs on which the group agrees. In the small school with only one business teacher the statement will be the result of his best thinking. In each case discussion with other faculty members, with students, and with business people will modify and enlarge the thinking of the business teachers. The views of these groups should be obtained before a statement is finally formulated.201

In discussing the determination of scope and sequence of a business curriculum, the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota says:

It will not be possible for any school to include in its curriculum all of business education. Business activities are so varied and the number of business occupations is now so great that no school can encompass the entire range of activities and occupations within its curriculum; hence, the school must select. It must decide how much and what kind of education for business it will provide. The selections will be made on the basis of the surveys of the employing community and of student needs and interests and on the aims which have been agreed upon.

When the scope has been determined, the content must be organized into usable form. A sequence of the situations to be dealt with must be arranged to insure that learning may constantly move forward and that there will not be omissions or undesirable overlapping. A general time-allocation plan will also be needed. While the sequence of activities may be altered somewhat when students participate in planning their own learning activities, the plan for sequence will help to keep the activities within the bounds agreed upon and moving in the direction needed for the achievement of the aims.205

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205 Ibid., pp. 9-10.
In discussing the installation of a new business curriculum, the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota says:

If the entire school curriculum is being revised and installed, plans for the installation of the business curriculum should harmonize with the over-all school plans. The transition in many instances will be gradual. If the school is shifting from a subject-centered curriculum to an experience curriculum similar to that suggested in this Guide, teachers and pupils will learn gradually to use the newer approach and techniques; the transition will not be accomplished all at once.

When the curriculum plans have been made, the teacher may wish to try a unit or two to get the "feel" of teaching experience units. He may begin with a unit in which he is especially interested, one that is a favorite with him.

The decision may be made to install only a part of the new curriculum the first year. For example, the occupational learnings of the twelfth year may be installed the first year or business education for everyday living in the ninth year may be the first area to be installed. The next year another part of the revised curriculum plans may be initiated. With this progressive installation the teachers and students have time to become accustomed to the new procedures and are not likely to become confused about them.

The instructors should provide adequate orientation to the new program and procedures for students, faculty people, parents, and business people.206

Teacher Pre-Planning Activities -- For the Learning Situation

Business education in general. In discussing the development of resource materials for units of work in business education, the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota says:

... When the plan for scope and sequence [for the curriculum] has been made, the next step is the construction and assembling of resource materials for the units to be developed in the classrooms.

206 Ibid., pp. 10-11.
The resource materials . . . assist teachers in guiding students to the solutions of their business-education problems.

. . . When student-teacher planning techniques are used, unit development in the classroom usually differs somewhat from the preliminary planning of the teacher because students have their own ideas about objectives, activities, and evaluation procedures.

In discussing the sequence of experiences in the business curriculum, the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota says:

When students share with the teacher in planning and conducting classroom activities, the teacher cannot set up in advance a sequence of activities to be followed inflexibly because he does not know in advance exactly what the outcome of the joint planning will be. The teacher, however, does plan in advance. The advance planning of the teacher is of two kinds; (1) over-all plans for the course, and (2) for units within the scope of the course, plans for assembling resource materials which are likely to provide the experiences needed by the students who will compose the group.

In making over-all plans the teacher will consider the limits of the area in which the work is to be done. If it is to deal with common learnings, the limits will probably be set by the scope and sequence which have been agreed upon for the common-learnings program. If it is to deal with a specialized interest, for example, a vocational skill, the limits will depend upon the nature of the specialized interest. The teacher considers, within the limits of the course, the situations or problems that students are likely to meet. His acquaintance with students and with the demands of the area will enable him to select the problems. If there are more problems than can be dealt with in the time allotted to the course, he will select those which are likely to be of most immediate concern to the students who will be in the group. For these problems he plans and assembles resource materials to assist him in guiding the students as they explore their own needs, select their problems, and work to solve them.

Thus the teacher's plans are definite but flexible, for probably in no instance will they be followed exactly. They are of value to the teacher, nevertheless, in clarifying his own thinking about the needs of his students and in serving as a source from which to draw when planning with the group. The effectiveness of

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207 Ibid., pp. 9-10.
the teacher's work will depend to a large extent on how well he has considered in advance the activities through which the learner may get the experiences that will contribute most to their growth.208

In discussing the characteristics of resource materials for units, the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota says:

Since learning results from experience, the chief function of the school is to provide opportunities for students to have experiences that can produce significant learning. The experience unit is a device for providing those opportunities. . . . Resource materials for experience units are the plans that the teacher makes to assist him in guiding the students as they develop units in the classroom.

While resource materials may contain anything that will assist the teacher in guiding students toward the specified goal, the materials should always include at least the following five essential features:

a. A clear statement of the problem.

b. A list of specific objectives drawn from the problem.

This listing of specific objectives breaks into usable items the over-all goal expressed in the problem. It facilitates the planning of activities and gives cues for possible evaluation procedures. Since learning is defined as change in behavior, the objectives should be stated in terms of student behavior.

c. A list of activities which may enable students to reach the objectives.

They are activities for the student, not for the teacher. Activities will be suggested to the class by the teacher only if it is necessary for him to supplement the suggestions made by the students themselves in the planning sessions.

d. A list of possible evaluation procedures for determining the progress made by students toward the objectives.

e. Information about text and reference books, visual aids,

208Ibid., pp. 24-26.
community resources, and any other pertinent materials that may be available.\textsuperscript{209}

In discussing how courses of study are developed in Virginia, Crumley and Hall say:

Business education courses of study, whether state, regional, or city-wide, are intended to be guides—not prescriptions—for local school divisions. They should be descriptions of the best methods and practices known to the group developing them. The aim of such courses of study should be to make suggestions and to give examples rather than to attempt the preparation of specific lesson plans. The syllabi should stimulate the initiative and imagination of the teachers, leaving them free to explore and experiment with many interesting and worthwhile ways of teaching. Courses of study should be a combination of subject-matter outline and techniques for teaching and flexible enough to be used as guides by small and large schools and by both beginning and experienced teachers. The beginning teacher will find many answers to her problems, and the experienced teacher will be challenged to experiment with different methods of instruction found to be effective by other teachers. Many references should be cited in the bibliographies as source material for further study.

In every sense of the word, the supervisory personnel should strive to make the courses of study products of the teachers' work through group planning, thinking, and action. By experiencing group planning and action in the development of courses of study, teachers are willing and better able to use group activities in the classroom. Members working on the courses of study have an opportunity to suggest and try out different group methods. The successful activities, then, become a part of the recommendations in the course of study.

... In Virginia each year, the Business Education Service selects one subject-matter area for which a course of study will be developed. During the spring of the year in which the selection is made, business teachers are invited to participate in a number of local conferences designed to lay the groundwork for the study. After these local conferences are completed, the problem is allowed to ferment in the minds of the participants until the summer of the following year. At that time one or two state-wide workshops are held for the purpose of developing the preliminary draft. After being edited by some member of the workshop and the state supervisors,

\textsuperscript{209}Ibid., pp. 111-143.
the first draft is duplicated and sent to a number of selected teachers throughout the state for a tryout in the classroom. At the conclusion of the tryout period, which is usually several months in length, the initial draft is again revised and published as the tentative course of study. Thus, the development of a single course of study requires a period of two years. However, work begins on a new subject each spring so that a final product may be produced each year.210

**General business.** In suggesting a unit type of approach for the teaching of general business, Walker says:

... This type of approach cannot be made effective unless the teacher makes specific plans for the new unit several days or weeks in advance of its presentation. The teacher in preparing for the new unit should set up on paper tentative aims, survey and list sources of available materials or information to be secured from various sources, propose desirable pupil and teacher activities, etc.211

In suggesting methods of teaching basic business education, Bahr says:

... The tendency is for the average teacher to depend to a great extent on the authoritative types of method such as lecture, the textbook, the drill, and the question and answer, when she ought to consider more student participation. Unless she definitely plans for pupil activity days and months before classtime, the ratio for teacher "doing" will be high. Some of the best teaching done by the author was planned in summer school courses—plans for "student doing."212

In discussing a teacher-pupil planned project in general business,

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Holland says:

...Probably such an approach is most difficult for the teacher, for it means added preplanning, a great deal of foresight and preparation, and calls forth all the resourcefulness a teacher possesses. This, however, culminates not only in student growth but also in teacher growth. 213

In discussing the development of a course of study in general business for Virginia, Crumley and Hall say:

The General Business Course of Study has been recently developed in a summer workshop following the general procedure described above. 211 This course of study is divided into two parts. The first part is a general introduction, which gives many suggestions for the administration and techniques of teaching and evaluating general business. Student-teacher planning and group activities are discussed. The second part is divided into the eight broad subject-matter areas that members of the workshop believe are basic to a one-year course in general business on the tenth-grade level. In the beginning of each unit there is a preview to describe the unit and to point up the work to be done prior to teaching that part. Each unit is comprised of several fundamental economic and business understandings. Examples of developmental questions, used to enlarge the economic and business understandings, are given with suggested results to be ultimately obtained. The chief purpose of the suggested result is to call attention to possibilities that might be overlooked; the more obvious results are not always mentioned. Student-teacher activities--typical activities, not an exhaustive list are recommended. These activities include both individual and group work and emphasize cooperative student-teacher planning. Each of the broad units contain methods of evaluation and one integrated culminating activity. Reference materials are given for each unit, as group planning and activity depend to some extent upon a sufficient supply of appropriate information and materials with which to work. An over-all bibliography on methods of teaching and the philosophy of general business is placed in the back for use in further study by teachers. 215


214 Supra, pp. 287-88.

215 Crumley and Hall, op. cit., pp. 128-42.
Business English. In discussing pre-planning by the teacher for a course in business correspondence on either the high school or college level by means of developing a resource unit, Keithley says:

The first step in the preparation of the [resource] unit should be to list the possible objectives for the course. This statement of anticipated outcomes will be an invaluable aid to the teacher. The list should be extensive. It should include many more objectives than it will be possible for any one class to meet. Listing these objectives is part of the teacher's preparation for meeting the needs of the students in his classes. The list should include objectives for developing understandings, attitudes, habits, abilities, and associated learnings which seem desirable. For example, the following statement illustrates one type of objective. "To gain an understanding of the importance of the business letter as a type of communication." 216

Summary and Evaluation

Teacher pre-planning activities for the curriculum structure. In Chapter IV, it was pointed out that since the students cannot be permitted to do just as they wish to do in the learning situation, some sort of pre-planning is necessary on the part of the school and the teacher. The nature of the pre-planning on the part of the school was identified as the establishment of a curriculum structure which would consist of broad problem areas or units of work which would insure a breadth of experience for students and yet would not be so constructed as to preclude the opportunity for students to participate in the teacher-pupil-planning process. It was also pointed out that this curriculum structure should be founded on a philosophy which had been developed

cooperatively by the faculty of the school, parents and interested community members, and students. The only support found for these concepts in the literature of business education was in a publication of the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota.

A special implication for business education of the thinking of the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota is that it is not possible for the business education curriculum to incorporate problem areas which would encompass the entire range of business activities. Bases which can be utilized for the selection of problem areas for the curriculum structure are surveys of students' needs and interests and surveys of the employing community. The information obtained in these surveys would be viewed against the backdrop of the philosophy which had been formulated by the school. Another implication for business education is that businessmen should have a part in the formulation of the school's philosophy as it applies to business education.

Teacher pre-planning activities for the learning situation. In Chapter IV, it was pointed out that if teacher-pupil planning is to operate productively, the teacher must do some pre-planning for the classroom situation above and beyond the planning done by the school in

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217 Supra, pp. 72-73.
218 Cf. ante, Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, pp. 282-83.
219 Cf. ante, Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, pp. 282-83.
determining the general structure of the curriculum. Again, there is little support in the literature as to the nature of the pre-planning which the teacher should do for the teacher-pupil-planning classroom. There is some support for the following concepts:

1. The purpose of teacher pre-planning for the classroom is not to settle in advance what is going to take place in the classroom, but rather, to anticipate the opportunities and needs that may arise in the classroom so as to achieve a higher quality of work when planning and working with students.

2. On the basis of his knowledge of the students and the demands of the course as structured by the curriculum, the teacher considers the situations or problems that students are likely to meet.

3. For the problems decided upon, the teacher plans and assembles resource materials to enable him to better guide students as they select and work on their own problems.

4. The device for helping teachers in this pre-planning process to bridge the gap between a broadly structured curriculum and the classroom situation is the resource unit.

5. A resource unit should include at least these things: objectives of the unit; statement of the general scope of the unit; list of activities which might enable students to reach the objectives; suggestions for evaluating the learning-teaching process; and comprehensive lists of available materials which the teacher might find helpful in an actual teaching situation.

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220 Supra, p. 73.


222 Cf. ante, Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, pp. 285-86.

223 Cf. ante, Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, pp. 285-86; Walker, p. 288.

224 Cf. ante, Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, pp. 284-85.

225 Cf. ante, Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, pp. 286-87; Walker, p. 288; Crumley and Hall, p. 289; Keithley, p. 290.
6. Pre-planning for the task of getting students to cooperatively work together with the teacher in identifying and acting upon common interests, purposes, and problems is more difficult and time-consuming than the pre-planning normally required for a classroom situation which is dominated by the teacher.  

If the textbook is taken away as the determinant of the curriculum, the security of the teacher will also be taken away unless there is something to take its place. The resource unit is the thing which can take the place of the textbook. Teachers should have the experience of constructing resource units, and ideally, perhaps, resource units would be constructed by the group of teachers in the local school who will be contributing to the unit of instruction. Realistically, though, because of the comprehensiveness of the resource unit if it is to properly serve the function for which it is intended, teachers cannot within the practicality of time available construct all of the resource units which they need. The greatest need in business education, other than the acceptance by teachers of the philosophy on which teacher-pupil planning is founded, is the construction of resource units. One way in which they could be constructed is by the cooperative efforts of teachers gathered together in the summer at universities to do graduate work. Another way in which they could be constructed is in workshops of the type conducted in Virginia.  

Only two sources of resource units were found in the literature of business education—the publication of the Committee on Business Education

226 Cf. ante, Holland, pp. 288-89.

227 Cf. ante, Crumley and Hall, pp. 287-88.
of Minnesota and those prepared in the Virginia workshops. Because of
the importance of the development of resource units, if business education
is to move in the direction of teacher-pupil planning, selected resource
units from these two sources have been placed in Appendix B. These
cover the subject matter areas of typewriting, transcription, bookkeeping,
distributive education, office practice, and general business.

If properly viewed, the "SAGO" units prepared for the general
business area could be utilized in teacher pre-planning for the teacher-
pupil-planning classroom. An evaluation of the "SAGO" units appears
in Appendix C.
BUSINESS EDUCATION STUDENTS SHOULD PARTICIPATE IN
DEFINING AND CHOOSING GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

The learning situation conceived by teacher-pupil planning has
three broad aspects—determining goals and objectives; working toward
goals and objectives; evaluating the extent to which goals and objectives
have been reached. This chapter contains excerpts from the literature
of business education which deal with student participation in determin-
ing goals and objectives. These excerpts are summarized and evaluated
at the end of the chapter.

I. STUDENTS SHOULD HAVE A PART IN DETERMINING GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Business education in general. In discussing curriculum planning
in business education, Forkner says:

... One of the most discouraging experiences I can have is
to go into a school and find that the pupils have little under-
standing about what the school is trying to do for them. Frequently
pupils tell me that they are taking a subject because it is
"required" or because they need an extra credit or because they
have heard the teacher was good—and for numerous other reasons
totally unrelated to personal objectives. One of the most effective
tests for determining whether the curriculum of your school has
been correctly interpreted to the learner is to secure honest state-
ments from the learners themselves about why they are doing what
they are.

I have seen beautifully worded statements of course objectives
that have been worked out by course of study committees; but when
I ask the learner himself why he is doing certain things, I
usually find little in his thinking that is related to these
stated objectives. I have questioned students in bookkeeping,
typewriting, shorthand, general business, and economic geography
in literally dozens of schools in many different sections of the
country. When asked why they are doing certain things I rarely find pupils answering in terms of objectives that teachers give and that course of study outlines indicate are the objectives.

Business teachers have a major responsibility in terms of curriculum practices to see that every learner definitely understands why he is engaging in a specific activity.

Good curriculum planning in business education, then, means that we must go beyond the planning stage and the stage of developing objectives and must carry these objectives to the students themselves. They must see the end-goal and the relationship of each step they take to that end-goal. I wonder just how much we would be able to discard from our teaching to make room for more important learnings if we seriously undertook to eliminate from our curriculums those things we are now doing that do not contribute to an end-goal of successful living.

But telling the learner what he is doing to contribute to the end-goal is not enough. There must be more than mere telling. The learners themselves must experience situations that have meaning for them and that illustrate the objectives.

... [An] example of interpreting the curriculum to the learner... was a class where each pupil had participated in the planning of the course and what it was to accomplish. As a result of the planning experience, the pupils, with the help of the teacher, drew up a set of objectives of the course... Needless to say, a conversation with these boys and girls would show that they knew what they were doing and why.1

Typewriting. In making an appeal for the recognition of student contributions as an effective aid to classroom motivation, Jepsen says:

The most important single element in the successful teaching of typewriting as in other subjects is gaining effective and friendly student-teacher relationships, a solid rapport sincerely enshrined. The first step in the development of this rapport lies in understanding objectives. There are many factors contributing

to mental fatigue or boredom in the classroom but none is more vital, or discussed less in specific terms, than the difference in aims and objectives which exist between student and teacher. Clearly it is possible that if there are thirty students in the room, there may be thirty-one opinions as to what are desirable and satisfactory achievement aims. The fact that the teacher is supposedly more expert and is responsible for formulating and assessing achievement actually means little or nothing in the minds of the students. About all that can be said is that the class attempts to conform with the teacher's standards without trying to understand or agree with them. This effort to subordinate their own true aims for the purpose of getting a grade frustrates and fatigues the pupils and certainly is a primary cause of mental boredom. In short, pupils do not readily make the teacher's aims their own as the latter often believes; and those who do not are potential sources of trouble.

The wise teacher of typewriting has some well-developed aims of her own, but she knows that the student also has some which he considers more important than the teacher's. No doubt it is the instructor's duty to make some effort to lead the student toward recognition of the value of his aims. But the teacher will do well to assume that the student may in fact have (for him) more realistic motivating aims, and these must not be ignored. Too often it is assumed that the mere thrill of attaining sixty words a minute or a perfect letter copy is sufficient motivation for the learner. Many of our beginners will tell us that this really is their aim because they do not understand themselves, just as many a young man when embarking upon life misinterprets his aims and ambitions. We cannot hope that this aim alone will create the drive necessary to master the tedious technical drills. Nor can we assume that the related aim of vocational efficiency has any strong motivating power for the young person so far removed from the job. We must provide for more vital urges. . . .

In discussing the importance of a right learning attitude on the part of students learning typewriting, Harms says:

... The right attitude is the most important factor in the typing situation. This applies to both teacher and student.

In order to have the right attitude, students must have a

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hand in what the class expects to do, must be "in on" the objective. . . 3

Shorthand. In discussing the teaching of shorthand and typing,
writing, Rowe says:

The learner, as well as the teacher, must be aware of goals and
objectives.

The goal must be simple, and the student must know what he is
doing and why. The teacher alone should not establish the goals
for the student; teacher and student must together determine what
the goals are to be. 4

Transcription. In discussing student participation in evaluation
in transcription classes, Murphy says:

To set the stage for cooperative evaluation the transcription
teacher and students must arrive jointly at an understanding of
the objectives of the class. This should be done during the first
week of the semester. 5

Distributive education. In discussing the importance of group-
process concepts in relation to distributive education classes, Logan
says:

. . . Objectives of the units of study should be cooperatively

3Harm Harms, Methods in Vocational Business Education (Cincinnati:

4John L. Rowe, "Some Principles of Teaching Motor Skills,"
Business Teacher, 27:12-14, September-October, 1949. See also, William

5Glen E. Murphy, "Cooperative Student-Teacher Evaluation in
Transcription Builds Responsibility," Business Education Forum, 6:25,
36, April, 1952.
planned by pupils and teacher. An atmosphere of full and free participation should permeate the group.6

General business. In suggesting improvements for the teaching of general business, Harms says:

STUDENT-TEACHER OBJECTIVES. General business teachers must make sure the students know what it is all about. What are we trying to achieve? Is it worth while? Worth while for us! Can we do it? Can we do it within the time available? Do we have access to materials? What will we get out of it? How does it tie in with the rest of our education?7

Business English. In discussing pre-planning by the teacher for a course in business correspondence on either the high school or college level by means of developing a resource unit, Keithley says:

The teacher should not hand his list of objectives to the students. They should be encouraged to plan their own objectives. Students and teacher working together can explore the possible purposes of the course. If students are given an opportunity to think through the problem, they will make use of their own experience much more effectively than if they are told by the teacher what the objectives are. . . . If guidance is effective, student and teacher objectives will blend together.8

II. WAYS IN WHICH STUDENTS CAN PARTICIPATE IN DETERMINING GOALS AND OBJECTIVES


Typewriting. In discussing the use of student conferences in typewriting, Betts says:

Beginning with the second week, it was my aim to have a brief conference with each of my pupils once a week, to talk over with him his typing difficulties and his goals for the next week.

After the student and I have discussed his troubles and his good points, we set a goal for the next week, in work to be covered and in speed to be attained. For the first six weeks, this goal was entirely in terms of gross speed; since then, the goals have sometimes included accuracy goals, too. I try to keep the student from setting his goal too high so that he can have the encouragement of actually being able to attain his goal.

In discussing student assumption of responsibilities in typewriting classes, Etier says:

The teacher should organize the classroom work so that the student assumes definite responsibilities. The typing class, for example, affords great possibilities for student participation. Since it is a new experience to assume responsibility for classroom activities, at first the entire class may be a committee which develops its own objectives for the course. The teacher can supply worthwhile data and guide the direction of thinking, but the overall planning is a group activity.

In describing the typewriting course in their school, the students of University High School, The Ohio State University say:

There is no requirement in speed development in order to consider this course completed. The speed is left entirely up to the individual. If a student feels that in his work in high school or college a speed of twenty words per minute is adequate, there is no reason why he should remain in classes until he can


do forty. If a student wishes to acquire a greater speed he may stay in typing classes until this speed is obtained.11

**Shorthand.** In discussing the use of student conferences as an aid in helping students to formulate goals, Pumala says:

One of the best ways to help create that interest or to fire interest already present is by means of individual conferences. Held early, such conferences establish a teacher-pupil relationship that indicates to the pupil an interest on the part of the teacher in him, that offers him the chance to tell her of aspirations or difficulties and a chance to make general aims more concrete.

In all conferences it is wise to draw the student out—to discover his aim and how he can best attain it. Suggestions and leads may be made by the teacher but the student will work with much more energy and enthusiasm if he has chosen the goal himself and made voluntarily the decision for improvement.12

In discussing the setting of goals in shorthand, Sharp says:

The student should be helped to establish long-range goals commensurate with his needs and interests. The teacher should make it possible for him to visit business concerns in the community and to study the needs of business in neighboring localities. From such experiences, he will learn the quality and production of work that business requires and will be able to estimate the amount of effort and time necessary to meet the demand.

Short-term goals should be determined in accord with the ultimate use to which the shorthand skill will be put. For example, a student may wish to work in an office where the dictation is slow. In cooperation with the teacher, he will set the goals for taking dictation at eighty words a minute and for transcribing at the rate of forty words a minute. The teacher previews and dictates material at rates of speed that will enable

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him to take dictation with ease at the rate of speed he wishes to
attain. If the student then wishes to obtain a position that
demands higher speeds and more production he will establish other
goals corresponding to his needs.\footnote{13}

In discussing the value of each shorthand student having his own
worthwhile aim, Pumala says:

The task of the teacher is to help them [the students] formulate
worth-while aims that will really tax them to the limit of their
abilities, to help them work out methods of achieving those ends,
and having achieved them to replace them with higher goals, and to
help them break a large goal, seemingly impossible of reaching,
into smaller ones well within their grasp.\footnote{14}

\textbf{Business English.} In discussing a cooperative effort on the part
of teacher and student to set up goals for a business English course,
Franck says:

In a two-weeks' preliminary period our efforts would be directed
toward the setting up of goals. There would be no superimposed
dictation by the teacher. Actual business correspondence would be
examined, tests would be given so that the student would recognize
the qualities of effective business English and realize his own
deficiencies in respect to its competent usage. This period of
preliminary approach should result in the student's recognizing
that certain definite fundamentals must be mastered. The mastery
of these fundamentals should be the student's goal.\footnote{15}

\section*{III. SUMMARY AND EVALUATION}


Students should have a part in determining goals and objectives. There is support in the literature of business education for the teacher-pupil-planning concept that students should participate in determining goals and objectives. This support comes from writers discussing the following areas within business education: business education in general without reference to particular areas;\textsuperscript{16} typewriting;\textsuperscript{17} shorthand;\textsuperscript{18} transcription;\textsuperscript{19} distributive education;\textsuperscript{20} general business;\textsuperscript{21} and business English.\textsuperscript{22}

Some of the special implications for business education of student participation in determining goals and objectives will now be considered.

Students may have to be exposed to certain experiences which will enhance their effectiveness in planning with the teacher the goals and objectives. The effectiveness of student participation in determining goals and objectives will, of course, be affected by the nature of the experiences which the student brings with him into the classroom. It

\textsuperscript{16} Cf. \textit{ante}, Murphy and Murphy, pp. 187-88; Trout, pp. 193-95; VanBuskirk, pp. 198-99; Christensen, pp. 199-200; Forkner, pp. 200-201, 295-96.

\textsuperscript{17} Cf. \textit{ante}, Harms, pp. 189, 297-98; Forkner, p. 189; Jepsen, pp. 296-97; Etier, p. 300.

\textsuperscript{18} Cf. \textit{ante}, Rowe, p. 298; Sharp, pp. 301-2.

\textsuperscript{19} Cf. \textit{ante}, Murphy, p. 298.

\textsuperscript{20} Cf. \textit{ante}, Logan, pp. 298-99.

\textsuperscript{21} Cf. \textit{ante}, Musselman, p. 192; Harms, p. 299.

\textsuperscript{22} Cf. \textit{ante}, Keithley, p. 299; Franck, p. 302.
may be necessary or desirable to expose students to certain experiences which will enhance their effectiveness in planning with the teacher the goals and objectives. In some courses it might be possible to give students certain experiences preliminary to the establishment of goals and objectives that might tend to reveal to the students where their weaknesses are which could then form a foundation for the establishment of goals to correct those weaknesses.23

The student who has a vocational objective may be aided in establishing goals and objectives if he is afforded the opportunity of visiting business concerns in the community and making studies of the quality and nature of the work required in those businesses. Such experiences might, for example, provide a basis for more meaningful student participation in the establishment of goals for the attainment of skill in typewriting and shorthand.24 Experiences in visiting and studying businesses in the community would not provide a panacea for meaningful participation of students in planning goals and objectives. It is likely that such experiences would be most useful in establishing long-term goals which could be broken down into shorter-term goals by the student with the guidance of the teacher.25 It should be mentioned in this connection that the long-term goal of attaining vocational efficiency does not have strong

23Cf. ante, Franck, p. 302.

24Cf. ante, Sharp, pp. 301-2.

25Cf. ante, Betts, p. 300; Fumala, p. 302; Sharp, pp. 301-2; Jepsen, pp. 296-97.
motivation for the young person so far removed from the job. 26 Where work experience of one kind or another is possible in conjunction with the business curriculum, the student has, of course, more meaningful and immediate experiences which translate themselves into goals and objectives.

Degree-of-skill goals must be set up on an individual rather than a group basis. In skill courses, goals in terms of degree-of-skill will have to be set up on an individual basis rather than on a group basis. In non-skill areas, or in skill areas where goals other than degree-of-skill goals are being established, the individual interests, needs, and purposes of the students can be provided for within group-set goals. The individual can, in terms of his ability and interest contribute to the goal toward which the group is working. However, a group goal of achieving thirty words per minute in typing cannot provide for the individual needs, interests, and purposes of students, nor can it take into consideration individual differences in ability. For example, if a student is taking typewriting for personal use and feels that a speed of twenty words per minute is adequate for the purpose for which he wants a typing skill, then that should be the goal toward which he is working, regardless of the goal toward which his neighbor, who desires a typing skill of sixty words per minute, is working in order that he may obtain the job he is hopeful of obtaining upon graduation. 27 This same concept

26 Cf. ante, Jepsen, pp. 296-97.

27 Cf. ante, Class of 1938, University High School, The Ohio
would apply to the setting up of goals in shorthand classes. That is, the student who desires a dictation rate of eighty words per minute and a transcription rate of forty words per minute, because those are the rates he has been informed he will need for the summer job he hopes to get, should have this as his goal regardless of the goals of other group members.28 However, since students in shorthand classes would not be taking the course for non-vocational reasons,29 students are more likely to have common degree-of-skill goals.

If the teacher is to serve as a guide in the learning situation, he must give individual guidance to students in relation to the setting up of degree-of-skill goals. It would be highly desirable for the student and teacher to have an individual conference in which the objectives of the student were discussed and a degree-of-skill goal established. Where the end-goal of the student is high, a shorter-term goal could be established which would have meaningfulness to the student and which could be attained before discouragement sets in. That is, a goal of eighty words a minute on the typewriter has no real meaning to an individual who is just learning the keyboard. It would also be highly desirable if these individual conferences could be repeated periodically so that student and teacher could evaluate the progress made toward goals and set new goals as old ones were reached and new ones became

State University, pp. 300-301.

28 Cf. ante, Sharp, pp. 301-2.

29 Infra, p. 349.
meaningful and were within the end-objective of the student.30

Before leaving this discussion, reference should be made to the fact that even though degree-of-skill goals may be different for individuals within the group, problems of building the skill that are common to the group will arise, which can be given group consideration.31 It should also be noted that, ideally, class scheduling in the school should be so arranged that students in courses whose objective is the development of a basic skill could leave the class when they have achieved their goal and move on to other environments where they could pursue unrealized goals and objectives.32

Effective teacher-pupil planning cannot take place where students are subjected to a predetermined set of performance standards. Another implication for skill areas is that standards of performance set up by a state system of examinations or by a school for grading or other purposes are not compatible with the concept of student participation in setting up goals. This, of course, applies to all predetermined standards whether they are word-per-minute standards or quality-of-work standards such as a standard of "mailability." Effective teacher-pupil planning cannot take place where students, regardless of abilities, interests, needs, or goals are subjected to a predetermined set of

30Cf. ante, Betts, p. 300; Pumala, p. 301.

31Infra, p. 347.

32Cf. ante, Class of 1938, University High School, The Ohio State University, pp. 300-301.
performance standards.\textsuperscript{33}

In relation to quality-of-work standards, it should be noted that the individual who has a vocational objective can be exposed to experiences which will make the attaining of skill in turning out copy which conforms to some standard such as "mailability" a purposeful goal. Turning out such copy cannot be a purposeful goal for the student until it is meaningful to him and until he has a skill commensurate to the achievement of such copy. Until it is meaningful and until there is commensurate skill, the only way in which students can produce mailable products is for the teacher to tell students what to do when they confront problem situations. However, when students contact problem situations in skill areas, the teacher must not deprive the students of the learning opportunity which is present by informing students just what they should do. The initial efforts of students to resolve such problem situations will certainly not result in perfect or mailable copy.\textsuperscript{34}

\textsuperscript{33} Cf. ante, Forkner, pp. 209-10.

\textsuperscript{34} Cf. ante, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 189-91.
CHAPTER X

BUSINESS EDUCATION STUDENTS SHOULD PARTICIPATE IN DETERMINING
THE CONTENT AND EFFECTING THE PROCEDURES NECESSARY FOR
ACHIEVING THE GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

In the learning situation conceived by teacher-pupil planning, students share in determining goals and objectives, in working toward goals and objectives, and in evaluating the extent to which goals and objectives have been reached. This chapter contains excerpts from the literature of business education which deal with student participation in working toward goals and objectives. These excerpts are summarized and evaluated at the end of the chapter.

I. STUDENTS SHOULD HAVE A PART IN WORKING TOWARD GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Students Should Participate in Determining Problems or Topics

General business. In discussing the establishment of desirable room atmospheres in business education classrooms, Popham says:

"... the teacher himself must respect the importance of the individual and conduct his classes in a democratic manner. In social business, for example, students may choose the topics which they wish to investigate, the manner in which they want to conduct their investigation, and the persons whom they wish to lead them in developing the projects. The teacher is only the guide during the planning; and the wishes of the group are respected. The classroom exemplifies democracy in action."¹

In discussing pupil participation in their learning activities in general business classes, Wells says:

Choices of topics or units or problems within the area of basic business education will be made by pupils in terms of their past experiences, their interests, their felt needs, their curiosities. Through their choices they indicate their underlying purposes, their need for growth. If pupils participate in the analysis of the chosen problem area, direction is given to the unit of work to be undertaken, purposes are clearly understood, and learning is enhanced.2

Students Should Participate in Determining Practice Work in Skill Courses -- Mere Repetition Is Not Enough for Skill Development

Business education in general. In discussing criteria for evaluating teaching in business education, Blackstone says:

The fifth criterion is concerned chiefly with skill lessons. It concerns the way students practice or study. Effective study or practice involves a thorough understanding of the process to be learned, plus a knowledge of why each step in the process is the best possible one. As indicated . . . [above], they have tried to learn these things for themselves until, through their own efforts, plus elaborations and perhaps even ultimately, demonstrations by the teacher, they have created an efficient mental picture of the process and how it is to be performed. Now they start to try to develop mastery through practice.3

In discussing the teaching of shorthand and typing, Rowe says:

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The greatest skill will develop only when each student engages in independent practice suited to his own needs. The student, with the help of the teacher, should plan his own practice work.

Effective learning takes place when pupils are intrinsically interested in the subject. What the student does to the practice material is not so important as what the practice material does to him. He must have a goal toward which to strive, and that goal must be fairly simple and not too difficult to attain. The student should know why he is performing a drill, how he is supposed to benefit from it. . . .

Typewriting. In discussing motivation in relation to the teaching of typewriting, Blackstone and Smith say:

... motivation is vital to habit formation. If a student is really interested in making motion patterns skillfully, the repetition essential for integrating the nerve patterns may be satisfying rather than tiresome and boring. Repetition is commonly thought to be annoying, but it is not necessarily so if the motivation is great. For instance, the golfer who is annoyed at his putting may stand on the putting green for an hour, striking the ball toward the hole again and again. As a boy, one of the authors found it most monotonous to sort potatoes in the cellar bin and to throw the bad ones out of the window, although he would throw a baseball for hours in an attempt to learn to pitch a particular kind of curved ball. The football player may stand at various angles and distances from the goal posts and try drop kicks until one would think he would be not only tired, but bored to death; but he is neither. If the motivation in typing is strong enough, many more repetitions may be secured from the student than has been thought possible.

... In skill development it is particularly important to provide a strong desire because without such desire the necessary repetition soon becomes tiresome . . .

... A teacher may try to motivate students by telling them that the activity about to be learned will be of great importance

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or usefulness to them when they are working in an office. While the students may have little immediate need for learning the procedure, they are warned that the time will come when they will be thankful that the teacher insisted upon their learning it. Although this statement may be true, such stimulation does not result in a positive or dynamic kind of activity on the part of the students. It is similar to telling a child that if he doesn't brush his teeth he may lose all of them by the time he is forty years old. Such stimulation is sometimes called "cold-storage" stimulation.  

In discussing the use of drill work in typewriting, Lessenberry says:

Drill completed without attention to its use or purpose tends to be wasteful. This basic principle suggests that the drill must represent a meaningful situation. A student may go through the motions of typing without learning anything even though he makes the required repetitions; but when the drill is made meaningful through proper motivation, it unquestionably improves typing power. The teacher should help students to see the purpose of a drill, determine the outcomes expected, select the practice procedures that will guarantee the achievement of the expected outcomes, and decide the approximate number of repetitions needed. There is no particular merit in doing so many lines of drill either with or without errors.

Students learn in different ways and work at different rates. There is no justification for forcing all into the same practice procedure. Adapt the rate and the practice procedures to fit individual needs. Let each student help to choose his practice procedure and encourage him to experiment with typing at different rates...

In discussing motivation problems in the teaching of typewriting, Lessenberry says:

Teaching is not measured in terms of teacher activities but in terms of student activities. What the teacher does in the

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6 Ibid., pp. 122-27.
classroom must be reflected in what the student does. Getting the student to want to type the drill or the exercise is the first step in motivation. He must see in the work assigned opportunities for the development of his skill, not tasks to be completed so that records can be made of lessons typed and of grades earned.  

...8

In discussing learning in relation to the teaching of typewriting, Hayden says:

Learning is more meaningful when the student understands the problem at hand and knows the objective of a given assignment. Goals are more effective when they are individual goals and when they grow out of the co-operative effort of the student and the teacher. An unattainable goal and one in which the student has no part in setting is as bad as no goal at all. Think how discouraging it must be for the student who is always at the bottom of the list no matter what he does in the class.9

In discussing the teaching of typewriting, Smith says:

... Look at your typing class. Pick out any one student. Is he merely drumming and thumping away at the keyboard? Or do his stance, his facial expression, and the sharpness of his motions indicate intelligent striving?

In other words, do your students have specific practice goals for each moment's work? Oh, not just a "hope I do better" or "hope I get a perfect copy" kind of general goal; rather, some specific goal—"I'm going to type smoother," "I'm going to push my speed up a bit," or "I'm going to slacken my speed pushing and see if I can write this line with good control."

The student should not only have a clear goal in mind for each practice effort—the goal should be his. He should have picked it himself, and he should know why it is appropriate to him. His goal may be one shared in common by his classmates, but it must be specifically appropriate to him.

One of the basic activities of the typing teacher is to train

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students to select correct practice goals.\textsuperscript{10}

In discussing the importance of a right learning attitude on the part of students learning typewriting, Harms says:

\ldots A meeting of the minds of the class must be obtained on the procedures to be used. All attempts at securing accuracy, for example, are futile unless the student has made up his mind that he really wishes to improve his accuracy. \ldots \textsuperscript{11}

\section*{II. WAYS IN WHICH STUDENTS CAN PARTICIPATE IN WORKING TOWARD GOALS AND OBJECTIVES}

\subsection*{Student Participation in Selecting Units of Work and in Planning the Content of the Course}

Typewriting. In discussing the teaching of typewriting, Pumala says:

Today, Lesson XX; tomorrow, Lesson XXI; Wednesday, Lesson XXII, omitting Section A.

How easy it is for typewriting teachers to drift into the habit of assigning simply the next lesson in the text, but how mechanical that is, how lacking in stimulation, no matter how good the text! What a wealth of opportunities are thus being missed for making typewriting a living thing!

In order to vitalize typewriting in the classroom, pupils should be given as many tasks as possible in which they are vitally interested now and which they will be likely to perform in later life. There are many possible activities, such as typing themes, letters to friends, recipes, favorite poems, and jokes.

\textsuperscript{10}Harold H. Smith, "Typewriting," \textit{Business Teacher}, 30:204, April, 1953.

Contrast this interesting personal work with the endless copying of paragraphs, telegrams, and bills from the text, and the pains-taking struggle with the typing of legal documents.

Some pupils have not even thought of using their home typewriters to write friendly letters. . . . One way of showing the pupils how to make practical use of the machine outside of typing classes is to permit them to write friendly letters or their own "business letters" on the typewriter in class. These business letters may consist merely of requests for free literature or for samples, but there is an opportunity for using typewriting in a real situation.

. . . Another important use of the machine for the pupils—not eight years hence, nor four years hence, but right now—is as a study help.

. . . Why not let the pupils bring their history books to class and use the typing period to outline the assignment? Such a lesson should not be spoiled by insisting on a perfect copy or even on any limiting of errors. The purpose must be kept in mind—the teaching of studying at the machine—and all encouragement to study at the machine would be futile if the situation were spoiled by having the pupil put in a sheet and yank it out, then put in another and yank it out, because of errors. He would never want to study that way again.

. . . Some pupils will be interested in collecting poems that appeal to them—not poems collected for an English teacher who marks on their selection, but poems collected entirely because of their enjoyment to the pupil. A notebook of jokes is another possibility. Girls who are domestically inclined may type recipes. Many pupils like to type the words of popular songs.

. . . Vitalizing typing means avoiding the words you must. No more threats in the tone of "heavy, heavy hangs over thy head, 30 words a minute—or else."

. . . The text should be supplemented frequently and the classwork enriched by "real" and interesting tasks. The pupils should be encouraged to bring in material they wish typed—a church bulletin for which they wish to cut a stencil, inventory for dad's store, and any of their own work.

Were one to walk into the room of a class whose teacher really believed in vitalizing the typewriting period, he would find one
pupil making carbon copies of an article desired by his Boy Scout troop, another typing a poem he likes, one copying recipes, one running off the class newspaper, someone else stapling the sheets together, a pupil-secretary returning from a conference with her teacher-employer, a youngster copying a theme for English, another studying at the machine, someone else typing a letter to a child in a foreign country—an activity begun perhaps in an English or foreign-language class.12

In describing the typewriting course in their school, the students of University High School, The Ohio State University say:

Typing, in our school, is taught for personal use only. Students usually learn typing in order to make use of it in their school activities. Those who are in the same class do not work as a group on one assignment. Students are scheduled for typing whenever it fits into their program. No attempt is made to assign the students of one age or grade to typing at the same period. In this way more students may take typing than would be able to if the classes were arranged according to ability. Most beginners take this subject at least twice a week, although many in the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades take typing more often in order to acquire more skill.

Since typing is for personal use it is valuable for the student to acquire skill as early as possible in his school career. For this reason many children begin to take typing in the seventh grade. Some of them can type at the rate of twenty-five to fifty words per minute. . . .

Emphasis is put on the development of speed and accuracy and on learning how to set up the type of material that one needs to use in his school work, such as bibliographies, outlines, manuscripts, verse, and business and personal letters. The students are urged to bring in papers for their work in unified studies, English, and social studies. They type this work, filing a carbon in their typing folders.

Whenever the student has no work of his own to copy he spends his time working on other materials to improve his skill. This may be working from a textbook lesson to increase his speed or copying from a simple story book. In this way the student plans his own program. There are many possible activities to be carried

on in this class. For example, the stencils for Hi-Lights, the mimeographed school paper, are cut by students during typing classes and study periods. Students may sign out from study or be excused from other classes to copy papers if there is a type-writer available at that time. Many students take advantage of this opportunity.:

In discussing "non-textbook" activities in typewriting, Rowe says:

... Any activity whereby the student sees a real need for doing will be much more effective than something artificially created for him. If the student sees the immediate need for learning a skill because it has some real value to him personally, more than half the battle is won as far as the mastery of that skill is concerned. Then, too, in all probability this learning experience will have been pleasant, and that is important when it comes to developing the whole child. The best motivating device is to find some real use or practical situation for the vocational skill you are currently developing in the classroom, thereby producing a situation of sufficient interest and immediate usefulness, so that the student will desire to solve the problem. Greater intrinsic motivation would be the student's pride and satisfaction in his own work for his own sake.

Other things being equal, pupils will be much more interested in typewriting if the lessons are so planned as to provide for pupil purposing, laboratory techniques, problem solving, adjustment to individual differences, wide participation, variety of procedures, and awareness of success. School tasks will be more meaningful and satisfying if we can tie them into what the pupil wants to do.

Some of the "non-textbook" activities which Rowe suggests as possibilities for things students might want to do are: typing letters to friends; typing letters of inquiry, as for example, to some college or school in which they are interested; typing letters that would facilitate the administration of the typing class such as letters ordering equipment; designing their own letterheads which might be

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duplicated on the mimeograph if the students so desired; bringing in business letters from their homes which can be displayed to illustrate various styles of letters; typing personal notes to their school friends; typing classwork from other courses; typing school cheers, yells, and songs; setting up their school schedules in tabular form; setting up list of popular songs or movie stars in tabular form; setting up in tabular form the batting averages of the players on their favorite baseball team; designing Christmas cards; typing place cards for school parties; filling in the blanks of a questionnaire secured from some employment office; typing for the school paper; typing programs for a school play.\[1\]

In describing how a typewriting class utilized a "personal typing day," Hartwell says:

This is a success story: How a "personal typing day," in which our beginning typing students are permitted—and helped—to type work of their own choosing, has become so valued that it is now part of our regular program for all beginning typists. Even though still in an experimental stage, the personal-typing lesson has made a place for itself because of the gratifying interest it has stimulated in our typing program.

Last fall, after some six weeks of instruction, we announced to our classes that shortly they would undertake an experiment, the success and continuance of which depended entirely on student co-operation.

For we were going to set aside the typing period each Friday for personal-use typing. The students were jubilant. We discussed briefly the kinds of work that they might type, including in our list the sort of work they would want to type in the future as well as in the immediate present. As the list lengthened, the

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discussion was directed toward specific work that each pupil would
like to learn to typewrite.

Of course, many of the types of work mentioned would be taken
up eventually by simply following a typewriting text or syllabus.
But the advantage of learning how when the pupil himself has
suggested his immediate need is self-evident.

... Some students wanted to type outlines so that they could
hand in typewritten English work. Others were interested in finding
ways of typewriting invitations on cards. A few returned veterans
wanted to write letters of application to colleges.

... Foreign-language vocabulary lists sometimes enter the
picture, and in these cases the students are shown the advantage
of using "leaders" to facilitate reading and how to place accent
marks. The typing of chemistry and physics class notes makes the
need for skill and 100 per cent accuracy in typewriting figures and
symbols readily apparent to the pupils. Learning to rule vertically
and horizontally on the machine is taken up when pupils type weekly
or monthly homework blanks or seating charts for teachers. Some
girls are interested in typewriting recipes for their home-economics
classes. There are always a few who want to type personal letters;
and, in the light of learning the proper form and of getting practice
in composition at the typewriter, a little of this work can be
justified.

Our Friday personal typing has become an integral part of
the program. It is looked forward to with eagerness by every
pupil. The carry-over value is evidenced by the many students who
come in after school to type up class notes.

Thus, the prime prerequisites for learning--spontaneous and
intense interest--are very much present; and "learning by doing"
is an actuality.15

Office practice. In discussing pupil participation in determining

the content of an office practice course, Bixler says:

15 Frances Hartwell, "We Personalized Our Typing," The Business
Education World, 27:580, June, 1947. See also, Thomas F. Scutro, Jr.,
"Utilizing the Group Method in Typing I," The Balance Sheet, 23:257-58,
February, 1952; Robert Finch, "Striking a Balance in Typing Instruction,"
The Business Education World, 21:610, March, 1941.
The class periods for the first three weeks were given over to exploration, the students reading any business-education material that interested them. Among the sources of information in the classroom library were secretarial books, handbooks, manuals, business magazines, and books pertaining to business training, English, filing, office machines, salesmanship, commercial law, commercial arithmetic, bookkeeping, and business etiquette.

... During this time, one day a week was set aside for open discussion of topics the pupils found especially interesting in their reading. As a result of this browsing, they concluded that they needed more detailed information about such topics as English, business etiquette, getting a job, office procedure, office machine operation, and office management. They studied these topics by reading and through investigations, visits, interviews and reports.16

General business. In discussing pupil participation in determining course content, Johnson says:

The first job of groups thus formed [small groups created within the class group] is to plan the year's or semester's work. Since there are some areas which must be included in general business, the teacher is justified in setting up limits to complete freedom of choice of content by explaining "we are required to study about this, and this, and this but beyond that you are free to include what you wish." After planning a course content each group presents its plan of procedure to the whole class to consider for adoption. Methods of presentation is up to the individual group—radio program, pantomime, round-table, playlet, chalk talk, and combinations are often used. The class adopts a group plan by vote. Once a plan is chosen the class follows it through to a logical conclusion and evaluates it.

After choice of a group plan of procedures, groups may disband temporarily and the class as a whole pursue the subject chosen for study. For example, if life insurance is the subject being studied, the class may feel a common core of knowledge is needed by all. When class members have mastered this basic knowledge, effective work may again be done by groups in more specialized areas such as legal angles of insurance, comparison of policies, and exploration of underwriting as a profession.

The class should have decided what the groups should do with their findings at the termination of the group's investigation. Often the class wants a report of findings and a favorite form of reporting to the class is by round table discussion.

If, according to the plan adopted by the class, the next subject up for study is consideration of vocations, regrouping according to interest is more expedient. It is well to begin a vocations unit of work by giving interest tests. Groups can then be formed on the basis of high interest results and individual desires to investigate various vocations, their qualifications, remunerations, job possibilities and chance for advancement, and other angles of their special interests.17

In reporting classroom practices in general business, Wells says:

In one school, basic business pupils selected their own units of work. Pupils listed all the contacts with business that concerned them, or they wrote down all the questions about buying goods, using services, and dealing with business concerns that had been somewhat puzzling to them, their friends, or members of their family. A committee of pupils tabulated these into basic business areas and reported to the class the field which seemed most significant to the group so that the course could begin with a study of that topic. In this same school units to be studied have sometimes been selected by taking a class vote on topics previously studied by basic business classes. Pupils designated first, second, and third choices. The units were studied in the order that the combined vote determined. This practice has proved desirable because pupils study more willingly if they have chosen the topic; they like the democratic atmosphere and the right to select subjects suitable to their needs.18

In discussing student selection of units to be studied in general business, Bahr says:

The least that can be done in allowing student selection is to permit the class at the beginning of the semester to browse through


the adopted modern textbook for a few days, insisting that each member read whatever interests him, reporting the following day what was especially attractive to him, asking who else was interested in the same problem, presenting the issues briefly, and then going on to another interest-area. On the second day or so, the teacher may suggest that the students are to select by class vote a few of the units presented in the text for further study. Request that on the following day each student be prepared to argue in favor of his unit showing why the study of it will be necessary to him. By the time the vote is recorded at the end of the first week, the class will not only have made its choices, but will have an overview of the subject in terms of its needs. Although the students have chosen units in a textbook, the book will not be the whole course but only a dependable outline for study.

If only a few of the units are selected at the beginning of the term, then others can be chosen later as the students become more familiar with the subject and the relation to their needs.

In discussing ways of effectively using a general business textbook, Hansen suggests:

... While some classes may study the material in the same logical order in which the textbook presents it, many teachers will want to use the table of contents to acquaint the students with sources of material available in the book. It is altogether possible that the class will want to study a chapter from the middle of the book first. There are certainly advantages in letting them know, through the table of contents, what material is available for study. The students can be given an opportunity to discuss whether or not each of the topics in the table of contents should be studied.

In discussing a committee method of learning in basic business subjects, Cameron says:

Basic business subjects by their very nature provide the means of using a variety of instructional methods. Too often the

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teaching degenerates into a monotonous lecture and even more monotonous assignments without benefit of class discussion, visual aids or visitors from the community.

One business class, tired of the lecture, question and answer method, asked to use the committee method in its learning. It wanted to choose the units to be studied and to plan activities in connection with them.

An election decided that the insurance unit would be the next unit to study, even though it was pointed out to them that this would be more difficult than others they might choose. The class organized, choosing a classmate as chairman with the teacher as co-chairman. Various phases of the work were planned through the use of sub-committees.21

**Economic geography.** In discussing methods of teaching business education, Klapper says:

Good teaching, by whatever plan, must exhibit certain fundamental skills that make up the pedagogic art. The first of these is the clear recognition of objective, of ultimate goal. While the new semester is still very young, the pupils must have a bird's-eye view of that part of the field of human knowledge which they expect to master. The first three periods in a commercial geography class were spent in discovering through an analysis of selected articles on the financial pages of the daily newspapers, the facts of economic geography which it seemed necessary for the pupils to know, and of which they were ignorant. This led to a close scrutiny of the table of contents of the prescribed text to find whether that book would adequately answer the needs. The general opinion was that the book was helpful but inadequate. Each of six other available books was assigned to an appropriate committee that was to report on its value as a source of information. Naturally, the committees asked for help in preparing their respective reports. Under the supervision of the teacher the class evolved a table of guidance for evaluating a book. Some readers may label this procedure project teaching; others may identify it as a problem lesson. The teacher of the class in question thought of neither. He justified his procedure by pointing to the need of orientating his pupils in a new field of knowledge and of giving them a comparatively clear view of the goals to

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be attained. He had little stomach for the procedure which reveals to pupils, through specific daily assignments, only the next turn in their road but never the ultimate destination. 22

In discussing the subject matter which should be included in an economic geography course, Staples says:

Sometimes we have found it practical to have the class formulate an outline [of the subject matter to be included in the course.] Each pupil contribution is carefully examined by the class, and accepted, or rejected, upon its merits. Under tactful guidance from the teacher, a class soon learns to keep the outline condensed. Outline building has many merits as a class exercise. It arouses interest; it secures a real creative spirit; it teaches analysis of material, and develops a fine critical attitude on the part of the pupils towards the relevant and irrelevant. 23

Business law. In discussing the improvement of teaching business law, Jacobs says:

What can be taught? That is not the problem; it is how to teach all that is vital in the lives of the pupils in the time usually allotted to this subject. Let the pupils, with the teacher's help, prepare a list of acts they have performed or are performing. This seems a sensible approach since law may be defined as a rule of action. Teachers will find that the students have: been employed; purchased food for the family and themselves; ridden on trains, busses, and steamships; driven automobiles; borrowed books and bicycles; used the express, parcel post, and freight services; used banking services; stopped at guest homes; and trespassed... 24


Typewriting. In discussing methods of adding variety to type-writing instruction, Blackstone and Smith suggest:

During early lessons, in which the exercises consist of individual words, students may get tired of writing the same words over and over. They might be permitted, therefore, to suggest additional words involving the particular letters studied, and this suggested list of words might be placed on the blackboard for the students to practice.25

Shorthand. In discussing student-created practice materials for shorthand, Schmidt says:

When pupils participate in the creation of intelligent, connected material, they can demonstrate not only their knowledge of ordinary business procedures but also their command of the fundamental rules of good English. Self-created material for practice confronts the pupils with no difficulties as to meaning and thus leaves them free to learn and to master.26

General business. In discussing the unit plan of instruction in an everyday business course, Todd says:

The unit plan of instruction excludes the use of a textbook or a practice set. With the assistance of the school librarians the everyday business teachers and pupils have found a wealth of information about each one of the unit problems in the school and public libraries. Business journals and pamphlets, government bulletins, and the publications of such organizations as the Better Business Bureau and Consumers' Research have provided up-to-date factual information that has been used in the class. Local business men and women have gladly shared their experiences and their knowledge with individual pupils, who have requested interviews, and they have come to the schools to participate in the class discussion of some problem about which they were especially well-


informed. In many instances parents have been sources of valuable information. There is no shortage of reference materials.

The pupils learn how to seek out information and how to evaluate the information that they find. The average pupil is on a continual search for information. He reads the daily newspaper; he scans the magazines, the pamphlets, and the advertising material that come to his home, in search of information; he writes to concerns that can give him those data that he wants; and he shares his findings—the clippings, articles, and the replies to his letters—with his fellow pupils.

... The teachers have been surprised at the expressions of parental interest in the course, and have been amazed and gratified at the personal papers—installment contracts, insurance policies, bills, receipts, et cetera—that parents have allowed pupils to bring to school for class use.27

Consumer education. In discussing learning activities in consumer education, Price says:

... Many sources of materials are available to members of a consumer class. The teacher need not be burdened with the complete responsibility of gathering these instructional materials. Students, properly motivated, will bring in much good material. A student committee can not only gather the material but also can provide an excellent means by which interest and enthusiasm for learning can be increased.

There are many resources of supplementary materials available to the consumer education teacher. The present-day teacher has little reason for holding to the stilted academic routine of teaching.

If you will turn the job of collecting [materials] over to a committee of students with just a few sources to start with, the result will surprise most teachers. One source leads to another and before you know it you will have gathered an abundance

of useful material. Students enjoy the "browsing" that is made possible when ample material is available. The educative experience gained by pupils through gathering, organizing, and evaluating materials is of considerable importance. . . 28

Student Participation in Homework Assignments

Business education in general. In discussing criteria for evaluating teaching in business education, Blackstone says:

Worthwhileness of purposing is developed largely through assignments. The effective assignment leads the students into a problem which they consider important and gives them both time and opportunity to find a successful solution. All too often the assignment is given in such wealth of detail and such complete directions that the student has only to follow the instructions blindly. Thereby he is deprived of the educational opportunity to seek and to find, for himself, the solution to a problem. The teacher may say that unless she gives complete instructions the students will flounder blindly for a while and then give up. Granted. But this is only more evidence that students need to learn how to attack a problem independently, and the only way to learn to do this is by directed and guided practice. Detailed assignments, continued throughout the student's entire school career, cause him to leave school unable to do things for himself, and if he gets a job in an office, he has to be told just what to do and how to do it. No wonder that businessmen complain that our graduates have no resourcefulness; they have never been permitted to develop any. They have followed instructions all their lives. Let us throw students more and more upon their own resourcefulness. Remember the order of King Philip of Macedon to the tutor of his son, the future Alexander the Great, "See to it, tutor, that you make yourself increasingly useless to my son." The second criterion, then, is a successful assignment which results in wholehearted purposing by the students, one which makes them want to find the correct solution by themselves. If the teacher has to give detailed references and page assignments, or to explain in great detail just what is to be done rather than giving a problem to which the students are to find the solution, the assignment is faulty and the purposing of the students will be weak.29


29E. G. Blackstone, "Criteria for Evaluating Teaching," Third
Shorthand. In discussing the teaching of shorthand, Pumala says:

We as teachers must instill in our students the realization that learning is an individual process, and we must also provide suggestions for methods to be used in acquiring this learning. Class assignments should be varied not only to maintain alertness and interest, but also to provide a variety of practice methods from which the student may choose.30

In discussing ways of making learning meaningful in shorthand, Duchan says:

The emphasis on homework has been on the production of an arbitrary quantity of writing in the belief that "practice makes perfect." Beyond the bare warning that the student must be able to read the homework on the following day, there has been nothing to inculcate in the student a desire to do homework because it will benefit him, or to give meaning or purpose to the practice of doing additional school work at home.

The student is the sole judge of his own difficulties. . . .

The number of repetitions is left to the student's discretion, for, through experience, he will be able to determine what his needs are if he is to reach the required goal. When the goal of homework is not a fixed number of repetitions, but a statement of meaningful achievement, it will be found that students will look forward to doing homework. . . .31

Bookkeeping. In suggesting small group activities for bookkeeping classes, Boynton says:

. . . Homework assignments give a part of the necessary practice for skill development. In some communities, small groups could be

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established for such practice. Membership in such groups could vary over a period of time and thus extend the relationship experiences. For example, students at the same level of instruction could meet and work together. Also, on new material or long problems, advanced students might work with beginning students.

For many teachers some mind-changing would be needed to accept this working-together process on homework, but such acceptance could eliminate undue headaches from worrying about the students copying each other's work. Office bookkeepers usually have access to help, and if within the group a democratic atmosphere prevails, the competitive element would deteriorate and a more basic interest in learning might well overcome the desire to copy.  

**General business.** In suggesting improvements for the teaching of general business, Harms says:

**TEACHER-STUDENT PLANNING OF ASSIGNMENTS.** Under the modern unit teaching technique the assignment, as it is generally known, fades from the picture. Students, with the guidance of the teacher, view the job they have selected, decide what needs to be done to effect a solution, and assign tasks to the proper committees or classroom specialists.  

**Business law.** In discussing the improvement of teaching business law, Jacobs says:

May the day soon come when homework, as such, will be prohibited and the teacher will do the teaching, guiding, and motivating in the classroom. Does this mean a student will not be allowed to read his law at home, or to look for practical examples of where the principles of business law have been applied? Absolutely not; it can no longer be considered homework, in the old sense, but instead, it is a truly pleasurable educational experience.  

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Students Should Have a Part in Working Toward Goals and Objectives

The excerpts from the literature in this chapter revolve around the concept that students should have a part in working toward goals and objectives. This support comes from writers discussing the following areas within business education: business education in general without reference to particular areas within business education;\(^{35}\) typewriting;\(^{36}\) shorthand;\(^{37}\) bookkeeping;\(^{38}\) office practice;\(^{39}\) general business;\(^{40}\) consumer education;\(^{41}\) economic geography;\(^{42}\) and business law.\(^{43}\) Although there is support for this concept in both the skill and non-skill areas

\(^{35}\) Cf. ante, Trout, pp. 193-95; VanBuskirk, pp. 198-99; Christensen, pp. 199-200; Forkner, pp. 200-201; Blackstone, pp. 310, 327.

\(^{36}\) Cf. ante, Forkner, p. 189; Harms, pp. 189, 314; Rowe, pp. 310-11, 317-18; Lessanberry, p. 312; Hayden, p. 313; Smith, pp. 313-14; Pumala, pp. 314-16; Class of 1938, University High School, The Ohio State University, 316-17; Hartwell, pp. 318-19; Blackstone and Smith, p. 325.

\(^{37}\) Cf. ante, Rowe, pp. 310-11; Schmidt, p. 325; Pumala, p. 328; Duchan, p. 328.

\(^{38}\) Cf. ante, Boynton, pp. 328-29.

\(^{39}\) Cf. ante, Bixler, pp. 319-20.

\(^{40}\) Cf. ante, Musselman, p. 192; Popham, p. 309; Wells, pp. 310, 321; Johnson, pp. 320-21; Bahr, pp. 321-22; Hansen, p. 322; Cameron, pp. 322-23; Todd, pp. 325-26; Harms, p. 329.

\(^{41}\) Cf. ante, Price, pp. 326-27.

\(^{42}\) Cf. ante, Klapper, pp. 323-24; Staples, p. 324.

\(^{43}\) Cf. ante, Jacobs, pp. 324, 329.
of business education, broader and fuller attention is given to it with respect to non-skill areas.

Student participation in working toward goals and objectives can be broken down into several distinct parts: determination of problems or topics which will achieve purposes; determination of methods of work which will be best in attacking the problems or topics; finding and using the materials necessary for the solution of the problems and topics; developing effective means of presenting the results of student study and experience.\textsuperscript{44} Consideration will now be given to student participation in these various aspects of working toward goals and objectives for areas of business education where other than degree-of-skill goals are being pursued.

\textbf{Student Participation in Working Toward Goals and Objectives Where Other Than Degree-of-Skill Goals Are Being Pursued}

\textit{Student participation in determining problems or topics which will achieve purposes.} Student participation in determining problems or topics will be limited by the curriculum structure of the school. If students are to have maximum freedom to participate in determining problems or topics, the curriculum structure will be expressed in terms of broad problem areas.\textsuperscript{45} But even if the curriculum structure is determined by an adopted textbook, students can have at least limited

\addcontentsline{toc}{section}{Notes and Citations}
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\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{44}Supra, pp. 62-63.
  \item \textsuperscript{45}Supra, pp. 72-73.
\end{itemize}
opportunities for determining the problems and topics they desire to study.

Numerous ways in which students can participate in determining problems or topics are revealed by the literature. Where, for one reason or another, a textbook constitutes the basis for the course, students may participate in the process of determining problems or topics by examining the textbook and deciding which of the topics they would like to consider and the order in which they would like to consider them. A variation of this procedure would be to let the students select problems or topics from among those which have been studied by previous classes.\textsuperscript{46}

The chances for dealing with problems or topics which are within the interests, needs, and purposes of students are enhanced, of course, if the group can be freed from the restrictions imposed by dependence on a textbook. Where there is such freedom, it is possible to start with a discussion of problems about buying goods, using services, dealing with business concerns, etc., that have been somewhat puzzling to the students. A record of the problems which arise out of such discussions can be kept and after all such problems have been submitted and discussed briefly, the group can decide which of the problems they would like to study and the order in which they would prefer to study the problems selected.\textsuperscript{48} Where problems and topics are chosen in this fashion, the

\textsuperscript{46} Cf. \textit{ante}, Wells, p. 321; Bahr, pp. 321-22; Hansen, p. 322.

\textsuperscript{47} Cf. \textit{ante}, Wells, p. 321; Jacobs, p. 324.

\textsuperscript{48} Cf. \textit{ante}, Johnson, pp. 320-21; Wells, p. 321.
textbook, if there is one, becomes just another source of information which may throw some light on the group effort to solve its problems. 49

Student participation in determining problems will, of course, take many forms. In typewriting classes, where utilization of skill objectives are being sought, one method of student participation in determining problems is to have the students bring in materials that they would like to type. From the materials which are brought in, the group can decide the problem areas in which attention will need to be devoted. As for example, it may be determined that quite a few of the items which were brought in involved a knowledge of vertical and horizontal centering to which attention would have to be devoted prior to the typing of those materials. 50 In bookkeeping classes, students might bring in business transactions that occur in their daily lives or in the businesses of family or friends. These transactions might form the basis for problems or even a practice set utilizing all of the steps in the bookkeeping cycle. 51

Where the experiences of the students have been limited, it may be necessary to spend some time in exposing students to experiences that will stimulate problems which are meaningful to them. Some time might be spent by students in browsing through available materials, talking to family and friends, and making visits to business

49 Cf. ante, Todd, pp. 325-26.
50 Cf. post, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 473-76.
51 Cf. post, Peters and Stutsman, pp. 484-85.
organizations. The interests of the students might also be extended by certain activities planned by the teacher such as the showing of movies, bulletin board displays, or the explanation of certain materials or topics which the teacher presents as something that he thought might have some interest for the students.

It should be mentioned at this point that out of the problem which is being attacked certain projects may develop that incorporate opportunities for student participation comparable to opportunities in the larger unit of work. Such projects as these might develop: the operation of a real business in the school such as a school store which would sell school supplies; the development of simulated business experiences in the classroom such as the setting up of the class as a dummy corporation; the presentation of a radio or assembly program.

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52Cf. ante, Bixler, pp. 319-20; Klapper, pp. 323-24.

53Cf. post, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 473-76; Aquinas Hall High School, pp. 475-96; New Rochelle High School, pp. 514-15; Laboratory School, Eastern Illinois State College, pp. 533-36.

54Cf. post, Plymouth High School, pp. 516-48; Middleton Union Free High School, pp. 549-50; Bagwell, pp. 550-51; Boynton, pp. 551-52; Central Commercial High School, pp. 556-57; Brown, pp. 557-58; University School, Indiana University, pp. 559-60; Jones, p. 560; Franklin Junior High School, pp. 560-61; The University High School, The Ohio State University, p. 567.

55Cf. post, Central High School, pp. 566-69; Murphy and Murphy, p. 569; Hanna, pp. 569-71; Boynton, p. 572; Central High School, pp. 572-73; South Philadelphia High School for Girls, p. 573; Bomernfeind and Lockwood, pp. 574-76; Winona Public Schools, pp. 576-79; Franklin High School, pp. 579-80; Purcell High School, pp. 580-88; Roger Ludlow High School, pp. 588-91; Laboratory School, Eastern Illinois State College, pp. 591-92; Oakland High School, p. 592; Plainview High School, p. 593; Henderson, pp. 593-94; The University High School, The Ohio State University, p. 594.
based on the results of a unit of work;\textsuperscript{56} the development of dramatizations;\textsuperscript{57} conducting community surveys;\textsuperscript{58} producing a class or school paper;\textsuperscript{59} scrapbooks for exchange with students in other parts of the country or world;\textsuperscript{60} building of resource files;\textsuperscript{61} preparation of bulletin board, table, and other displays.\textsuperscript{62}

\textbf{Student participation in determining methods of work which will be best in attacking the problems or topics.} After the group has

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{56} Cf. post, John Swett Union High School, p. 619; Whittier School, p. 620; Rosenblum, pp. 620-21; Long Branch Senior High School, pp. 631-32.
\item \textsuperscript{57} Cf. post, Caine and Sluder, pp. 594-96; Walters and Lansner, pp. 596-604; Brown, p. 605; Reich, pp. 605-6; Eastern District High School, pp. 607-10; Aquinas Hall High School, pp. 610-11; Langley Junior High School, p. 611; National Council for Business Education, pp. 611-12; Franklin Lane High School, pp. 612-16; Delman, p. 616; Harris, pp. 616-19.
\item \textsuperscript{58} Cf. post, Ardsley High School, pp. 531-32; Poughkeepsie High School, p. 532; Knouse, pp. 532-33; Laboratory School, Eastern Illinois State College, pp. 533-36; Kendallville High School, pp. 536-37; Roslynn High School, pp. 537-39; Wells, pp. 539-40; Cathedral Boys’ High School, pp. 540-42; Price, p. 542; Haines, p. 540.
\item \textsuperscript{59} Cf. post, Pumala, p. 621; Roosevelt High School, pp. 621-22; Central Commercial High School, pp. 622-23; Abraham Lincoln High School, pp. 624-26; Susan Miller Dorsey High School, pp. 627-28; Satlow, pp. 628-29; Rosenblum, pp. 629-30; Senior High School, LaPort, Indiana, p. 630.
\item \textsuperscript{60} Cf. post, Ponca City High School, pp. 630-31; Long Branch Senior High School, pp. 631-32.
\item \textsuperscript{61} Cf. post, University School, The Ohio State University, pp. 633-35.
\item \textsuperscript{62} Cf. post, Logan, pp. 635-36; Adams City High School, p. 638; Nolte, pp. 638-39; Jamestown High School, pp. 636-38; Reno High School, p. 639; Ferrester, pp. 639-41; Gohn and Taylor, pp. 641-42; Isaac C. Eleton Senior High School, p. 642; Douglas, pp. 642-43; Rosenblum, pp. 643-44.
decided upon a problem or topic, consideration must be given and decisions made as to the most effective way in which the group might attack the problem. These decisions will, of course, be influenced by the nature of the group and the nature of the problem. If, for example, the problem is one of investigating various business vocations, the group will need to decide such things as these: should the group as a whole tackle the problem and assign responsibilities to individuals, or should the group as a whole merely assign broad aspects of the problem to smaller groups within the class; should the division of responsibility be in terms of available resources, types of vocations, or by some elements of the problem which the group has decided they would like to know about all vocations such as qualifications, remuneration, chance for advancement, etc. 

Student participation in finding and using the materials necessary for the solution of the problems and topics. When a method of proceeding has been agreed upon, the group can begin the process of finding and using the materials necessary for the solution of the problem. The resources which can be brought to bear on business education problems are unlimited—business journals and pamphlets; government bulletins; newspapers; business forms secured from business organizations; business papers which come into the student's home; visits and interviews in

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64 Cf. post, Boynton, pp. 478-79; Klaus, pp. 494-95.
the community; guest speakers; talking with parents and friends; advertisements; pictures; films; recordings; radio broadcasts; textbooks, etc. 65

Through the utilization of available resources, students learn how to seek out and to evaluate data which bear on a problem under study. 66 Also, in the process of seeking out information, students have growth experiences which are no less significant than the information gleaned from the sources. A field trip into the business community as a source of information for a committee or for the whole group can become a project which incorporates opportunities for student participation comparable to opportunities in the larger unit of work. The opportunity is present for student participation in determining that a field trip has promise as a source of information; deciding which business organization in the community should be visited; deciding who will take the responsibility for such things as making arrangements with the business firm, making arrangements with the school administration, arranging for transportation, writing a letter of thanks to the business firm; making plans for insuring that the field trip will be a productive

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66 Cf. ante, Bixler, pp. 319-20; Todd, pp. 325-26; Price, pp. 326-27.
source of information as, for example, preparing questions that the
group or committee wants answered; if the field trip is to be made by a
committee or if committee responsibilities have been established, even
though the whole group is going on the trip, deciding on an effective
means of reporting the information which was gleaned which bears on the
problem under study. Similar opportunities to these are available to
the individual or committee going into the community to interview
businessmen, or to individuals and committees who are conducting surveys
of some aspects of the business community.

Student participation in developing effective means of presenting
the results of their study and experiences. Following the uncovering
and utilization of sources which are available, means can be decided
upon by the group for the presentation of the results of the study of
the problem. The means of reporting the results of the study are
numerous—individual and committee reports; panel discussions; debates;

67 Cf. post, Einolf, pp. 515-17; Hedman, pp. 517-19; Musselman,
p. 519; Hanna, pp. 519-20; Howland High School, pp. 520-21; The
University School, Indiana University, pp. 521-22; Meadville High School,

68 Cf. post, Knouse, p. 528; Leyden Community High School,
pp. 528-29; Jamesburg High School, pp. 529-30; National Council for
Business Education, p. 530.

69 Cf. post, Ardsley High School, pp. 531-32; Pughkeepsie High
School, p. 532; Knouse, pp. 532-33; Laboratory School, Eastern
Illinois State College, pp. 533-36; Kendallville High School, pp. 536-37;
Roslyn High School, pp. 537-39; Wells, pp. 539-40; Haines, p. 540;
Cathedral Boys' High School, pp. 540-42; Price, p. 542.

70 Cf. post, Boynton, pp. 478-79; Klauso, pp. 494-95.
dramatizations; sales demonstrations; tape recorded skits; tape recorded interviews; posters; graphs and pictorial charts; etc. 71

Student Participation in Working toward Goals and Objectives Where Degree-of-Skill Goals Are Being Pursued

Student participation in determining problems which obstruct the attainment of degree-of-skill goals. In a skill area where the goal toward which the group is working is a degree-of-skill goal, student participation in working toward such goals would follow basically the same pattern. Students would participate in the determination of problems which obstruct the development of the skill goal. As for example, in typewriting the problem of getting capital letters on the line of writing might be a problem encountered by a group. 72

Of course, where students have no skill, they will have no degree-of-skill problems, and certain experiences will have to be given to beginners before they can encounter problems. Thus, in the beginning stages of skill development, there will be fewer opportunities for student


72 Cf. ante, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 233-34. Cf. post, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 467-72.
participation in the learning situation. But, as has been pointed out, students are aware of the need for mature guidance on the part of the teacher, and as they become skilled in teacher-pupil planning, they can evaluate for themselves areas which are appropriate for more direction on the part of the teacher.\textsuperscript{73} In this connection it should be noted again, that in non-skill areas, where the experiences of the students are limited, experiences will also have to be given before meaningful planning and acting can take place.\textsuperscript{74}

\textbf{Student participation in determining methods of work which will be best in attacking the problem.} After the group has run into a problem which obstructs the development of the degree-of-skill goal, consideration can be given and decisions made as to the most effective way in which this problem might be attacked. Depending on the nature of the problem and the group, the group needs to decide such things as should each individual attack the problem on his own or should small groups be formed to experiment with and discuss possible solutions to the problem.

\textbf{Student participation in determining the practice materials which will be used in an effort to solve the problem.} When a method of proceeding has been agreed upon, the group can determine the practice materials to be used in an effort to arrive at a solution of the problem.\textsuperscript{75}

\textsuperscript{73}\textit{Supra}, pp. 70-71.
\textsuperscript{74}\textit{Supra}, pp. 333-334.
\textsuperscript{75}\textit{Cf. ante}, Rowe, pp. 310-11.
In certain cases, students might construct their own practice materials. The practice materials decided upon would then be used in an effort to arrive at possible solutions to the problem.

**Student participation in determining effective means for reporting solutions to the problem and in reaching decisions as to the best solution to the problem.** After possible solutions have been arrived at, means can be determined for reporting these solutions to the whole group, and decisions can be reached as to the best solution or solutions.

**Student participation in determining the amount and kind of practice needed in terms of the solution to the problem.** Where the problem has arisen as an obstruction to skill development, another step is entailed in the process of working toward goals and objectives, which is not entailed in non-skill areas. That is, the determination of what is thought to be the best technique for getting capital letters on the line of writing does not mean that the technique is thereafter a part of the skill of the student. Meaningful practice in terms of the determined solution is necessary. The group should decide how much time they feel should be devoted to practice for the particular problem which has arisen to obstruct the development of the skill and should

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76 Cf. ante, Blackstone and Smith, p. 325; Schmidt, p. 325.

77 Cf. ante, Blackstone, pp. 232-33; Blackstone and Smith, pp. 233-34. Cf. post, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 467-72.

choose the material which they feel would be best for this practice. In some cases, such practice will reveal that the determined solution is inadequate, in which case, other solutions must be sought and tried out.  

The student who engages in drill work as the result of the process suggested will be engaged in drill work which is meaningful to him—he knows why he is practicing and he knows how he will benefit from the practice because he has had a part in all aspects of the problem from its determination, growing out of a felt need, to the selection of drill materials to be used in an effort to incorporate the solution of the problem into his skill. Drill work which is not so motivated by a need felt by the individual is uneconomical, wasteful, and does not effect permanent learnings.  

Many problems which obstruct the development of degree-of-skill goals are individual rather than group problems. Many problems which obstruct the development of degree-of-skill goals would be individual problems rather than common problems for the whole group, in which case, the process of attacking the problem would be followed by the individual whose problem it is under the guidance of the teacher.

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79 Cf. post, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 467-72.
80 Cf. ante, Rowe, pp. 310-11; Lessenberry, p. 312; Hayden, p. 313; Smith, pp. 313-14; Harms, p. 314. Cf. post, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 467-72.
81 Cf. ante, Beatty, p. 208.
82 Cf. ante, Lessenberry, pp. 312-13; Smith, pp. 313-14.
Student participation in the determination and solving of problems which obstruct degree-of-skill goals is the antithesis of procedures typically used in skill areas. As was referred to above, teachers of typewriting have traditionally followed the routine of first demonstrating to the student the correct way of machine manipulation and then seeing that the students practice enough to master the thing demonstrated. Teachers of shorthand have traditionally followed the routine of telling and showing how something is done, followed by teacher-planned and teacher-conducted drills in terms of the thing told and showed.\[83\] This routine has been justified by concepts such as these: the first attempt made by the student should be correct; incorrect starts will lead to habits which will be fatal to the development of skill; when students are observed to be doing something incorrectly, the student should be stopped and the correct procedure shown to the student.\[84\] Such procedures and concepts are the antithesis of the procedures suggested above for student participation in attacking degree-of-skill problems.

This is not to say that teacher demonstration has no part to play in the skill area. Teacher demonstration of the way the experts do it would quite naturally be a part of the group effort to determine the solution to the problem. The role of the teacher in the classroom demands that he insure that all available sources of information are

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\[83\] Supra, pp. 222-23.

\[84\] Cf. ante, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 189-91; Blackstone, pp. 242-43. Cf. post, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 167-72.
considered before solutions are determined. In most cases, such teacher demonstration would come at the end of the group or individual effort and would, in many cases, if the method of the experts is the best way and if the students are working effectively together, be a demonstration of the elements which the group had arrived at in its effort to solve the problem. Teacher demonstration of this sort is quite far removed from demonstration given with the idea that students should imitate faithfully the example which has been set by the teacher as they work on drill materials supplied by the teacher.

It should also be noted that as students arrive at possible solutions to degree-of-skill problems, student demonstration of solutions may make unnecessary demonstration on the part of the teacher.

The Objective of Developing a Degree of Skill Is Not an Objective Which Is Isolated from Other Purposes and Objectives of the Students

The above discussion has dealt with student participation in working toward degree-of-skill goals in the skill areas of business education. The objective of developing a certain degree of skill in skill courses is not, of course, an objective which stands alone in isolation from other purposes and objectives of the students. That is, students do not desire a skill in typewriting because they expect some

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85 Supra, pp. 278-79.
86 Cf. ante, Blackstone, pp. 232-33; Blackstone and Smith, pp. 233-34.
87 Cf. ante, Beatty, pp. 195-96.
aesthetic pleasure from being able to type at sixty words per minute; nor do they expect that they will be the life of the party if they can sit down and demonstrate a good typing ability. They desire a certain degree of skill so that they may be able to type term papers, get a job, etc. Thus, in skill courses, there are many problems for solution other than problems which arise as obstructions to the development of a degree of skill. These are problems, such as "How to Type a Business Letter," which, while being dependent on student possession of a degree of skill, involve student utilization of the skill in attacking the problem. Such problems can be attacked in the same way as problems in non-skill areas.

Certain Differences Exist between the Skill and Non-Skill Areas of Business Education with Reference to Student Participation in Working toward Goals and Objectives

In the above discussion, certain distinctions have been made between the non-skill and skill areas of business education. These will now be reviewed.

Students coming into non-skill courses may bring with them problems or experiences out of which problems will develop that can be attacked by the group. Students coming into skill courses also may bring with them problems and experiences out of which problems can grow that can be attacked by the group. However, the problems which students bring with them into beginning skill areas are problems which have to do with the utilization of the skill—for example, the problem of how to type a business letter. Problems in the skill area which deal with the
utilization of the skill can be attacked in the same way that problems are attacked in the non-skill area.

Students in skill courses cannot, of course, tackle problems which deal with the utilization of the skill until they have a certain amount of skill. Thus, an original goal of students in skill courses is the development of a degree of skill. In the skill area, the problem of how to get a capital letter on the line of writing, for example, is not a problem which a student who has never seen a typewriter before would bring with him, nor would he have had any previous experience out of which a realization of this problem would emanate. Therefore, certain initial experiences must always be given to beginning skill students out of which degree-of-skill problems will arise. In non-skill areas, it may or may not be necessary to provide initial experiences out of which problems will arise, depending on the problems and experiences which students bring with them.

The problems which will be confronted in skill courses in working toward degree-of-skill goals can be tackled individually or by the group in much the same way as problems are tackled in non-skill areas. Some differences exist, however. First of all, the degree-of-skill goal will not be a common goal for the whole group as would usually be the case of goals in non-skill areas. Secondly, degree-of-skill problems encountered would in many cases be individual rather than group problems. Thirdly, where the degree-of-skill problem was an individual rather than

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88 Cf. post, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 473-76.
a group problem, the problem would be solved and meaningful drill work engaged in by the individual rather than by the whole group. Thus, the differences which exist between non-skill areas and skill areas where a degree-of-skill goal is being pursued point toward a classroom situation in which there would be more individual work being done under the guidance of the teacher as compared with teacher guidance of group work in non-skill areas.

Although certain elements in the skill areas point toward more individual work under the guidance of the teacher as contrasted to group work, there will be many opportunities for group work which should be utilized, whenever possible. Even though degree-of-skill goals may be different for the members of the group, certain problems of developing the skill, such as getting capital letters on the line of writing in typing, may well be common problems which can be given group attention. Then too, certain problems, while not being common to all of the members of the class, may be common problems for a number of the students. These students could form a small group to attack such problems. In the area of utilizing the skill, even though the group contains individuals with widely different objectives, certain problems will be common to the group. In typing, for example, both the individual who wants to learn to type in order that he may be able to type term papers and the person who is taking typing for vocational reasons feel the need for learning how to center material vertically and horizontally on the page. 89

89 Cf. post, Blackstone and Smith, pp. 473-76.
Since more individual work under the guidance of the teacher is indicated in skill areas where degree-of-skill goals are being pursued, a classroom organization which will permit such individual work is necessary. One way in which such individual work may be provided is to devote one or more days a week in which the students would work on anything they desired to do. In typewriting, some students might work individually in practice on a skill problem which has been causing them trouble. Other students might form a small group to take timed writings in an effort to build speed. Still other students might have utilization of skill problems which they want to tackle such as the typing of term papers. Such a day could also be utilized in shorthand by students individually or in small groups working on skill problems which they have confronted. For example, an individual who is having trouble in maintaining a proper proportion among shorthand characters might spend time in practice on that problem; a small group might be formed by people having trouble with brief forms; another group might be formed to work on taking dictation at a certain skill level.

Certain Differences Exist between Shorthand and Typewriting with Reference to Student Participation in Working toward Goals and Objectives

Distinctions have been made above between the skill and non-skill areas of business education. Within the skill area there are differences which exist between the shorthand and typewriting learning situations which will now be considered.

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\(^{90}\)Cf. ante, Hartwell, pp. 318-19.
The opportunities for group or individual attack on problems which deal with the utilization of skill are more limited in shorthand than in typewriting. This stems from two interrelated differences in the shorthand learning situation as contrasted to the typewriting learning situation. First of all, the objective for taking shorthand is a vocational one—there is general agreement in business education that there is no justification for taking shorthand for other than vocational reasons. The second reason, which grows out of the first, has to do with the nature of the vocational utilization of the shorthand skill—it is utilized in taking business dictation from someone else in shorthand and then transcribing that dictation on the typewriter in acceptable business form. As contrasted with these aspects of the shorthand learning situation, there are, of course, many other objectives for taking typewriting than to use it vocationally. Also, the typing skill is utilized as a means of producing the end product as contrasted to shorthand where the skill is a means of recording dictated matter from which an end product can be produced. Consideration will now be given as to how these differences affect the opportunities for group or individual problems which deal with the utilization of skill.

In typewriting there are many opportunities for utilizing the skill in solving problems that are within the immediate interests, needs, and purposes of the students. For example, a student wants to write a

business letter to a college requesting information about entrance requirements. He has a need to learn how to write a business letter which provides meaningfulness for attacking the problem as to how to write a business letter. The solving of this problem is within the end-objective of the student in typewriting whether his objective is a personal-use one of learning to type business letters for just such situations as the one described or whether he intends to use his typing vocationally on a job where he will need to know how to type business letters.

There is no such comparable basis for problems dealing with the utilization of shorthand skill. The utilization of the shorthand skill itself, apart from the taking and transcribing of material which has been dictated by someone else, has no meaning within the vocational objective sought by the student. That is, there are no problems comparable to the problem of how to type a business letter that students can attack which will utilize the shorthand skill. Students might do such things as write personal letters in shorthand to friends of theirs who are also taking shorthand, but there is nothing in the area of meaningful problems, the solution of which would move students in the direction of their end-objective. Perhaps this point might be clarified by referring again to the problem of how to write a business letter. It is true that the solution of this problem is within the end-objective of the shorthand as well as the typing student, for the shorthand student will be taking and transcribing letters on the job which he gets. However, the shorthand student who would attack the problem of how to type a business
letter as the result of a desire to write a letter to a college inquiring about entrance requirements would not be utilizing the shorthand skill. After obtaining necessary information about how to write a business letter, the shorthand student would sit down and compose the letter at the typewriter just as would the person who did not have the shorthand skill.

The utilization of skill problems which grow out of the objective for taking shorthand have to do with the types of dictated material that an individual may have to take and transcribe in a stenographer's job. This poses something of a hazard for the shorthand classroom where it is desired to base the learning situation on problems which will be meaningful to students. As has been said, the long-term goal of attaining vocational efficiency does not have strong motivation for the young person so far removed from the job.\(^92\) As with other areas when students have not had experiences out of which meaningful problems can arise, they must be exposed to experiences which will give rise to such problems.\(^93\) Where such a need exists, textbook projects that simulate business problems which may be contacted by stenographers are poor substitutes for student contact with real business situations. More than in any other area of business education, students of shorthand need some kind of work experience out of which utilization of skill problems will arise. If cooperative work experience programs are not possible,

\(^92\) *Supra*, pp. 304-5.

\(^93\) *Supra*, pp. 333-34.
more limited part-time jobs may be possible. If neither of these things is possible, dictation from teachers, parents, the school principal, etc., of real materials, such as letters which will be placed in the mail, might be possible. Although not as useful as a work experience, student visitations of offices and the study of problems confronted by stenographers in those offices would be another experience out of which utilization of skill problems could arise. 94

In comparing the opportunities for group or individual attack on problems which deal with the utilization of skill in typewriting and shorthand, it should also be noted that such problems can be attacked sooner in typewriting than in shorthand classes. As has been pointed out, students cannot tackle problems which deal with the utilization of the skill until they have a certain amount of skill. 95 In shorthand, the time involved in learning the shorthand system so that some ability to take dictation is developed plus the development of some ability to type from shorthand notes, as contrasted with typing from longhand, would require more time as compared with typewriting before utilization of skill problems could be tackled. During the period before utilization of skill problems can be tackled, students can, of course, participate with the teacher in solving degree-of-skill problems which arise.

As has been pointed out, in the beginning stages of skill development, there are fewer opportunities for pupil participation in the

94 Supra, pp. 258, 304-5.
95 Supra, p. 346.
learning situation.\textsuperscript{96} Because of the differences which exist between the shorthand and typewriting learning situation, the period which calls for more teacher direction would be longer in shorthand than in typewriting. In this connection, it should be mentioned again that students are aware of the need for mature guidance on the part of the teacher, and as they become skilled in teacher-pupil planning, they can evaluate for themselves areas which are appropriate for more direction on the part of the teacher.\textsuperscript{97}

Other implications for business education of student participation in working toward goals and objectives will now be considered.

\textbf{Student Contact with Real Life Situations Will Enhance the Effectiveness of Student Participation in Working toward Goals and Objectives}

In the process of working toward goals and objectives, the closer students can come to real life situations the more purposeful the learning situation will be. If the students are studying a unit on business vocations, real contacts with the vocations in the local business community will be more meaningful than the utilization of printed source materials. If the utilization of business forms is a part of the work of the group, real business forms will be more meaningful than forms clipped from a workbook. If students are learning to transcribe, the dictation for transcription of a letter which will be placed in the mail will be

\textsuperscript{96}\textsuperscript{96} \textit{Supra}, pp. 339-40.

\textsuperscript{97}\textsuperscript{97} \textit{Supra}, pp. 70-71.
more meaningful than a letter dictated from a textbook. If students are learning bookkeeping, the utilization of real, live business transactions will be more meaningful than transactions from a textbook or a practice set. If students are learning to type, student typing of real term papers, business letters, personal letters, club announcements, programs for the school play, articles for the school newspaper, etc., will be more meaningful than the typing of materials from a textbook.  

Student Participation in Homework Assignments

Another implication of student participation in working toward goals and objectives has to do with homework assignments. As students have a part in the determination of problems and in deciding on the procedures which will be used in tackling the problems, they assume responsibility for working with the group in tackling the problems. The homework assignment, as it is traditionally conceived, is not a part of such a classroom. Students would, of course, be engaged in activities outside the classroom, but such engagement would not be in terms of reading so many pages of a textbook or in copying so many pages of shorthand plate material. Where other than degree-of-skill goals are being pursued, students would be searching for and evaluating information

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which bears on their responsibility to the group for an aspect of the problem under consideration. Where degree-of-skill goals are being pursued, the students would be engaged in practice activities which they have had a part in determining as necessary practice activities for the attainment of a goal. As with activities within the classroom, certain activities outside the classroom may be facilitated by small groups working together as contrasted to the traditional assignment in which each individual performs the assignment alone, frequently in competition with other members of the group.  

In situations where students have had no previous experience in assuming responsibilities in the learning situation, the homework assignment may be used as a means for giving students some degree of responsibility from which the ability to assume larger responsibilities can develop. For example, instead of an assignment containing complete directions so that all the student has to do to complete the assignment is to follow the instructions blindly, assignments could be made which are broad enough in scope to give the students an opportunity for independent thinking and acting.  

Where degree-of-skill goals are being pursued, a limited start in the direction of student assumption of responsibility can be made by giving students choices as to practice activities on which they might work. These choices might be made,

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100 Cf. ante, Boynton, pp. 328-29.
101 Cf. ante, Blackstone, p. 327.
102 Cf. ante, Pumala, p. 328.
for example, from among practice activities which other people have found helpful in building the skill in question.

**Student Participation in Classroom Management**

A final implication of student participation in working toward goals and objectives has to do with student participation in classroom management. As classroom groups work together toward goals and objectives, there are certain routines, regardless of the particular unit of work under consideration, which provide opportunities for student participation. Students can, for example, assume individual or committee responsibility for such things as: maintaining class records such as attendance records, progress records, or records for the classroom library; distributing, collecting, and filing papers; distributing and collecting supplies; making requisitions for supplies; receiving visitors and answering inquiries; operating movie and other visual aid equipment; maintaining a proper furniture arrangement; caring for office machines; caring for the blackboards and bulletin boards; and maintaining proper lighting, heating, and ventilation.¹⁰³

CHAPTER XI

BUSINESS EDUCATION STUDENTS SHOULD PARTICIPATE IN DETERMINING HOW EFFECTIVELY THE GOALS AND OBJECTIVES HAVE BEEN REACHED

Teacher-pupil planning holds that students should participate in determining goals and objectives, in working toward goals and objectives, and in evaluating the extent to which goals and objectives have been reached. This chapter contains excerpts from the literature of business education which deal with student participation in evaluating the extent to which goals and objectives were reached. These excerpts are summarized and evaluated at the end of the chapter.

I. STUDENTS SHOULD PARTICIPATE IN EVALUATION

Business education in general. In discussing student participation in the evaluation of learning in business education, Watson says:

Measurement of pupil growth by the teacher is an accepted feature of our educational program. More recently, pupil self-evaluation has become an important part of our school experience. . . . The importance of group action in all of our learning activities was discussed in the introduction of this section. Evaluation of what has been done within the group should be made by the group itself, in order to continue the desirable outcomes of such a program.

Thus it is the responsibility of the teacher to guide the pupil in his endeavor to develop a keener appreciation for good workmanship, and to acquire a more accurate appraisal of occupational efficiency, in terms of service to society through group measurement and evaluation of class assignments and projects.

Business education affords many excellent opportunities for group evaluation. The very fact that job standards are often established according to demands of existing business needs, helps in setting up the organization for group evaluation. Pupils have
an opportunity to appraise their accomplishments according to the
criteria established by business, as well as by checking their work
against the standards determined by classroom practice. If this
evaluation is made by the teacher, without any student participa-
tion, one of the most important educative processes is being neg-
lected—that of directing the pupil in the evaluation of his own
work and directing pupil participation in the cooperative evaluation
of the work of the group. . . .

In discussing evaluation, the Committee on Business Education of
Minnesota says:

Evaluation is the process of putting a value on an educational
experience, a process of gathering evidence of the changes that
have taken place in behavior. If the aims of the educational
program have been defined in terms of desired behavior, the
evaluation procedures will show to what extent the desired behavior
has been achieved or what progress has been made toward it.

Evaluation is a continuous process; it goes on all the time.
Appraisal of progress toward objectives is an essential part of
every experience unit. The basic purpose of evaluation is to
help the learner learn, to enable him to discover his strengths
and weaknesses, and to assist him in planning his own remedial
work and his further learning.

All who participate in the learning activities should also help
with the evaluation. Students should have a share in setting up
the procedures and in interpreting the results. The process
consists of four steps:

Deciding upon the aims to be appraised

Constructing or finding or identifying samples or situations
in which the student will have a chance to reveal whether
or not he has developed the kind of behavior indicated by
the aims

Getting a record of the learner's behavior, preferably a
continuous or cumulative record

Interpreting the record

1Dorothy Marie Watson, "Group Evaluation of Learning," American

In discussing criteria for evaluating teaching in business education, Blackstone says:

The fourth criterion is effectiveness of student judging and generalizing. Each student, after he has tried out his plan, should be expected to try to decide the extent to which he has been successful. This, too, he must learn to do well; he can't always do it well at the start. Judging involves discrimination and comparison with some known standard.

In a good lesson, then, students are expected to apply discrimination in comparing their work with some standard (judgment) and to attach a sort of "moral" to each bit of learning. At first they will judge and generalize poorly, but with continued experience they will learn to do them more effectively. The fact that these things are hard for an observer to judge does not in any way lessen their importance as criteria of good teaching.

In discussing the evaluation of classroom work in business education, Rankin says:

...The distinctive purpose of evaluation is the redirection of the efforts of teachers and pupils alike. An understanding of the outcomes actually being attained in relation to the outcomes sought enables the pupil who is genuinely concerned with making progress to modify his practices in study and learning in order to attain more surely the desired objectives. Similarly, the knowledge of pupils' achievement in relation to the purposes of instruction enables the teacher to shift his relative emphasis on different objectives, to modify the teaching procedures which he is using, and especially to adapt his instruction to the differences revealed in the individual pupils.

In a business education curriculum survey in which approximately

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250 schools participated, one of the questions asked the participants was as to whether they had a plan for the students to take an active part in evaluating their own achievements and in determining the marks they earn. In reporting the results of this survey, Forkner says:

Businessmen frequently remark that the young employee has little or no understanding about how to evaluate his own work. He rarely knows when he has done an outstanding job or a poor one. He has always relied upon the teacher to tell him what his "mark" is. He has frequently never been asked to judge his own work in light of acceptable standards. The committee felt that the work of the business teacher could not only be made more effective and less difficult if students were taught how to evaluate their own work, but that the learning resulting from such experiences would result in each student's setting a higher standard for himself. There were only eighty-one schools which reported that they followed this practice. Among the comments were the following:

Winooski, Vermont. The students are more cooperative; gripes are rare; standards are even higher than those previously set by the teacher.

San Diego, California. Typing classes in which this plan is used show better averages and fewer failures.

Binghamton, New York. It not only shows them the kind of errors they are making, but also helps to develop alertness.

Twin Falls, Idaho. Seems to help in holding students' interests.

Indianapolis, Indiana. Pupils are more aware of their needs. They are also aware of their strong points. This has eliminated misunderstandings on the day grades are issued.

Jacksonville Beach, Florida. Gives incentive for improvement.

New Orleans, Louisiana. These develop desirable character traits and attitudes. In addition the students have become keenly aware of shortcomings and exert greater effort toward improvement in their class work.5

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Typewriting. In discussing the teaching of typewriting, Harms says:

After the students know the keyboard and are typing straight copy with a fair degree of skill, the teacher and the students need to reconsider such things as the following: What are we trying to do? What are the objectives of beginning typing? Is my class time being used effectively? . . . Have I obtained class agreement on what to do this week and how to do it? . . . Is there a continual evaluation of the work done? Are the bulletin boards being used sufficiently? Do the students have a clear conception of what will eventually be expected of them in an office when they will be using these skills vocationally? . . .

Transcription. In discussing teacher-pupil evaluation in transcription, Murphy says:

Cooperative student-teacher evaluation in transcription classes will yield outstanding results in terms of student achievement, clear-cut purposes, and class morale. The transcription teacher who has learned to use cooperative evaluation techniques in his teaching will find that the tenor of his teaching is completely changed. Cooperative evaluation provides opportunities for the teacher to meet individual needs and interests. . . .

Distributive education. In discussing student activities in distributive education, Kneeland says:

To achieve the maximum value from each activity, it must be evaluated—again, in a businesslike manner. Both instructor and student must contribute to the evaluation.

Evaluation may be conducted in many ways—a rating sheet, class discussion, committee discussion, individual conferences, etc. It is wise to use many ways; after all, learning how to

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7 Glen E. Murphy, "Cooperative Student-Teacher Evaluation in Transcription Builds Responsibility," Business Education Forum, 6:25, 36, April, 1952.
give and take criticism is an essential element of vocational training, and reviewing performances critically is the surest way to bring about their improvement. 8

In discussing committee work in distributive education, Kneeland says:

... Any project must, of course, be judged in terms of standards previously set up. The teacher will wish to make his own evaluation; but, if the training goal is to be achieved, evaluation of the finished project should be made both by the committee that performed it and by their classmates. 9

General business. In discussing pupil evaluation of their learning activities in general business classes, Wells says:

Pupil evaluation of the effectiveness of their own activities is necessary if there is to be improvement in the choice of methods of attack upon problems deemed worthy of study and improvement in the use of the methods selected. Teacher evaluation, although necessary, is no substitute for pupil evaluation. Good teachers deliberately plan their work with their classes so as to become progressively less needed by their pupils as they grow in self-reliance and judgment. Only in this way can emotional and intellectual maturity be gained by youth. At intervals during a unit of work and again at the end of the unit, time should be set aside for evaluation. With a few suggestions and leading questions from the teacher, pupils can be led to evaluate the worth of the project or unit, the suitability of study procedures employed and the effectiveness of their use of these procedures, the methods employed in presenting the results of individual and committee research to the class, the method of summarizing learning so that generalizations may be drawn out, and the development of personal characteristics such as co-operation, dependability, and resourcefulness. . . .

No evaluation procedures can be considered complete unless it contains a follow-up in terms of suggestions for improvement,

made by the students with the guidance of the teacher, which are then put into practice in the next unit studied.10

In discussing the evaluation of basic business pupils, Bahr says:

The evaluation should be done not only by the teacher but also by the pupils and, if possible, by the parents. The pupils need from time to time to appraise their own progress. What had they planned to achieve in studying investments, for example? Did they accomplish their objectives? If not, why? Did the deficiency lie with the pupils, the materials, the technique, the teacher or what? How can the procedure and participation be improved? Perhaps in a questionnaire sent to the parents, or during American Education Week when they visit the schools, the adults may help in the evaluating process.

Basic business teachers have long neglected the area of evaluation. A great deal needs to be done. They have been content with evaluating only the ability to retain subject matter which is constantly changing and which will easily be forgotten in the coming weeks and months. They need to examine pupil interests because if the interest of the pupil is known, he may be inspired to learn better in his particular area. He will probably enter that related area of occupation, and he will spend much of his income along the line of interest. Perhaps, too, the basic business student has progressed farther in many areas such as self direction, work habits, and personality development, although he does not rank high in subject achievement tests.11

Business English. In suggesting improvements for the teaching of business English, Franck says:

Time should be taken for the evaluation and criticism of the work of the students. . . . students should formulate their own criticisms and evaluate each other's work. Naturally the guidance of the teacher would be essential when questions and

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II. WAYS IN WHICH STUDENTS CAN PARTICIPATE IN EVALUATION

Student Self-evaluation of His Difficulties and Self-determination of the Practice that He Needs to Correct those Difficulties

Typewriting. In discussing remedial instruction in typewriting, Blackstone and Smith say:

... In attempting to provide remedial instruction:

1. See that the student becomes conscious of the error. If possible, have him discover it for himself rather than point it out for him, because the things he discovers for himself are more vivid and lasting than those told to him by someone else.

2. Get the student to want to overcome the fault. So long as he does not care about correcting his procedures, remedial instruction or any other kind of instruction will be futile.

3. Get the student to suggest means of overcoming the fault and ask him to suggest exercises for that purpose. Perhaps the exercises he suggests will be ineffective, but it is well to let him try anyway, for by such processes he learns the invaluable trait of working things out for himself. The student should be permitted to try various means of correcting the fault up to a point where he tends to become discouraged, before the teacher makes his suggestions. If the teacher does have to provide the correct procedures, he should see that the student accepts them as correct ones.

4. Have the student check his progress in error correction. If he can see a decrease from day to day in the number of errors of the particular type that he is trying to overcome, he will be encouraged to keep trying until he completely overcomes the difficulty.13


13 E. G. Blackstone and S. L. Smith, Improvement of Instruction in
In discussing motivation problems in the teaching of typewriting, Lessenberry says:

The best practice . . . is self-motivated practice. This is done as a result of the study of typing errors. Such a study includes manipulative errors as well as keyboard errors. The student isolates one major weakness in technique and determines the corrective drill which will help to eliminate that weakness. It may be a carriage throw and tabular key control drill, or it may be the practice of a line of corrective drill words to establish the reach to a particular key. The point of emphasis here is that the student shares with the teacher the responsibility for isolating the difficulty and for choosing the corrective practice. Corrective drill is not concerned with keyboard drill alone; it includes all of the manipulative drills as well. It includes work habits, too. It involves isolating a weakness and determining how to overcome it. This calls for remedial thinking, and remedial thinking must precede corrective drill practice if the practice is to be most effective.

In discussing remedial instruction in typewriting, Rowe says:

Some teachers have delegated certain traditional prerogatives of remedial instruction to their students with great success . . .

The student subjects his typewriting technique to close personal observation at frequent intervals. He then attempts a personal diagnosis of the errors observed in his typescript or in his technique. At this point, student-teacher consultation takes place. The teacher encourages the student to prescribe the remedy to eliminate the cause of the error. Even if the student's first attempts are roundabout and ineffective, he will gain insight into the problem and then the student and teacher can work out the remedy jointly.

This method does impress the student with his responsibility in the learning task. It encourages him to use his mind as well as his fingers. Teachers sometimes forget that skill learning involves the whole organism.

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The cooperative teacher-student effort appears the most feasible plan for remedial work. The error problem in any skill must be met with intelligent evaluation, industry, and patience. There is no panacea for learning difficulties and individual deficiencies in typewriting.\(^5\)

In making an appeal for a classroom situation in which the student becomes his own teacher and the teacher assumes the role of coach and adviser, Curry says:

In a situation such as I have described, the teacher works with the pupil, not with his copies. In so far as errors can be analyzed, the student should be taught to do it; then the teacher, with his mind freed from an overload of checking and concentrating on the pupil, can enter co-operatively with the student, whose mind is freed from an overload of copies, into the exact situation where the errors are made, and together they can work out corrective procedures.

Possibly the best corrective procedure at a certain point will be to move on to another, more interesting, task. Possibly the student will need to backtract to something less difficult. If he needs practice on that particular job, the teacher can encourage him to drill, not on a particular sentence in which the error occurred, but on many sentences that he can construct himself, using the word missed as many times as possible, or to find other words of the same pattern difficulty. The main factor is that the difficulty will be attacked when and where it occurred, with the best possible relationship between the teacher, the pupil, and the pupils' work.\(^6\)

In discussing error analysis in the teaching of typewriting, Harms says:

\[\ldots\] It is sometimes well to use a simple error analysis chart \[\ldots\] for a week. After trying this the class might discuss the effectiveness of the device. Is it doing any good? Has the class


a better one to suggest? Shall the device be continued? Many devices are far too complicated; the net result is not worth the effort.17

Shorthand. In discussing pupil participation in shorthand classes, Schmidt says:

The trend in education today has been away from an emphasis on knowledge, skills, and attitudes of and for themselves toward a greater stress on the ability of the pupil to examine his learning critically and to direct his own activities in cooperation with his fellows. Pupils should be led to form the habit of detecting their own weaknesses and of sharing with others their efforts to overcome these shortcomings. In the study of shorthand the pupil is provided with an excellent opportunity to develop that habit. Here his goal is definitely set and his standards are well defined; his failings here can be clearly revealed. The more the teacher encourages the growth of this habit of self-diagnosis and self-direction, the greater his success as a teacher.18

In discussing changes which have taken place in her philosophy of teaching shorthand, Sharp says:

My newer philosophy recognizes the fact that the student is helped by diagnosing his own errors. No device is more profitable than the student's own analysis of errors—why the error was made and what kind of remedial learning is needed to correct the cause of the error. Measurement and analysis charts or graphs made by the student for personal use furnish visual and helpful information. The teacher may suggest methods of charting and analyzing, but the student should do the work; no one knows better than the performer why he has made the error and no one benefits more than he by remedial work. Thus the student will strive to better his individual record and make progress toward the higher achievements he has selected.19

17Harms, op. cit., p. 90.
In discussing ways of making learning meaningful in shorthand,

Duchan says:

In the classroom it is the teacher . . . who is charged with
the responsibility of encouraging self-evaluation and self-
learning in the pupil. With proper direction and guidance he
can learn to evaluate his work, in terms of errors and weak-
nesses, and to appreciate the value of setting a definite goal
and striving to attain it.

The difference between self-learning and learning imposed by
the teacher can be illustrated by the procedure followed by a
teacher after dictation of a new selection. If the teacher selects
the difficult outlines, places them on the board, and then has
the class practice them, he is taking unto himself the burden of
learning. On the other hand, if the teacher lets the class
practice those outlines with which they had difficulty, the respon-
sibility of learning is placed where it rightfully belongs,
squarely on the shoulders of the pupil. If the teacher walks
around the room during this personalized drill, he will notice a
good deal of practice on apparently simple words. Why should we
compel a student to practice a word with which he finds no
difficulty? Why not let him concentrate on those words that
proved troublesome to him? When the student realizes that he is
the final judge of what ails him, and that he is the one who must
iron out the rough spots, he will be well on the road to success
in learning. It is the function of the teacher to orient the pupil
so that the responsibility and initiative for learning rest with
him and not with the teacher.20

Transcription. In discussing study activities of students in
business education, Nulty says:

It is generally conceded that learning proceeds best in a
situation that is interesting and challenging to the learner.
Study requires concentration, and without a well-defined purpose,
the pupil rarely develops that degree of sustained application
that is essential for effective learning.

If, therefore, study activities can be related to felt needs,
learning will take place more economically and effectively. One

way in which study activities may be motivated is to help pupils realize their own deficiencies. For instance, a pupil whose vocational interest is to become a stenographer can be made to realize that he must become proficient in turning out a mailable transcript at the first attempt. A skillful teacher will devise diagnostic charts so that pupils may discover in which particular transcribing abilities they are deficient. If pupils, by means of such charts, discover that the inaccuracies in their transcripts are due to the fact that they cannot apply the rules of punctuation, a feeling for need of proficiency in this skill may be developed. Such pupils are thus prepared to engage wholeheartedly in punctuation drill activities because they feel the need of acquiring this ability in order to turn out mailable transcripts.

Another method of motivating study activities is to have each student keep a graph of his progress and to record on diagnostic charts the reasons for his failure to progress toward a predeetermined goal. For instance, in shorthand transcription the transcribing rate goal may be set at thirty words a minute. The student who records on a graph the rate at which he transcribes each test and finds that he is failing to progress toward the desired goal will be anxious to find the reasons for his failure. If the diagnostic chart has been carefully devised, he will be able to locate the source of his difficulty. He may find, for instance, that he is losing time because he has to stop too frequently to consult the dictionary for the spelling or the syllabication of words. In this case, the student will feel the need of engaging in study activities that will improve both his spelling and syllabizing abilities.21

Individual Student Conferences to Determine How Well Students Are Progressing toward Goals and Objectives

Typewriting. In discussing teacher-pupil evaluation by means of student conferences in typewriting, Betts says:

Beginning with the second week, it was my aim to have a brief conference with each of my pupils once a week, to talk over with

him his typing difficulties and his goals for the next week. Too
often this conference had to be omitted because of lack of time,
but every time I have succeeded in having a conference with a
pupil, I have felt that some good has come from it. In preparation
for these conferences, I have kept an observation notebook, a
shorthand notebook in which a column is devoted to each member of
the class. When I notice something wrong with a pupil's method,
I make a note of it under his name. Besides this, I try to list
the especially commendable points in his work. When I talk with
the student, I can give him the comments that I have written down.
The students always seem eager to know what has been observed.

In these conferences, I try not to do all of the talking, but
rather to get the student to tell what he feels his typing
difficulties are. The value of this has amazed and pleased me.
Several times students have told me things that have made me
understand points in their work that I had not been able to see
or understand before. They have often given me my cue for giving
this advice and suggestions.

After the student and I have discussed his troubles and his
good points, we set a goal for the next week, in work to be covered
and in speed to be attained. . . . These goals, written in the
observation notebook, serve as the foundation for part of our
next conference. If the student does not reach his goal, we
discuss what has kept him from doing so. If he overreaches it, we
sometimes raise the speed goal just a little and introduce an
accuracy goal. Sometimes students come to me during the week and
ask to change their goals for the week. They usually have good
reasons for their request. I think the fact that they are giving
their typing that much consideration is a good indication of intel-
ligent interest. It has been rather amazing to me to see how much
good these conferences can do. The fact that the teacher takes
time outside of class to make suggestions seems to have its good
influence; and, as I said before, the little device of having the
student talk about his difficulties seems to be of mutual benefit.
This is a device that takes time, but it is worth the time it takes,
for it yields increased interest and effort--two qualities of
inestimable value in the development of typewriting skill.22

Transcription. In discussing teacher-pupil evaluation in tran-
scription, Murphy says:

22M. Elinor Betts, "An Experiment in Typewriting Speed," Fifth
Yearbook of the National Commercial Teachers Federation, 1939, pp. 259-60.
To set the stage for cooperative evaluation the transcription teacher and students must arrive jointly at an understanding of the objectives of the class. This should be done during the first week of the semester.

After the objectives have been agreed upon, they become a measuring device against which students and teacher can compare progress and set new goals when old ones have been realized. Three or four weeks after the beginning of the term the teacher should have an individual conference with each student during the transcription period. The nature of this evaluation procedure necessitates several conferences during the term, though they need not necessarily be lengthy ones. During the first conference the student and teacher should discuss if the student is beginning to realize progress toward objectives. If not, the teacher should make suggestions and recommendations which will aid the student in accomplishing his purposes.

If student achievement seems to be in line with objectives, the teacher and student should decide upon new individual goals. The personal encouragement which students get through such conferences is more than worth the time and effort that the teacher gives to them.

During mid-semester week, additional conferences should be held with individual students. The discussions should be for the purpose of determining whether their skills and work habits might be considered "average" (above or below) in terms of the objectives planned for the end of the semester. Some students tend to over-evaluate, while others will under-evaluate their achievements. Tact and diplomacy are to be employed in helping such students realize their true achievements. In general, however, most students will evaluate themselves about the same as the teacher would do, once their records have been reviewed. The realization by some students that they are not above average in their accomplishment will spur them on to more work and increased effort.

Some students will require more conferences than others, but there should be a minimum of five or six conferences for each student each semester. In the final conference the student should tell the teacher whether or not he has achieved the objectives he has set for himself. If the teacher has been sincere about his part in the cooperative student-teacher evaluation process, students will be inclined to give a very fair judgment concerning their achievements in transcription. If a student has obviously overstated his accomplishments, the record of the student will
speak for itself, and the student can realize in an objective way what he has achieved during the term.  

Student Participation in the Preparation of Tests

Business education in general. In discussing pupil participation in testing and evaluation, Weingarten says:

Teachers of Bookkeeping, Business Training and Business Arithmetic report that increased interest and a clearer comprehension by pupils of the ideal achievement standards are obtained by permitting the pupils to plan tests and to grade their own work and that of other pupils.

A high degree of pupil participation is attained by a plan which includes calling upon the pupils to suggest the questions and projects to be used in testing, selection of questions and projects by the teacher from among those proposed, rating of the papers and projects by the pupils and by the teacher independently, and explanation of differences in opinion.

Shorthand. One of the procedures listed by Schmidt for pupil participation in shorthand classes is:

Pupils are asked to submit words which are to be included in a test.

General business. In discussing means of evaluation in basic business education, Freeman says:

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25 Schmidt, op. cit., pp. 95-98.
It is wholesome . . . to let students prepare their own test questions and scoring keys. In one classroom each reporting committee automatically prepared a test on its report and administered the test as soon as the report had been accepted--and that practice performed miracles in improving reports, in alerting the young audience, and in keeping everyone concerned on his toes!^26

Student Participation in Determining Grade

Business education in general. In discussing curriculum planning in business education, Forkner says:

I have had the experience of asking hundreds of pupils about the grades they expected in various business classes. Few of them say they know. They can tell what mark they got in the last marking period. They will hazard a guess, but for the most part they are dependent solely upon their teachers' decisions. I maintain that these learners are failing to have the experience of having the curriculum interpreted to them, because the curriculum is not only the material taught but also the successes the pupils have in the courses. Whenever a pupil is surprised by the mark he gets in a course we can be fairly certain that he and the teacher do not understand each other and that he has had little or no part in determining whether he has worked to capacity and has developed good work habits and attitudes toward the school and life in general.

We can also be certain that if a teacher must rely on an examination or test to determine what mark a pupil shall receive, regardless of whether it is a state test, a standardized test, or a teacher-made test, the pupil is not having adequate experience in evaluating his own growth and development or in having the curriculum interpreted to him.27

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Transcription. In discussing a plan of teacher-pupil evaluation in which individual students have periodic conferences with the teacher for consideration of student progress toward goals which have been set up, Murphy says:

The plan of the student's sharing in determining what his grade should be in transcription is in keeping with the tendency to give students more and more responsibility for their work and actions. This method of evaluation further develops responsibility for their work and actions. This method of evaluation further develops the concept that a grade is something which the student has earned, rather than its being something which the teacher "has given" or "has not given." ... This classroom procedure stresses the active participation and responsibility of students in evaluating their work. Cooperative student-teacher evaluation works, and it takes all the mystery and emotional reaction out of marking and receiving marks.28

Distributive education. In describing student participation in the evaluation of their work experience, Jacobsen says:

"From this report, the cooperative part-time student-trainees will receive information that any regular employee would pay a full week's salary to learn." This comment was made by an "on-the-job trainer" as he inspected the newly developed student rating form. The students planned this new rating form after determining the need for rating work experience, the factors to consider in such an evaluation and the best means of obtaining a fair measure of student ability.

The presentation of the question, "How will we be graded for our work experience?" made it very easy to initiate an activity unit designed to capitalize on student interest. When the students were asked if they could see any need for some means of rating their "on-the-job" experiences, the answers were inspiring. As they recognized the needs for grading, they realized that the following goals would be achieved by it:

1. Finding out what the employer thinks of us as employees.
2. Determining our occupational strengths and weaknesses.

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28 Murphy, op. cit., p. 25.
3. Learning what standards the employer has for his employees.


5. Discovering what we must do to improve our occupational skills and knowledge.

The question, "Who will benefit from our obtaining ratings of the student-trainee's work experience?" provided considerable thought. The following statements were listed on the board:

1. We--because we will know what we must do to improve on the job and what the employer expects of us.

2. The employer--because by telling us what he thinks of us, he will encourage us to eliminate our weaknesses, and thus we will become better employees.

3. The coordinator and school--because they will know what sort of representatives they have on the "on-the-job training program," and they will be able to help us become better employees, and, therefore, better representatives.

4. Parents--because they will know how we are getting along on the job; this will aid them in helping us with our vocational plans.

The instructor then commented, "Now you seem to have arrived at a fine set of reasons for having some sort of student rating plan, and you have determined the groups that you want to serve by gathering this information. But how will you determine what the employers think of you?" This question seemed to have no satisfactory answer for the twenty-two occupations represented in the group.

One student suggested that the employers be asked what they believed should be included on such a grade-rating sheet. This was agreed to by the class. Two days were allowed to carry on these interviews and prepare a short report of the suggestions received. On the third day, a master list of all the suggestions was made on the blackboard. Seven main characteristics of a good employee were finally included in the rating. The rating sheet was prepared from the seven most important traits.

The class was divided into seven committees. Each committee took one trait to develop a sentence definition together with a series of five descriptive phrases that would allow the "on-the-job trainers" to evaluate the student-trainee's work performance,
Not only was this a successful project for the development of a student rating form and the building of appreciation of student evaluation reports, but it also served to acquaint the students with the employer's standards for employment.29

Office practice. In discussing student participation in the evaluation of learning in business education classes, Watson says:

In some schools the report form used for recording the pupils' periodic progress may be a helpful device for group evaluation. . .

Several different types of check lists have been used at University High School [West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia] in connection with the pupils' progress report cards. One feature common to each of these lists is a provision for both teacher and pupil evaluation of each personality trait, attitude, and learning achievement which appears on the list. These lists may also be used very effectively for group evaluation. This has been done advantageously in the office practice and secretarial studies classes.

All class work at University High School is developed on the unit plan, with each unit being evaluated when it is completed. As there is no definite time limit for any unit of study, it may not be completed at a time when the quarter report is being made on the progress card.

A reproduction of the progress card appears . . . [below.]

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EVALUATION OF PUPILS IN REGARD TO ACCOMPLISHMENTS

1. Industry during workshop and study periods
2. Work beyond regular assignments

[Back of Progress Card]

Office Communication Unit

This unit gave us a chance to learn about the many different kinds of communications needed in modern business operations. I particularly enjoyed our visit to the telephone company. I enjoyed both of our visiting speakers, but I did not think Mr. Smith from the Western Union office spoke so we could understand all he said. Maybe I could have understood him better if I had read my text and discussed the material with my teacher more carefully before Mr. Smith came to talk to us.

Compiling a Handbook

This unit has given us a valuable handbook for our use, as well as providing us with experience of selecting our material. The experience of looking for material, writing our papers, and mimeographing our work will be as useful to us in future jobs as the book itself. I liked this unit because we could be responsible for our own work and then we had a chance to correct many of our faults and those

Marie, your absence during the time we discussed telegraphic services in class may account for the fact that you found it hard to follow Mr. Smith's talk. Had you kept your appointment with me to discuss the work you missed, we might have avoided this difficulty. Your participation in class work when you were present was very fine, and your observations on the field trips indicated that you were alert and interested.

Although you had some difficulty in locating materials for your section of the book, you made a good contribution. Now that you have had some experience in looking for specific information, I hope you will enjoy using our reference books more frequently. Your contributions during the group discussion were very helpful to all of us, and you were tactful in making suggestions for improvements.
of our classmates without hurting their feelings. The final discussion helped solve any additional problems or questions we had. I like the way Ruth led the discussion and think it was one of the most helpful parts of the unit.

The Letter of Application and the Interview

This unit has pointed out to me the need of a good background to take to the boss. I enjoyed the speakers who helped us along these lines, and think I learned a lot from our class dramatizations. Now I feel that I will be able to meet the requirements for my job interview.

You were a good guinea pig for our fake interview. I know that Mr. Herod admired your poise and the businesslike way you approached him. Your answers to his questions were direct and clear. Remember to apply the same tactics when you go for the real job.

It is possible, however, to use the card as a guide during the unit evaluation, and a summary of the evaluation of each unit may be entered on the reverse side of the card. Thus, at the end of a study unit in the office practice class, the members of the class and the teacher discuss each pupil's progress during the unit. The teacher explains to the class that this evaluation is being made in order to help each pupil more critically analyze his achievements and his difficulties. Evaluation of work habits, accomplishments, and attitudes is to be honest and sincere; all criticisms should be received by the individual as an indication of corrective measures which he should employ to improve his work and to develop better citizenship qualities.

Each discussion group usually consists of about ten pupils who select their own leader. The discussion is very informal, with the teacher acting merely as an observer. Pupils are advised that the significance of any evaluation thus rendered depends upon honest and thoughtful consideration of each item on the check list.

The use of this type of group evaluation has disclosed that it has advantages over teacher evaluation, in that the teacher may not feel capable of evaluating a pupil on one or more points on the check list, yet group opinion often results in a true analysis of the individual's worth and achievement. Another advantage is that by discussing each trait in terms of the unit being evaluated, the group gets a better picture of the importance of skill development and personality characteristics in relation to vocational standards. Again, during group discussion, any
misunderstandings of job competencies can be discussed and explained to the pupil's satisfaction.

There is, of course, the danger of personal difference influencing the evaluation of the group, but this danger is minimized by the very fact that it is a group evaluation. If the teacher takes time at the outset to explain to the class the value each member may derive from honest criticism and the uselessness of thoughtless and biased criticism, there will be little danger of the group expressing an unfair opinion of an individual's work or attitudes.

In using these check lists, the teachers at University High School have found that they obtained most satisfactory results if they have the pupil check his own card before any other evaluation is made. Sometimes individual pupil-teacher conferences are necessary to explain some parts of the evaluation which the pupil does not understand. Some pupils will need help in arriving at a fair evaluation of their attitudes and accomplishments. When a pupil has obviously given himself a grade lower than the grade he should have, the teacher explains to him why the nature of his work merits a higher grade and tried to help him develop a sounder basis for judging his work. Just as some pupils have a tendency to "down-grade," others will be inclined to mark their work with a higher grade than they honestly believe it deserves. Conferences with the pupils to discuss the uselessness of making inaccurate estimations of their work will help them understand that they are not gaining anything by recording on their card a grade which they have not honestly earned. As a result, the pupils acquire a clearer conception of the importance of making a conscientious evaluation of each item on the check list. This realization carries over into the group evaluation process.30

General business. In discussing pupil participation in testing and evaluation, Weingarten says:

In the Christopher Columbus High School of the City of New York, pupils in Business Training classes are periodically called upon to rate themselves. Ratings of Excellent, Satisfactory or Unsatisfactory are recorded by both pupils and teachers as to:

1. Personal appearance (grooming; posture; bearing)
2. Manners (courtesy; consideration of others)
3. Attendance (promptness in arrival and beginning work)

1. Written work (neatness; legibility of classwork and homework)
5. Co-operation (with other students)
6. Participation (in classroom activities)
7. Special assignment (class; project)

Opportunities for self-rating and constructive criticism present splendid possibilities for character-building. The pupils learn to make fairly accurate judgments of themselves and of others by practice and discussion.31

Student Participation in Evaluating His Own Work and that of Other Pupils

Business education in general. In discussing pupil evaluation in business education classes, Forkner says:

... Each piece of work that a pupil hands in, whether in typewriting, stenography, bookkeeping, or in the social business subjects, should first be evaluated by the pupil himself and his evaluation placed on the paper. It should then be evaluated by a fellow pupil. This provides an experience for students that helps them to develop judgment and to learn how to criticize constructively. The teacher then has an opportunity to determine whether learners are aware of standards of good work and to what extent they are measuring up to them. This procedure results in the pupil's knowing what is expected of him and to what extent he is working to his capacity in achieving the objectives of which he is capable.32

Shorthand. One of the procedures listed by Schmidt for pupil participation in shorthand classes is:

Pupils evaluate letters transcribed by themselves and by other


students as mailable. . . .33

Bookkeeping. In discussing the development of accuracy, neatness, and attention to details in bookkeeping students, Forkner says:

Habits of accuracy, neatness, and attention to details are essential to the work of the bookkeeper. . . . No one is likely to acquire a habit by having someone tell him he should acquire it. There must be action on the part of the learner.

It is certain that most bookkeeping teachers have been disturbed over the fact that the same kinds of errors occur over and over again in practice sets, in problems handed in, and in examinations. Students find it difficult to acquire the habit of putting the current year at the head of date columns. They neglect to check their work for transposition of numbers. They neglect to check the accuracy of totals. Account rulings are often carelessly done. No amount of telling seems to have much influence on the learner. Threats of low marks for failure to develop these qualities have a desirable effect on very few of the students. Faced with the same dilemma time and again I realized that if these habits were to be developed, the students instead of the teacher would have to become the active participants in the learning process.

The first step in bringing this about was to work out with the class a series of auditing check lists. A check list was developed for auditing each of the following; the general ledger, the cash book, the general and subsidiary ledger, the purchase book, and the sales book.

The duties of an auditor in checking accuracy of work were discussed with the class and each student made a copy of the specific items to be audited in each kind of situation. The next step was to set up a plan whereby each exercise, problem, or practice set to be handed in was first to be audited by a member of the class before being submitted to the teacher.

A committee of students drew up a schedule so that each student audited a different student's work each week. All home work and class projects were audited by use of the auditing check list and

the one doing the auditing made a statement on the problem as follows: "This work has been audited, corrections have been made, and it is hereby certified as meeting business standards. Signed, ____________________________"

Before the work is handed to the teacher by the auditor, a few minutes of class time are devoted to having the auditor report his corrections to the student whose work he has audited.

The results of this procedure were almost immediately apparent. It was no longer the teacher trying to teach habits that business wants. The students were teaching each other and the fact that they were becoming sensitive to these important details by having the responsibility of checking others resulted in an almost overnight change in their attitudes toward accuracy, neatness, and concern for details. . . .

Office practice. In discussing student evaluation of a class project in office practice, Watson says:

A teaching unit which has been developed as a class project with one or two pupils working on each section of the project has a tendency to disintegrate the class during the activity period. Group evaluation is especially desirable under such circumstances, in order to provide an opportunity for group discussion of the various features of the work done by the individual pupil. At the conclusion of a project of this nature, an office practice class applied the group discussion technique of evaluating its work. Members of the class had decided that their next project was to be a study of the routine duties of a secretary, correct office etiquette, and proper grooming for the career girl. They felt that if they had all of this information in a handbook it would be very valuable to them. With this in mind, they assigned different sections, such as correct dress, personal cleanliness, confidential information, accent and speech, etc., to individual pupils in the class. One pupil was given the job of compiling a table of contents for the book by checking with each of her classmates to learn what was being written. This pupil had an overall picture of the entire project and was, therefore, in a better position to lead the group discussion when it was time to evaluate the complete work. Each pupil was responsible for

mimeographing copies of her section of the book to be given to every class member. With this book in the hands of each pupil, and with the one pupil who had compiled the table of contents acting as a leader, a very valuable discussion resulted when it was time to evaluate the unit. The leader made up a brief outline of procedure, including the points which she felt the group should discuss. The evaluation outline for the handbook follows... 

A. Personal Grooming

1. Selection and care of clothing

   a. Has Agnes established a criterion by which you can organize your wardrobe for your future job?

   b. Can you put into practice the suggestions for keeping your clothes neat, clean, and in good repair? Are there other things you need to do in order to keep your clothes in good condition?

2. Personal Cleanliness

   a. Hair and Hands

      (1) Are the suggestions valuable to you as a student?

      (2) Are the suggestions practical?

      (3) Will you be able to improve the appearance of your hair or to keep your hands in better condition because of the suggestions made here?

   b. Oral Hygiene

      (1) Is enough emphasis given to fundamental oral hygiene practices?

      (2) Did you notice any useful suggestions?

   c. Body Cleanliness

      (1) Were all phases of body cleanliness stressed?

      (2) Were suggestions practical and inclusive?

   d. Make-Up for the Office

      (1) What criterion is established for applying proper make-up for the office?
(2) Does this correspond with local custom?

(3) Can you justify any differences between practices advocated by Phyllis in her paper and those practiced by local stenographers?

B. Office Attitudes and Manners

1. The Receptionist
   a. Is the information specific and inclusive?
   b. Are examples given?
   c. Are the references valid?

2. Personal Attitudes
   a. What citizenship qualities are emphasized?

3. Responsibility and Dependability
   a. How do you qualify in the light of the requirements set forth in this section?
   b. Do you agree with the standards set here?
   c. Are there qualifications not included which should be?

4. Resourcefulness and Initiative
   a. Is it important to utilize your working hours by doing something for your boss?
   b. Can you distinguish an important or "rush" job from routine office work?

C. Summary

1. Did this unit increase your interest in office work?
2. Are you interested in studying further along this line?
3. What part of the unit is of most value to you?

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Business education in general. In discussing student participation in evaluation of learning in business education classes, Watson has the following to say regarding the value of and function of a group observer:

The process of group evaluation is a basic part of the training involved in the group dynamics program. The device for this evaluation has been called the "feedback." . . . the feedback procedure . . . [is the means] by which the group can become aware of its own difficulties, the reasons for the difficulties, and the corrections of the difficulties.

. . . a group observer is designated to record the content of the discussions. In the feedback to the group, the observer watches the group during its discussion and then feeds back to the group his ideas about what happened during the discussion. He does not participate in the general discussion. Non-participation of the observer is necessary to keep him from thinking about the subject matter rather than about the behavior of the group. Members of the group make critical suggestions based on this observation. The responsibility for self-analysis to which the group commits itself, by establishing the role of the group observer, also obligates the group to lend assistance to the observer whenever such assistance is feasible. The observer may also secure from the members of the group their individual reactions to the meeting.

Sometimes a group sets aside ten to fifteen minutes at the end of each meeting to discuss its progress and skill with the observers. Sometimes effective use is made of the observer by calling for his help at a crucial or difficult point in the discussion.

When a group is initiating this evaluation process, it is well to keep in mind that any group not accustomed to requesting and receiving criticism, will tend to be a little sensitive toward it and adopt a defensive attitude. Experience in this type of evaluative program helps the members of the group realize that it is valuable for them and need not create a feeling of self-consciousness.

The observer should be directed in his interpretation of what a good group process is, and how to determine good group growth.
He must be sensitive to group readiness for certain kinds of criticism. The observer's job is not to tell the group about itself, but to point out those things which are relevant to the meeting, to call attention to the needs which must be met, and to direct activities toward correcting those needs which the group can correct.36

In discussing requisites for constructive student-teacher relationships, McCrary says:

Take your students into your planning and conduct of the class. Ask your students from time to time to write unsigned statements evaluating the content of the class and making suggestions for its improvement. You will be amazed at the constructive statements you will receive as well as some of the interesting ideas which you can use. Allow your students to help you teach. . . .37

In discussing pupil participation in testing and evaluation, Weingarten says:

The teacher may obtain useful advice through discussions in which the pupils are invited to comment on subject-matter, syllabus arrangement, teaching method, testing, content and method, and length and content of homework assignments.38

Office practice. In discussing the teaching of office practice by an integrated laboratory plan, Hanna says:

I found it . . . desirable to devote one day each week to what we called "general office meetings." On this day we reviewed as a class, various phases of our work. Personality traits, letter writing, office manners, order-handling procedure, and other matters were freely discussed. The students, from their class experience, were able to make intelligent criticisms

36Ibid., pp. 143-45.


and to offer valuable suggestions. Through such a method it was very easy to maintain a deep interest and to create the feeling that the classroom was their office and its educational value depended upon their initiative and efficiency. As a result of these weekly discussions, as evidenced by the class work, real and vital benefit was derived by all. 39

In reporting classroom practices which develop critical, independent, creative, and logical thinking, Huffman says:

In Maury High School in Norfolk, Virginia, Mrs. Anne S. Daughtrey has guided her students in evaluating their work in the Cooperative Office Training program in order to determine part of their marks and to help her plan the next year's class-work. The students set up questions such as: (a) What phase of the office training class instruction has been most valuable to me in my part-time job? (b) What have I encountered in the office for which there should be class instruction? (c) What part, if any, of the class instruction is needless? (d) Have I developed skills and abilities which an employer can use profitably? 40

III. SUMMARY AND EVALUATION

Students Should Participate in Evaluation

Traditionally, evaluation in the learning situation has been thought of in terms of teacher measurement, by means of tests, of student growth in knowledges and skills. These tests were associated in the mind of both teacher and student with an evaluation which would be made by the teacher as to the degree of student success or failure in the learning situation. The expression of student success or failure usually took the form of letter grades which would have associated with them


broad ideas that student progress was excellent, above average, average, below average, or non-existent. No effort was made in such teacher evaluation to identify specific strengths or weaknesses as a means of guiding students to remedy their weaknesses or to capitalize on their strengths.

The classroom which is attempting to translate democratic living into the life of the school has quite different concepts with regards to evaluation. The central concept of such classrooms is that students should have a part in evaluating the extent to which goals and objectives have been reached. All of the excerpts from the literature in this chapter involve this concept. This support comes from writers discussing the following areas of business education: business education in general without reference to particular areas;\textsuperscript{\textsuperscript{11}} typewriting;\textsuperscript{\textsuperscript{12}} transcription;\textsuperscript{\textsuperscript{13}} shorthand;\textsuperscript{\textsuperscript{14}} bookkeeping;\textsuperscript{\textsuperscript{15}} distributive education;\textsuperscript{\textsuperscript{16}}

\textsuperscript{\textsuperscript{11}}Cf. ante, Murphy and Murphy, pp. 187-88; Trout, pp. 193-95; VanBuskirk, pp. 198-99; Christensen, pp. 199-200; Forkner, pp. 200-201, 359-60, 373, 380; Watson, pp. 357-58, 365-86; Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, p. 358; Blackstone, p. 359; Rankin, p. 359; McCrery, p. 386; Weingarten, p. 386.

\textsuperscript{\textsuperscript{12}}Cf. ante, Forkner, p. 189; Harms, pp. 189, 361, 366-67; Blackstone and Smith, p. 361; Lessenberry, p. 365; Rowe, pp. 365-66; Curry, p. 366; Betts, 369-70; Weingarten, p. 372.

\textsuperscript{\textsuperscript{13}}Cf. ante, Murphy, pp. 361, 370-72, 374; Nulty, pp. 368-69.

\textsuperscript{\textsuperscript{14}}Cf. ante, Schmidt, pp. 367, 372, 380-81; Sharp, p. 367; Duchan, p. 368.

\textsuperscript{\textsuperscript{15}}Cf. ante, Forkner, pp. 381-82.

\textsuperscript{\textsuperscript{16}}Cf. ante, Kneeland, pp. 361-62; Jacobsen, pp. 374-76.
office practice; \textsuperscript{47} general business; \textsuperscript{48} and business English.\textsuperscript{49}

Other concepts as to the nature of evaluation in a classroom which is trying to translate democratic living into the life of the school find support in the excerpts from the literature. Where students have a part in determining purposes, in determining problems which will achieve the purposes, and in the determining of processes by which the problem can be solved, evaluation becomes an integral part of the group's working together. That is, if the group is to work effectively together, it must continuously evaluate the progress that it is making toward the solution of the problem under consideration.\textsuperscript{50} Such a process of continuous evaluation enables the group to discover and devise remedies for failures and to discover and capitalize on its successes.\textsuperscript{51} Without such evaluation, faulty procedures and plans would be unnecessarily continued by the group, and the group would not be able to profit immediately from its successes. Thus, evaluation is conceived as being a part of the learning process and a means by which learning can be improved.\textsuperscript{52}

\textsuperscript{47}Cf. ante, Watson, pp. 376-79, 382-84; Hanna, pp. 386-87.

\textsuperscript{48}Cf. ante, Musselman, p. 192; Wells, pp. 362-63; Bahr, p. 363; Freeman, pp. 372-73; Weingarten, pp. 379-80.

\textsuperscript{49}Cf. ante, Franck, pp. 363-64.

\textsuperscript{50}Cf. ante, Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, p. 358; Harms, p. 361; Wells, pp. 362-63; Bahr, p. 363; Rowe, pp. 365-66.

\textsuperscript{51}Cf. ante, Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, p. 358; Blackstone, p. 359; Wells, pp. 362-63.

\textsuperscript{52}Cf. ante, Watson, pp. 357-58; Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, p. 358.
Continuous evaluation of the group of its progress toward the solution of problems includes attention not only to evidences that data have been or are being uncovered which will bear on the solution of the problem but also includes attention to the procedure which the group is utilizing in its attempted solution of the problem. A part of this evaluation by the group of its procedures would include attention as to whether or not certain characteristics and skills were being developed in the members of the group. That students should have a part in all phases of the learning situation is based on the belief that such participation is instrumental in developing characteristics and skills necessary for democratic living. Where democratic outcomes are sought, evaluation procedures will need to give attention to the extent to which the desired behavior is being achieved.

Student Participation in Evaluating the Procedures by Which Problems Are Being Attacked

Consideration will now be given to the ways in which students can participate in evaluation as revealed by the excerpts from the literature. Some attention is given in the literature to ways in which a group might evaluate the procedures by which problems are being attacked. One method of aiding the group in its evaluation of its procedures is the utilization of a group observer. The function of the group observer

53 Cf. ante, Wells, pp. 362-63; Bahr, p. 363.
54 Cf. ante, Committee on Business Education of Minnesota, p. 358.
is to concentrate his attention on the methods being used by the group and to evaluate critically the methods by pointing out those things which are working effectively and those things which are obstructing the work of the group. The usefulness of such a group observer is increased if designated times are established for a report from the observer, followed by a group discussion of his observations.\textsuperscript{55} Another method which could be employed is to have the students, from time to time, write evaluative statements as to their opinion of the procedures being used by the group.\textsuperscript{56} Such statements could be given to a committee which would study and organize the comments and report their findings for group consideration. Still another method for group evaluation of its procedures would be to set aside a certain day of the week, or part of a day, when group discussion could be devoted to a consideration of the work of the group.\textsuperscript{57} Whatever the method employed, the evaluation of the progress of the group toward the solution of problems should give consideration to things such as these: the suitability of the problem for fulfilling the goals and objectives of the group; the suitability of the method of work being used to attack the problem; the effectiveness of the group in utilizing the method of work decided upon; the effectiveness of the group in finding and utilizing materials which bear on the problem; the adequacy

\textsuperscript{55}Cf. \textit{ante}, Watson, pp. 385-86.


\textsuperscript{57}Cf. \textit{ante}, Weingarten, p. 386; Hanna, pp. 386-87; Huffman, p. 387.
of methods being employed to report the results of the study of the problem.\textsuperscript{58}

Groups capable of utilizing evaluation methods such as these are groups which have broad opportunities for participation in all phases of the learning situation. The extent to which students can be given the opportunity to participate in evaluation is inextricably interwoven with the amount of participation which students have in other phases of the learning situation. If only limited participation is possible in student participation in determining purposes, in determining problems which will achieve the purposes, and in determining the processes by which the problems can be solved, then there will only be limited opportunities for student participation in evaluation. Where, for one reason or another, only limited opportunities in teacher-pupil planning are possible, the beginning opportunities given students with respect to evaluation may be student participation in effecting more traditional types of evaluation. Such experiences can lead to broader participation experiences in all phases of the learning situation. The orientation of the bulk of the excerpts from the literature in this section is with student participation in effecting the more traditional types of evaluation. Attention will now be given to student participation in such evaluation.

\textbf{Student Participation in Evaluating Work Produced by Themselves and Other Members of the Group}

\textsuperscript{58}Cf. \textit{ante}, Wells, pp. 362-63; Bahr, p. 363.
Students can participate in evaluation by evaluating work which is produced by themselves and by other members of the group. For example, in shorthand classes, students can evaluate letters transcribed by themselves and by other students according to some standard which is set by the group. In bookkeeping, students could participate in evaluating their own exercises, problems, or practice sets and that of other students according to a check list devised by the class. In courses where committee reports are being given, the group might evaluate the reports according to criteria cooperatively worked out by the group.

Student Participation in the Construction of Paper-and-Pencil Tests

Students can participate in the construction of paper-and-pencil tests which are used to evaluate information, skills, beliefs, etc. Individuals or committees can submit items which are to be included on the test. Where the responsibility for various aspects of a problem have been assigned to individuals or committees, the individuals or committees might construct items for a paper-and-pencil test which would cover the area of their special responsibility. The group can also share in an

59 Cf. ante, Forkner, p. 380.
60 Cf. ante, Schmidt, pp. 380-81.
61 Cf. ante, Forkner, pp. 381-82.
62 Cf. post, Bauernfeind and Lockwood, pp. 490-93.
evaluation of the results of such a test and reach decisions as to whether, on the basis of the test, the group is ready to move on to other aspects of their working together, or whether they need to give additional attention to areas covered by the test. 64

Student Participation in Making Reports of Progress

At stated intervals throughout a school year, school systems require some sort of evaluation of individuals which will serve as a report of progress to parents and which will become a part of the school's records. Students should have a part in such evaluation. 65 Ideally, this report should be something of the nature of the report of the University High School, West Virginia University, which is illustrated in this chapter. 66 That is, it should contain evaluative statements by both student and teacher as to specific strengths and weaknesses of the individual in the units of work which have been completed during the period in question. It should also contain student and teacher evaluation of progress toward designated personality characteristics which are considered to be essential to the development of people capable of satisfactory living in a democracy. 67 Ideally, too, students should

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61 Cf. post, Milby High School, pp. 500-502.
65 Cf. ante, Forkner, p. 373; Murphy, p. 374; Watson, pp. 376-79.
66 Cf. ante, Watson, pp. 376-79.
have a part in the construction of the form which is to contain a report of their progress. 68 Where such school records call for a single letter grade for the individual, students should still have a part in reviewing with the teacher the nature of their work during the grading period and in determining what letter grade is representative of the quality of that work. 69 Individual conferences with each student preceding the report of progress are desirable, if not a necessary part of student participation in such evaluation. 70

Student Participation in Evaluation Where Degree-of-Skill Goals Are Being Pursued

Students can participate in evaluation in the skill areas by analyzing the errors which they make. 71 As has been pointed out, where degree-of-skill goals are being pursued, the problems that arise for individual or group attention are problems which obstruct the development of the skill. 72 A continuous evaluation of the work being done becomes a method by which such problems are identified. That is, by careful student and teacher analysis of errors being made, areas of

68 Cf. ante, Jacobsen, pp. 374-76.
69 Cf. post, Milby High School, pp. 500-502; Randall Junior High School, pp. 564-66.
70 Cf. ante, Watson, pp. 376-79.
71 Cf. ante, Blackstone and Smith, p. 364; Lessenberry, p. 365; Rowe, pp. 365-66; Curry, p. 366; Schmidt, p. 367; Sharp, p. 367; Duchan, p. 368; Nulty, pp. 368-69.
72 Supra, p. 339.
weaknesses can be isolated. One technique for such an analysis is the use of an error analysis chart.\textsuperscript{73} If evaluation by means of an error analysis chart is to be meaningful to students, they should have a part in deciding as to whether or not an error analysis chart should be tried out as a means of isolating weaknesses. If it is decided that an error analysis chart should be used, students should have a part in selecting a chart or in constructing an appropriate chart. They should also participate in periodic evaluations to determine whether such a chart is serving the intended function, and if not, to participate in determining as to whether its use should be discontinued or some revision made in the chart.\textsuperscript{74} Student determination of problems by means of an analysis of errors would be followed by student participation in determining possible solutions for the problems discovered and the determination of appropriate practice for attacking the problem.\textsuperscript{75}

Although considerable attention is given in the literature to the importance of student evaluation of the errors which they make as a means of isolating problems which are an obstruction to skill development, little attention is given to student evaluation of those elements which have contributed to his success in working toward degree-of-skill goals. Evaluative attention by students and teacher also needs to be given to

\textsuperscript{73}Cf. \textit{ante}, Harms, pp. 366-67; Sharp, p. 367; Nulty, pp. 368-69.

\textsuperscript{74}Cf. \textit{ante}, Harms, pp. 366-67; Sharp, p. 367.

\textsuperscript{75}Cf. \textit{ante}, Blackstone and Smith, p. 364; Lessenberry, p. 365; Rowe, pp. 365-66; Curry, p. 366; Schmidt, p. 367; Sharp, p. 367.
the things which students are doing which are contributing to the development of the skill so that the students may profit from their successes in the continued effort to develop skill.

Evaluation of Progress toward Individual Degree-of-Skill Goals Must Be Accomplished by Individual Evaluation under the Guidance of the Teacher

Certain things which have already been discussed should be referred to again in relation to evaluation. First of all, it has been pointed out that where degree-of-skill goals are being pursued, these goals would be individual ones rather than group goals. Thus, evaluation of the progress toward individual goals will need to be accomplished by individual evaluation under the guidance of the teacher. It has been suggested that it would be highly desirable for the student and teacher to have an individual conference in which the objectives of the student were discussed and degree-of-skill goals established. As a part of the evaluation process, these individual conferences should be repeated so that student and teacher could discuss possible weaknesses which are obstructing the development of skill and the strengths which are enabling the student to progress toward his goal. As a student reaches an established goal, student and teacher can set new goals which are meaningful to the student and which are within the end-objective of the student.

76 Supra, pp. 305-6.
77 Supra, pp. 306-7.
78 Cf. ante, Betts, pp. 369-70; Murphy, pp. 370-72.
Student Participation in Evaluation Gives Students Experiences Which Better Prepare Them for Satisfactory Job Performance

It has also been mentioned that the development of characteristics and skills necessary for successful democratic living has special meaning for business education in that these are also the characteristics and skills which are needed for successful participation in business. With reference to evaluation, it should be pointed out that one of the criticisms made by businessmen of their workers is that they have little or no understanding of how to evaluate their own work. That is, they rarely know whether they have done an outstanding job or a poor one. Therefore, student participation in evaluation becomes a means for giving students experiences which will better prepare them for satisfactory job performance.

Effective Teacher-Pupil Planning Cannot Take Place Where the Criteria for Evaluation Is Based on Something Other than the Goals and Objectives of Students

A final point which needs reconsideration has to do with the criteria used for evaluation. When something is evaluated, it is evaluated by some predetermined criteria. Where democratic outcomes are sought, the criteria used are the goals and objectives of the students. Effective teacher-pupil planning cannot take place where the criteria for evaluation is determined by standards of performance set up by a state system of

79Supra, p. 218.
80Cf. ante, Forkner, pp. 359-60.
examinations or by a school for grading or other purposes. 81 Also, the standards of performance expected by business cannot be used as criteria for evaluation, except as those standards are coterminous with the goals and objectives of students. 82

81 Supra, pp. 307-8.
82 Supra, pp. 255-56.
CHAPTER XII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

I. DESCRIPTION OF PROBLEM AND METHOD OF RESEARCH

The primary purpose of this study was to implement the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education. A secondary purpose was to evaluate the extent and nature of the thinking and practices within business education in terms of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning.

A necessary first step in attacking the problem of implementing the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education was the expression of the philosophy. The expression of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning, which was based on extensive reading in the field of education, appears in Chapters II to VII.

The literature of business education was used as the source for the implementation of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education and for the evaluation of the extent and nature of the thinking and practices within business education with respect to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning. In Chapters VIII-XI and Appendices A, B, and C, the excerpts from the literature which had a bearing on teacher-pupil planning were reported and organized according to teacher-pupil planning concepts.

At the end of major divisions throughout Chapters VIII to XI, the excerpts from the literature are summarized and evaluated. With
respect to the implementation of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education, the effort was not merely to summarize the excerpts from the literature, but rather to utilize the excerpts against the backdrop of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning to extend as much as possible the implementation of the philosophy for business education. The excerpts were also evaluated as to the extent and nature of the thinking and practices within business education with respect to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning.

This chapter summarizes and presents conclusions with respect to:
the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning; the attention given in the literature of business education to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning; and the implementation of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education. Recommendations for further research are also given.

II. SUMMARY OF THE PHILOSOPHICAL BASES FOR TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING

Education's Major Responsibility Is to Develop Democratic Citizenship

The primary function of education in the United States is to develop democratic citizenship. Efforts by educational programs to develop democratic citizenship must be based on concepts as to the nature of democracy.

There are few basic principles of democracy upon which there is general agreement. There is general agreement with respect to these fundamental concepts: Democracy is a form of social organization which holds that the optimal development of the individual represents the
highest good; man achieves optimal development only through acting in concert with his fellows; the optimal development of the individual requires that individuals who have a stake in a given enterprise share in planning and carrying it out; the optimal development of the individual can only be realized as men have faith in intelligence as a method of solving individual and group problems. These values held by a democratic society are the guide for the school's purposes and procedures.

The distinguishing characteristic of these values is cooperation—the planning and working together of members of a group for the realization of common goals. People capable of working cooperatively in groups in attacking and solving problems of common concern possess certain personality characteristics.

Personality characteristics are developed as the result of the interaction of an individual with the social environment. Social environments that are consonant with the value-base which is representative of the society can be created.

The responsibility of education in a democracy is to set up social environments that will develop the characteristics which will prepare students for successful participation in a democracy.¹

Democracy Must Be Practiced in the School

The characteristics and skills necessary for democratic living

¹Supra, pp. 12-46.
are developed through practice in democratic living. If educational programs are to develop democratic citizenship, social environments must be created which will enable students to practice democracy in the school.²

Students Must Have the Experience of Cooperatively Planning with Their Teachers Their Learning Activities

Practicing democracy in the school involves giving students the experience of cooperatively planning and carrying out their learning activities with their teachers. "Teacher-pupil planning" is the term used in this study to identify the process by which students can be given such experiences.

The basic concept of teacher-pupil planning is that students are provided genuinely cooperative experiences in all phases of the learning situation. That is, all group members share in determining purposes, choosing topics, finding and using materials, formulating and presenting the results of study and experiences, evaluating how effectively purposes have been achieved, and making new plans on the basis of the experiences which have resulted. Such cooperative participation by members of a group can exist only as the learning situation deals with the common interests, problems, and purposes of the students.

Teacher-pupil planning does not conceive that providing students with genuinely cooperative experiences in the learning situation absolves

²Supra, pp. 47-55.
the school and the teacher from responsibilities for directing students in the learning situation. A curriculum structure must be devised by the school which would insure a breadth of experience without precluding the opportunity for student participation in the teacher-pupil planning process. Extensive pre-planning by teachers for the classroom situation in terms of comprehensive surveys of possible problems, issues, activities, teaching aids, etc., that might be used in cooperatively planning units of work with students is necessary so as to achieve a high quality of work when planning and working with students.

The teacher has a crucial role to play in the classroom. The developing concepts of group process throw light on the nature of this role. Group-process concepts conceive that the teacher serves the group as a guide and adviser rather than as a master.

Group-process concepts with respect to characteristics which a group should possess give insight into what the teacher-pupil planning classroom might be like if it is operating most effectively. The group should possess a strong feeling of group consciousness. All members of the group should contribute and feel responsible for the activities of the group. The varied interests and abilities of the members of the group should be discovered and utilized. There should be respect for the personality and contribution of each group member. The group should not rely on "majority rule." Leadership should be shared by various members of the group. A means of evaluation should be sought which is compatible with democratic outcomes. An atmosphere of friendliness and cooperativeness should characterize the climate of the group.
Optimal utilization of teacher-pupil planning is often impossible because of limitations inherent in the group or in the situation in which the group finds itself. Lack of skill in students is one such limitation. Where students have experienced classrooms which have been dominated by the teacher, a start must be made at the level on which the group can think and work cooperatively. As students develop skills in cooperative planning and working as the result of assuming limited responsibilities in the learning situation, broader cooperative experiences can be provided. The assumption of more and more responsibility on the part of students and the corresponding decrease in the direction and control given by the teacher is a process which requires a considerable length of time.

Optimal utilization of teacher-pupil planning may also be impossible because of lack of understanding and skill on the part of teachers. Such a lack of understanding and skill may result in pupil confusion and undesirable learnings in attempts to give students broad teacher-pupil planning experiences.

Other elements present in the school situation may also make optimal utilization of teacher-pupil planning impossible. Institutional rules, regulations, procedures, educational philosophy, etc., may limit optimal utilization. Optimal utilization may also be difficult because of large classes, crowded schedules, poorly equipped classrooms, lack of appropriate materials, etc. Also, the form and extent of student participation opportunities will vary among different areas of learning.\(^3\)

\(^3\)Supra, pp. 56-108.
Practicing Democracy in the School Not Only Develops Democratic Citizenship but It Also Facilitates Learning

Modern concepts as to how learning takes place may be classified into two types—association theories and field theories. The association theory developed by Thorndike has dominated all others in the United States from 1900 to today. This systematic and mechanistic approach to learning is best understood by reference to the three laws of learning developed from animal experiments by this school of thought. The Law of Readiness refers to the preparation of the organism for action; the Law of Exercise refers to the strengthening of connections with practice and the weakening of connections or forgetting when practice is discontinued; and the Law of Effect states that rewards or successes further the learning of the rewarded behavior, while punishments or failures reduce the tendency to repeat the behavior leading to punishment, failure, or annoyance. Learning is conceived to take place as the result of establishing a series of specific responses to specific stimuli. Learning is considered to be the acquiring of specific knowledges, habits, skills, and attitudes. Transfer of learning is believed to occur when there are identical elements in something which has been learned and something which is to be learned.

Association theories developed unchallenged in the United States until the 1920's. Since that time, field theories of learning have brought an entirely new emphasis in psychological theory. A basic concept of the field theories is that the individual is spontaneously active. This active individual grows, develops, learns, as interaction
takes place between the individual and his environment—the concept that the individual "learns to do by doing." In this interaction with the environment, the individual is seeking to establish adjustment or to achieve equilibrium. Learning takes place as adjustment is achieved, and the new learning is integrated into the former experiences of the individual so that the total structure of the individual is changed. Activity on the part of the individual to achieve adjustment is purposeful and goal-seeking. The goals, interests, wants, and needs of the individual provide the inner force which impels the individual to seek and attain adjustment.

Teacher-pupil planning is consonant with newer concepts as to how learning takes place best. Thus, teacher-pupil planning is not only the means by which democratic citizenship can be developed, but it is also the means by which learning can be best achieved.^[Supra, pp. 109-30]

**Business Education Classrooms Must Be Conducted according to Teacher-Pupil-Planning Concepts**

In each environment with which the individual interacts, he develops social attitudes and habits. If part of the experiences of the individual are in democratic social environments and part are in authoritarian social environment, confusion results, an integrated personality is not developed, and the individual is not adequately equipped for successful living in a democracy. Thus, teacher-pupil-planning concepts
must permeate the complete school program if the school is to discharge successfully its responsibility for developing democratic citizenship.

If it is to justify its inclusion in the curriculum, business education must contribute to the major objective of education—the development of democratic citizenship—by utilizing teacher-pupil-planning concepts in its classrooms.  

III. EVALUATION OF ATTENTION GIVEN IN THE LITERATURE OF BUSINESS EDUCATION TO THE PHILOSOPHY OF TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING

General Evaluation of the Attention Given in the Literature of Business Education to Teacher-Pupil Planning

In terms of the totality of the literature of business education, little attention is given in the literature to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning.

In terms of the attention which has been given, few of the writers give evidence of having given full consideration to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning.

In general, the discussions which reveal opportunities for teacher-pupil planning in business education classrooms deal with limited opportunities for teacher-pupil planning as contrasted to considerations as to optimal utilization of teacher-pupil planning.

It is likely that the writers of many of the excerpts from the literature would not agree with the entirety of the philosophy of

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5 Supra, pp. 131-39.
teacher-pupil planning as expressed in this study.

In terms of subject matter within business education, more attention is given to teacher-pupil-planning concepts in relation to non-skill areas of business education as contrasted to skill areas.

Although little attention has been given in the literature of business education to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning, when the attention which has been given is added together, there is a sizeable body of materials which support teacher-pupil-planning concepts and which throw light on the implementation of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education.

Evaluation of the Attention Given in the Literature of Business Education to Specific Teacher-Pupil-Planning Concepts

Students should participate in all phases of the learning situation. There is support in the literature of business education that students should participate in the learning situation. This support comes from both the skill and the non-skill areas of business education. When the excerpts from the literature are viewed as a whole, there is support for the concept that students should participate in all phases of the learning situation—participation in determining goals and objectives, participation in working toward goals and objectives, and participation in evaluating the extent to which goals and objectives were reached. However, few of the single excerpts from the literature spell out that students should participate in all phases of the learning situation.
In relation to reasons as to why students should participate in the learning situation, there is support for the concept that it is the responsibility of education to develop democratic citizenship, with recognition being given that this is a responsibility that must be assumed by all areas, including business education. There is more support for the allied concept that student participation develops the characteristics and skills needed in a democracy. At most, though, it could only be said that meager thought has been given to these concepts. When the entirety of the material uncovered by this study is considered, it becomes apparent that in the majority of cases where teacher-pupil-planning concepts and practices appear, the explanation for the concept or practice is usually that learning is enhanced thereby. It seems crucial that more thought has not been given in the literature of business education to the responsibility of education in a democracy and to the role of business education in assuming that responsibility.

There is also support for the concept that student participation in the learning situation enhances learning. Although certain concepts of the field theories creep into the literature, even an effort to piece together concepts from various sources does not evolve anything which might be considered a complete consideration of field theories. There is no evidence in the literature of a coming to grips with the two basic schools of thought as regards learning--association theories and field theories. The usual explanation for the fact that student participation enhances learning is that such participation provides more effective motivation stemming from greater interest on the part of
the student. While this is true, it seems critical that the literature of business education should not have given fuller thought to concepts as to how learning takes place.

There is added support for the "learning to do by doing" concept as to how learning takes place through some support for the concept that the characteristics and skills necessary for democratic living can only be learning through experiencing situations which develop those characteristics and skills. There is not as much support for this concept in relation to subject matter knowledge.⁶

Student participation demands a learning situation based on the common interests, problems, and purposes of the students. There is support for the concept that the learning situation must deal with the common interests, problems, and purposes of the student. The orientation of the bulk of the excerpts from the literature which support this concept is with the non-skill areas.

Teacher-pupil planning conceives that democratic living will be achieved through group efforts to solve group problems. There is support in the literature as to what is involved in the problem type of approach to learning.⁷

Group process -- the procedures by which groups can effectively attack and solve common problems. Group-process concepts conceive the

⁶Supra, pp. 213-17, 303, 330-31, 388-89.
⁷Supra, pp. 252-54.
role of the teacher to be one of guidance—that is, the teacher serves as a guide and adviser rather than as a master. There is support for this and allied concepts in the literature of business education. In the discussions of the role of the teacher as a guide and adviser, the orientation of the majority of the writers is with the non-skill areas of business education.

Little attention has been given in the literature to other group-process concepts as to how groups can effectively attack and solve common problems.\(^8\)

**Teacher pre-planning activities.** Support for the concept that the curriculum structure should consist of broad problem areas or units of work that would insure a breadth of experience for students and yet would not be so constructed as to preclude the opportunity for student participation in the teacher-pupil-planning process was found in only one source in the literature.

There is also little support for the nature of the pre-planning which the teacher should do for the teacher-pupil-planning classroom. Only two sources of resource units were found in the literature of business education.\(^9\)

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\(^8\) *Supra*, pp. 277-82.

\(^9\) *Supra*, pp. 290-94.
Students Should Participate in All Phases of the Learning Situation

The characteristics and skills needed for successful democratic living are also the characteristics and skills needed for successful participation in business. Student participation in all phases of the learning situation develops the characteristics and skills needed for successful democratic living. These are the characteristics and skills which are also needed for successful participation in business. Thus, teacher-pupil planning becomes a means for developing better vocational workers. ¹⁰

Student participation in all phases of the learning situation applies to the skill areas as well as the non-skill areas of business education. A concept exists that learning takes place differently in a skill course than in a non-skill course, and that these differences make it necessary for skill courses to be teacher dominated. This study takes the position that there are not basic differences— that an indefensible dichotomy is set up when learning is considered to take place differently in different areas.

There is support that learnings in both the skill and non-skill areas, other than the development of characteristics and skills needed for successful living in a democracy, will be more effective if teacher-pupil planning is utilized. However, the question as to whether or not teacher-pupil planning should be utilized in skill areas does not turn

¹⁰ Supra, pp. 218-19.
on the question as to how skill can be most effectively developed. If it were true that a higher level of word-per-minute skill could be developed by autocratic methods, it is still more important that students develop the characteristics and skills necessary for successful democratic living.\textsuperscript{11}

Student Participation Demands a Learning Situation Based on the Common Interests, Problems, and Purposes of the Students

Curriculum content should not be determined by textbook writers, courses of study, or by state examinations. If the common interests, problems, and purposes of the students are to form the basis for the learning situation, the curriculum content cannot be determined by textbook writers, courses of study, state examinations, etc. In the skill areas it is particularly critical that concepts and materials be developed which will make it unnecessary for the teacher to rely exclusively on textbooks.\textsuperscript{12}

Curriculum content should not be determined by the needs and demands of business except as those needs are compatible with the recognized needs of students. Business needs and demands may represent recognized student needs. However, the point of orientation in determining curriculum content should be with the student and his

\textsuperscript{11} Supra, pp. 219-23.
\textsuperscript{12} Supra, p. 255.
interests, problems, and purposes.  

Business education classrooms should be places where business practices and concepts are subjected to critical analysis. Business practices and concepts should be subjected to critical analysis rather than being accepted as something to be memorized. Controversial business issues provide excellent media for the utilization of problem-solving techniques in the classroom. If business education classrooms were places where business practices and concepts were critically analyzed, business might tend to look to business education for means of improving itself as contrasted to business education's looking to business practices and concepts as means of determining curriculum content.

Sources of problems for business education students. The business education area is full of problems which are within the experience of students. All students have business contacts as consumers, many have jobs in which they face business problems, and numerous students have an awareness of certain business problems which have arisen in their families.

Business work experience is a highly desirable source of problems for classroom consideration. Work experience in community businesses or in business enterprises operated by students within the school should

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13 Supra, pp. 255-56.

14 Supra, pp. 256-57.
be incorporated into business education programs unless such work experience would interfere with necessary student growth in other curricular or extracurricular activities.

Specialized interests which students bring with them into business education classes are also productive sources of problems. ¹⁵

**Group Process -- The Procedures by Which Groups Can Effectively Attack and Solve Common Problems**

Business teacher should be aware of business problems in the community. The business teacher will be better equipped to assume the role assigned to him by group-process concepts if he is aware of business problems in the community which are affecting the lives of students. ¹⁶

Teachers must accept the group solution of a problem as the best solution. The teacher who is performing the role assigned to him by group-process concepts serves as the protector of the process by which the group arrives at the solution of its problems, and he accepts the solution as the best solution even though he does not agree with the judgment of the group. The applicability of this concept is perhaps most readily seen where groups are considering controversial business issues in non-skill areas. However, this concept is just as applicable

¹⁵ Supra, pp. 257-60.
¹⁶ Supra, p. 280.
in skill areas where students decide on a solution to a problem which is not in conformity with the solution of experts, the opinion of authorities, the results of research, and the way the teacher thinks is best. In such cases, students must be permitted to try out the solution, to evaluate its results, and to utilize their solution as long as they continue to feel that it is the best solution. 17

Teacher Pre-Planning Activities

Teacher pre-planning for the curriculum structure. It is not possible for the business education curriculum to incorporate problem areas which would encompass the entire range of business activities. Bases which can be utilized for the selection of problem areas for the curriculum structure are surveys of students' needs and interests and surveys of the employing community. The information obtained in these surveys would be viewed against the backdrop of the philosophy which had been formulated by the school. Businessmen should have a part in the formulation of the school's philosophy as it applies to business education. 18

Teacher pre-planning activities for the learning situation. If business education is to move in the direction of teacher-pupil planning, the greatest need, other than the acceptance of the philosophy on which

17 Supra, pp. 280-81.
18 Supra, p. 291.
teacher-pupil planning is founded, is the construction of resource units, which could be used by teachers in their pre-planning for the learning situation.

The "Q-SAGO" units prepared for the general business area can be utilized in teacher pre-planning for the teacher-pupil-planning classroom.

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Students Should Participate in Defining and Choosing Goals and Objectives

Students may have to be exposed to certain experiences which will enhance their effectiveness in planning with the teacher the goals and objectives. The nature of the experiences which students bring with them into the classroom will influence the effectiveness of student participation in determining goals and objectives.

In some classrooms, it may be necessary to give students certain experiences preliminary to the establishment of goals and objectives. These experiences might tend to reveal areas of weakness which could then form a foundation for the establishment of goals to correct those weaknesses.

Visitations in the business community and studies of the quality and nature of the work required in those businesses may prepare vocational students for more meaningful participation in the establishment of goals and objectives. 20

19 Supra, pp. 293-94.
20 Supra, pp. 303-5.
Degree-of-skill goals must be set up on an individual rather than a group basis. In skill courses, goals in terms of degree-of-skill must be set up on an individual basis. A group goal of achieving thirty words per minute in typewriting or a dictation rate of eighty words per minute in shorthand cannot provide for the individual needs, interests, and purposes of students, nor can it take into consideration individual differences in ability. Since students of shorthand would be taking the course for vocational reasons, more students in shorthand are likely to have common degree-of-skill goals as compared with students in typewriting.

Individual guidance must be given to students in relation to the establishment of degree-of-skill goals. It is highly desirable for the student and teacher to have a conference during which the objectives of the student are discussed and a degree-of-skill goal established.

Even though degree-of-skill goals may be different for individuals within the group, problems of building the skill that are common to the group will arise, which can be given group consideration.\(^{21}\)

Effective teacher-pupil planning cannot take place where students are subjected to a predetermined set of performance standards. Standards of performance set up by a state system of examinations or by a school for grading or other purposes are not compatible with the concept of student participation in setting up goals. This is true of all such

\(^{21}\)Supra, pp. 305-7.
predetermined standards, whether they are word-per-minute standards or quality-of-work standards. 22

Students Should Participate in Working toward Goals and Objectives

Student participation in working toward goals and objectives where other than degree-of-skill goals are being pursued. Student participation in working toward goals and objectives can be conceived as consisting of several distinct parts: determination of problems or topics which will achieve purposes; determination of methods of work which will be best in attacking the problems or topics; finding and using the materials necessary for the solution of the problems and topics; developing effective means of presenting the results of student study and experience.

The extent to which students can participate in determining problems or topics will be limited by the curriculum structure of the school. Where a textbook constitutes the basis for the course, students can still have limited opportunities for determining problems and topics they desire to study. Where the group can be freed from the restrictions imposed by dependence on a textbook, it is possible to start with a discussion of problems about buying goods, using services, dealing with business concerns, etc., that have been somewhat puzzling to the students. As the result of such discussions, the group can decide which problems or topics they would like to study and the order in which they would

22 Supra, pp. 307-8.
prefer to study the problems selected.

When a problem has been selected, decisions can be made as to how the group can effectively attack the problem.

After the group has agreed upon a method of attacking the problem, it can begin the process of finding and using the materials necessary for the solution of the problem. There are unlimited resources which can be brought to bear on business education problems.

Following the utilization of available resources, means can be decided upon by the group for the presentation of the results of the study of the problem.\textsuperscript{23}

Student participation in working toward goals and objectives where degree-of-skill goals are being pursued. Student participation in working toward degree-of-skill goals would follow basically the same pattern as in non-skill courses.

Students can participate in the determination of problems which obstruct the development of the skill goal. Where students have no skill, they will have no degree-of-skill problems. Thus, there will be fewer opportunities for student participation in the learning situation in the beginning stages of skill development.

As the group becomes aware of a problem which obstructs the development of degree-of-skill goals, decisions can be made as to the most effective way of attacking the problem.

\textsuperscript{23} Supra, pp. 331-39.
After a method of proceeding has been agreed upon, the group can determine the practice materials which will be used and use these materials in an effort to arrive at possible solutions to the problem.

Means can then be devised for reporting tentative solutions to the problem and decisions can be reached as to the best solution.

An additional step is necessary in the process of working toward degree-of-skill goals which is not entailed in non-skill areas. That is, practice in terms of the determined solution is necessary. Decisions can be made as to how much time should be devoted to practice and materials can be chosen which the group feels would be best for this practice. Such practice may reveal that the determined solution is inadequate and other solutions must be sought and tried out.

Students who engage in drill work as the result of such a process will be engaged in drill work which is meaningful to them. Drill work which is not related to a need felt by the individual does not effect permanent learnings.\textsuperscript{24}

Many problems which obstruct the development of degree-of-skill goals are individual rather than group problems. The problems which obstruct degree-of-skill goals would often be individual rather than group problems. In these cases, the problems would be attacked by the individual under the guidance of the teacher.\textsuperscript{25}

\textsuperscript{24} Supra, pp. 339-42.

\textsuperscript{25} Supra, p. 342.
Student participation in the determination and solving of problems which obstruct degree-of-skill goals is the antithesis of procedures typically used in skill areas. Teachers of typewriting and shorthand typically follow the routine of telling and showing how something is done, followed by teacher-planned and teacher-conducted drills in terms of the thing told and showed. These procedures have been justified by the concept that the first attempts of the student in the skill area should be correct in order that habits will not be developed which will be fatal to the development of the skill. Such procedures are the antithesis of the procedures suggested for student participation in the determination and solving of degree-of-skill problems.

Teacher demonstration may often have a place in the skill-area classroom. However, such demonstration would normally come at the end of the group or individual effort and would often be a demonstration of techniques suggested by the group or an individual in efforts to solve a problem. Student demonstration of possible solutions to degree-of-skill problems may make unnecessary demonstration on the part of the teacher. Demonstration of this sort is quite different from demonstrations given with the idea that students should imitate faithfully the example set by the teacher as they work on drill materials determined and supplied by the teacher.26

The objective of developing a degree of skill is not an objective which is isolated from other purposes and objectives of the students.

26 Supra, pp. 343-44.
Degree-of-skill objectives are not objectives which are isolated from other purposes and objectives of students in skill courses. Students desire a certain degree of skill so that they may be able to type term papers, get a job, etc. Such student objectives give rise to problems which, while being dependent on student possession of a degree of skill, involve student utilization of the skill in attacking the problems. Utilization-of-skill problems can be attacked in the same way as problems in non-skill areas.  

Certain differences exist between the skill and non-skill areas of business education with reference to student participation in working toward goals and objectives. Students coming into both skill and non-skill courses may bring with them problems which can be attacked by the group. In beginning skill areas, the problems which students bring with them are utilization-of-skill problems as contrasted to degree-of-skill problems. Students cannot, in skill courses, deal with utilization-of-skill problems until they possess a certain amount of skill; and thus, an original goal of the students is the development of a degree of skill. Beginning skill students will not have had experiences out of which meaningful degree-of-skill problems would emanate. Certain initial experiences must, therefore, always be given to beginning skill students out of which degree-of-skill problems will arise. Non-skill courses differ from skill courses in that students may bring problems and

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27 Supra, pp. 344-45.
experiences with them into the non-skill classroom which would make unnecessary teacher provision of such initial experiences.

Other differences exist between the skill and non-skill areas which point to a classroom situation in which there would be more individual work under the guidance of the teacher in skill areas as contrasted to teacher guidance of group work in non-skill areas. A degree-of-skill goal will not be a common goal for the whole group as would usually be the case of goals in non-skill areas. Also, a degree-of-skill problem would often be an individual rather than a group problem, in which case, the problem would be solved and meaningful drill work engaged in by the individual rather than by the whole group. Since in skill areas where degree-of-skill goals are being pursued more individual work under the guidance of the teacher is indicated, a classroom organization is necessary which will permit such individual work.

Even though more individual work is necessary in skill areas, there are many opportunities for group work which should be utilized whenever possible.\(^2\)

Certain differences exist between shorthand and typewriting with reference to student participation in working toward goals and objectives. Opportunities for group or individual attack on utilization-of-skill problems are more limited in shorthand than in typewriting. This is true because of two interrelated differences in the shorthand learning

\(^2\) Supra, pp. 345-48.
situation as contrasted to the typewriting learning situation. First of all, the objective for taking shorthand is a vocational one. The second difference has to do with the nature of the vocational utilization of the shorthand skill—it is utilized in taking business dictation from someone else in shorthand and then transcribing that dictation on the typewriter in acceptable business form. By contrast, there are many objectives for taking typewriting other than to use it vocationally, and the skill is a means of producing an end product rather than a means of recording something from which an end product can be produced. These differences affect the opportunities for dealing with utilization-of-skill problems.

In typewriting, there are many opportunities for utilizing the skill in solving problems that are not only within the immediate interests, needs, and purposes of the student but are also within the end-objective of the student. No such comparable basis exists for the utilization of shorthand skill; for the utilization of the shorthand skill itself, apart from the taking and transcribing of material which has been dictated by someone else, has no meaning within the vocational objective sought by the student.

Utilization-of-skill problems related to the objective for taking shorthand are problems which deal with the nature of dictated material that an individual may contact in a stenographer's job. This poses something of a hazard for the shorthand classroom where it is desired to base the learning situation on problems which are meaningful to students. Students who come to a class to learn shorthand would not
bring with them an awareness of utilization-of-skill problems that a stenographer would contact on a job, and the long-term goal of attaining vocational efficiency does not strongly motivate the young person so far removed from the job. Thus, shorthand students must be exposed to experiences which will give rise to meaningful utilization-of-skill problems. Textbook projects which simulate such problems are poor substitutes for student contact with real business situations. Shorthand students, more than students in any other area of business education, need some kind of work experience out of which utilization-of-skill problems will arise.

Another aspect of the difference which exists between shorthand and typewriting with reference to utilization-of-skill problems is that such problems can be attacked sooner in typewriting than in shorthand. The time involved in learning a shorthand system so that some ability to take dictation is developed, plus the development of some ability to type from shorthand notes, requires more time than is required in typewriting before utilization-of-skill problems can be tackled.

Because of these differences in the shorthand learning situation as contrasted to the typewriting learning situation, the period which calls for more teacher direction would be longer in shorthand than in typewriting.29

Student contact with real life situations will enhance the effectiveness of student participation in working toward goals and objectives.

29 Supra, pp. 348-53.
The closer students can come to real life situations in the process of working toward goals and objectives, the more purposeful the learning situation will be. The business education area is full of opportunities for student contact with real life situations. 30

Student participation in homework assignments. Students who are given the opportunity to participate in the determination of problems and in deciding on the procedures which will be used assume responsibility for working with the group in its efforts to effect solutions to problems. In such a classroom, although the homework assignment as traditionally conceived would not exist, students would be engaged in activities outside the classroom. If goals other than degree-of-skill goals are being pursued, students would be searching for and evaluating information which bears on their responsibility to the group for an aspect of the problem under consideration. In classes where degree-of-skill goals are being pursued, students would be engaged in practice activities which they have had a part in determining as necessary practice activities for the attainment of a goal.

If students have had little or no experience in assuming responsibilities in the learning situation, the homework assignment may be used as a means for giving students some degree of responsibility from which abilities to assume larger responsibilities can develop. 31

30 Supra, pp. 353-54.
31 Supra, pp. 354-56.
Student participation in classroom management. As groups work together toward goals and objectives, there are certain classroom routines which provide opportunities for student participation.32

Students Should Participate in Determining How Effectively Goals and Objectives Have Been Reached

In classrooms where students have a part in determining purposes, problems which will achieve the purposes, and the processes by which problems can be solved, continuous evaluation of progress made toward the solution of problems becomes an integral part of the group's working together. Such evaluation includes giving attention to evidences that data have been or are being uncovered which will bear on the solution of the problem, examining the procedure which the group is utilizing in its attempted solution of the problem, and considering as to whether or not certain characteristics and skills are being developed in the members of the group.

The extent to which students can be given the opportunity to participate in evaluation is inextricably interwoven with the amount of participation which students have in other phases of the learning situation. Where only limited opportunities in teacher-pupil planning are possible, the beginning opportunities given students with respect to evaluation may be student participation in effecting more traditional types of evaluation.33

32 Supra, p. 356.
33 Supra, pp. 389-92.
Student participation in evaluating the procedures by which problems are being attacked. A number of methods may be utilized by the group to evaluate procedures being used in the attempt to solve a problem. A group observer could be selected who would concentrate his attention on the methods being used by the group and who would report to the group those things which are working effectively and those things which are obstructing the work of the group. Students could, from time to time, write evaluative statements as to their opinion of the procedures being used by the group, and these statements could be given group consideration. Or, a certain day of the week, or part of a day, could be set aside for group discussion devoted to a consideration of the procedures being used by the group.\textsuperscript{34}

Student participation in evaluating work produced by themselves and other members of the group. Students can participate in evaluation by evaluating work which is produced by themselves and by other members of the group according to criteria which is set by the group.\textsuperscript{35}

Student participation in the construction of paper-and-pencil tests. Students can participate in the construction of tests which are used to evaluate information, skills, beliefs, etc. They can also share in evaluating the results of such tests and in deciding whether the group is ready to move on to other aspects of their working together or

\textsuperscript{34}\textit{Supra}, pp. 390-92.  
\textsuperscript{35}\textit{Supra}, pp. 392-93.
whether it needs to give additional attention to areas covered by the test. 36

Student participation in making reports of progress. Progress reports should contain evaluative statements by both student and teacher as to specific strengths and weaknesses of the individual in the units of work which have been completed during the period in question. They should also contain student and teacher evaluation of progress toward designated personality characteristics which are considered to be essential to the development of people capable of satisfactory living in a democracy. Where such reports call for a single letter grade, students should still have a part in reviewing with the teacher the nature of their work during the grading period and in determining what letter grade is representative of the quality of that work. 37

Student participation in evaluation where degree-of-skill goals are being pursued. Students can participate in evaluation in the skill areas by analyzing the errors which they make. A continuous evaluation of the work being done becomes a method by which problems which obstruct the development of the skill can be identified.

In addition to student and teacher analysis of errors being made, evaluative attention also needs to be given to the things that students are doing which are contributing to the development of the skill so that

36 Supra, pp. 393-94.
37 Supra, pp. 394-95.
the students may profit from their successes in the continued effort to develop skill.\textsuperscript{38}

Evaluation of progress toward individual degree-of-skill goals must be accomplished by individual evaluation under the guidance of the teacher. Degree-of-skill goals would be individual rather than group goals, and evaluation of progress made toward such goals must be accomplished by individual evaluation under the guidance of the teacher. Individual conferences should be held periodically so that student and teacher can discuss weaknesses which are obstructing the development of skill and strengths which are enabling the student to progress toward his goal. As established goals are reached, student and teacher can set new goals which are meaningful to the student and which are within the end-objective of the student.\textsuperscript{39}

Student participation in evaluation gives students experiences which better prepare them for satisfactory job performance. One of the criticisms made by businessmen of their workers is that they have little or no understanding of how to evaluate their own work. Student participation in evaluation becomes a means for giving students experiences which will better prepare them for satisfactory job performance.\textsuperscript{40}

Effective teacher-pupil planning cannot take place where the

\textsuperscript{38}\textsuperscript{Supra}, pp. 395-97.
\textsuperscript{39}\textsuperscript{Supra}, p. 397.
\textsuperscript{40}\textsuperscript{Supra}, p. 398.
criteria for evaluation is based on something other than the goals and objectives of students. In classrooms seeking democratic outcomes, the criteria used for evaluation are the goals and objectives of the students. Effective teacher-pupil planning cannot take place where the criteria for evaluation are standards of performance set by a school for grading or other purposes. Nor can the standards of performance expected by business be used as criteria for evaluation except as those standards are coterminous with the goals and objectives of students.  

V. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The greatest need for research, if business education is to move in the direction of teacher-pupil planning, is the preparation of resource units. Such research might be engaged in by an individual researcher, by groups of teachers gathered together in graduate classes, by groups of teachers attending summer workshops, or by groups of teachers in the local school where the resource unit will be utilized.

Research attention needs to be given as to how business teacher-education programs can prepare teachers capable of assuming the difficult role assigned to them by teacher-pupil-planning concepts.

The conclusion that business education classrooms should be conducted according to teacher-pupil-planning concepts needs to become a hypothesis which will be tested by experimental research. The enormity of valid experimental research in the area of teacher-pupil planning

\[\text{\textsuperscript{41}}\text{Supra, pp. 398-99.}\]
would seem to make such research beyond the resources of the individual researcher. In order to demonstrate adequately differences between teacher-pupil-planning classrooms and autocratically run classrooms, a control group would be needed whose total school experience during the study was in authoritarian classrooms. An experimental group would be needed which had developed characteristics and skills necessary for an optimal utilization of teacher-pupil planning and whose total school experiences during the study were in democratically run classrooms. In order for this to be possible, the control group and the experimental group would have to be in different schools. The variable for the experimental group would be the total school environment.

It would be difficult to draw comparisons between the two groups. The experimental group would be studying problems which it had a genuine part in determining and which had grown out of its common interests, wants, and needs. These problems would not readily divide themselves into logically organized bodies of subject matter. The autocratic group would be assigned daily quotas of subject matter to be covered. Thus, it would be difficult to expose the two groups to the same areas of knowledge. Presuming that it were possible to devise a method which would make it possible for the experimental group to cover the same subject matter as the control group, it would be possible to measure the amount of learning which had taken place in terms of subject matter learnings. However, the end sought by teacher-pupil planning is not the learning of fixed quotas of subject matter but is, rather, the learning of techniques for democratic action by practicing those techniques in the solution of
group problems. The problem of recording comparable units that can be counted, added, subtracted, multiplied, and divided in relation to the possession or non-possession of the characteristics and skills necessary for democratic living would be difficult.

Care must be exercised in arriving at conclusions from experimental research which is more limited in scope than the research here suggested.

If it were possible to observe business education classrooms in schools where optimal efforts were being made in the area of teacher-pupil planning, case study research would be very valuable. First, observations could be made by the case worker as to the status of teacher-pupil planning in a particular school. This would involve observation of the total school environment, including administrative procedures and parental attitudes. In order that these observations not be merely random observations, and so that generalizations based on uniform data could grow out of the several case studies to be made, criteria would need to be set up as regards conditions which need to exist for optimal utilization of teacher-pupil planning. The case worker could then analyze the results of his observations to discover those elements not in accordance with the criteria which he has set up. Next the case worker could make modifications in the school program that would bring it in line with the criteria which he has set up. Finally, the case worker would observe changes which take place as a result of the modifications made. Generalizations could grow out of several such case studies. It is likely that such research would also be beyond the resources of the individual researcher.
If research is to be productive in advancing knowledge, it must be conducted in areas which pre-thinking deems to be profitable areas of investigation. This study reveals that little attention has been given in the literature of business education to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning. If this can be considered to be an index to current practice in business education, it is doubtful if a normative survey approach, which utilizes certain techniques in ascertaining present practice, would be a productive approach for advancing knowledge in this area at this time.

Another emphasis for the utilization of normative survey techniques would be to survey opinions as to what might be done in this area in business education. This study reveals that of the attention which has been given, few of the writers give evidence of having given full consideration to the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning. If this can be considered to be an index to the extent of thinking which has been done by business educators as regards teacher-pupil planning, care would need to be exercised that conclusions from such a survey of opinions were not based on data gathered from persons who had given little thought to teacher-pupil planning.
TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

Volume II

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the
Graduate School of The Ohio State
University

By

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The Ohio State University
1954

Approved by:

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ILLUSTRATIVE AND SUGGESTED CLASS, COMMITTEE, AND INDIVIDUAL TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING ACTIVITIES FROM THE LITERATURE OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

Two general types of discussions appear in the literature of business education which have meaning for teacher-pupil planning—pedagogical discussions which support teacher-pupil-planning concepts and discussions which report or suggest classroom practices which have meaning within teacher-pupil-planning concepts. The pedagogical discussions are reported and organized in Chapters VIII to XI. In this appendix, the discussions which report or suggest classroom practices are reported and organized.

In this appendix, the major divisions are according to the nature of the activity or example reported. As for example, all of the classroom practices which involve student participation in making community surveys are placed together. Within each of the major divisions, the breakdown is according to subject matter areas. The heading, "Business Education in General," is used to identify concepts or examples which either deal with business education without reference to particular subject areas or which cut across several subject areas.

References are made at appropriate points in the summaries and evaluations which follow the major divisions in Chapters VIII to XI to the classroom practices which appear in this appendix.

1. STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN UNITS OF INSTRUCTION
Capitalization. In contrasting procedures for the teaching of capitalization, Blackstone and Smith say:

Let us examine the process by which a typical unit of typing instruction is commonly handled, and contrast this process with one handled by guidance. Take, for example, teaching students to make capital letters.

Ordinarily the teacher, fearing that "the students may get started wrong," or that "they may develop bad habits," does not want the students to attempt to make capital letters until they have been told how to make them properly. Hence he plans his lessons so that no capitals are met until the time is ripe for teaching them. At that time he announces to the students that the lesson will be devoted to capital letters. He then demonstrates the correct process, showing the students that the shift key is depressed by the little finger of the hand not used to strike the letter; that only the little finger is moved, the other fingers remaining on their home keys; that the shift key must be pushed all the way down before the letter key is struck; and that the shift key must be released before the next key is struck. Then he drills the students in making capital letters, probably by counting in threes—that is, at the count of one, the shift key is depressed; at the count of two, the letter key is struck; and at the count of three, the shift key is released. The instructor gradually decreases the time between counts, and finally merely draws out the letter to be capitalized. While the students are practicing, he passes about the room showing those students who have not mastered the idea, exactly what should be done. Is this procedure typical? Yes; but is it teaching, or is it making a boat?

The instructor who plans to teach capitalization by guidance, with emphasis on planning, executing, judging, and generalizing by the student, together with trait development, would provide the students with an exercise calling for capital letters, without instructing the students how capitals should be made. Each student, when he reaches the first capital, is faced by a problem—how shall he make a capital? Many of the students, not being accustomed to thinking for themselves, immediately stop and ask the teacher what to do. He merely tells them to try to find out.

1 For "boat analogy," see pp. 190-91.
Seeing that no help is forthcoming, each student attempts to solve his problem for himself. Some students are fully successful; some are partly successful; and some, unsuccessful. Even those who succeed in making satisfactory capitals may do it by a wrong process, such as looking the shift key. When the students have had some time to experiment, the teacher calls the class to attention and asks how many students had difficulty in making capitals. Several raise their hands. Then he asks some pupil how he made the capital letter (report of activity). Perhaps this pupil replies that he locked the shift key, struck the letter key, and then released the shift lock. Without approving or disapproving, the teacher asks another pupil what he did. If this pupil used the same procedure, the teacher asks if anyone followed a different procedure and permits those who did to describe their methods. As a result of these various accounts, several solutions to the problem of making capital letters are suggested, among which may or may not be the correct solution. When no other procedures can be suggested, the teacher asks which among those described is the most efficient method; he also permits the students to give reasons why they think their procedures are best. Hence an argument develops.

When the arguers have presented their arguments pro and con, the teacher suggests that the class itself, as a whole, might well determine the criteria to be used for making capital letters, and asks the students for suggestions, which are placed on the board. After weighing all suggestions, perhaps the class finally decides that a satisfactory method must be one which (1) gets the capital letter in correct position, and (2) is as speedy as possible. The teacher now asks, "How do the methods already suggested agree with the essential criteria?" Each procedure already suggested is now examined (evaluation of activities) in the light of the criteria, and any which is apparently useful is accepted. Of course it is now evident that locking the shift key is a slow process, although it does get the letter exactly on the line; hence a process is sought that will be faster and will at the same time align the capital letter with the rest of the letters.

The teacher suggests that the students examine the type bars very carefully. The students discover that on each letter bar appear a small letter and its corresponding capital letter. The teacher asks which of the two characters strikes the paper when the shift keys are in natural position. By trial the students find that the small letter strikes. He then asks how the capital may be made to strike, and soon the students discover that when the shift key is depressed either the carriage or the type basket raises and the capital letter instead of the lower-case letter strikes the paper. The teacher asks if it makes any difference how far the shift key is depressed, and by experimentation, the
students discover that unless the shift key is all the way down, either the capital is off the line, or only part of it prints.

After the students examine this result, the teacher asks them for a rule for making capital letters correctly, and the following one is developed: For the proper alignment of capital letters, the shift key must be firmly depressed before the letter key is struck. Then the teacher asks if any of the students have trouble with the letter following the capital—that is, if some of them find that it is not always on the line. Several students reply that they have this difficulty, and the teacher asks if they know why it occurs. Someone probably suggests that because the shift key is coming up as the second key is struck, the letter does not align properly. . . . The teacher then asks for a solution to this problem, and the following rule is suggested: The shift key must be released quickly and fully before the next key is struck.

The teacher asks if it makes any difference which finger is used for striking the shift key. All sorts of answers may be forthcoming, but each is accepted as worthy of consideration; and for each answer the students are asked the advantages and disadvantages. For instance one student may suggest that the thumb be used. When challenged for reasons, he may say that the shift key is easier to hold down with the thumb; another student points out, however, that when he depresses the shift key with his thumb, his fingers are removed from the home keys so that he cannot continue writing quickly, and that therefore such a procedure is somewhat slow.

After various suggestions have been carefully considered and discussed, the students will probably realize that the best process would require (1) that as many fingers as possible should be kept on the home keys; (2) that the shift key should be held down by the hand not to be used in striking the letter key; and (3) that such a procedure calls for the use of the little finger of the free hand because this finger is nearest to the shift key and is most readily moved without disturbing the other fingers. They point out, however, that the little finger is hard to control, and it may lack strength enough to depress the shift key firmly. The teacher remarks that while this objection is well made, by practice the students will strengthen the little finger and thus develop ability to hold the shift key down firmly. He then asks if the students want to see how experts make capital letters. They answer in the affirmative, of course, and he makes various capitals, some with one hand, some with the other. . . . Then the students are asked to make a summary of essential procedures followed in making capital letters, and to give reasons for each. These procedures
are then listed on the blackboard. For instance, the class may decide that the summary should include the following:

1. Depress the shift key with the hand not to be used in striking the letter key and use the little finger of that hand to hold down the shift key.

2. Keep as many fingers as possible on the home keys.

3. See that the shift key is held down firmly before the letter key is struck.

4. See that the shift key has returned to its normal position before the next key is struck.

The teacher now suggests that the students practice making capitals on the basis of these rules, and during this drill he goes about the room to examine the students' work. When the instructor finds that a student is doing something wrong, he does not tell the student that his method is wrong, but merely asks the student to give reasons for his method. Sometimes the teacher may challenge a student who is doing his work correctly, merely to see if that student can give reasons for doing his work in that way. The instructor never says to a student who is following the wrong method, "do it as I told you to." Instead, he asks the student to give his reasons for using the particular method, suggests reasons why he thinks the student should change his method, and then leaves the latter to decide whether or not he will change. If the student still thinks his method is best, the instructor says, "All right, try it your way. I think my way is better, and if, after a while you discover that you are wrong, you will be responsible for changing to the correct method. This may handicap you somewhat because you will have other things to learn at the same time; but do as you think best, and we shall see how you come out."

Disadvantages. Now what are the disadvantages of teaching by guidance? It may be suggested:

1. That the procedure takes too long.

2. That it permits the students to get started on the wrong track.

3. That the students cannot work out for themselves effective reasons for procedures.

True, this procedure does require a longer time, for the teacher could demonstrate the correct procedure, have a practice period,
and go on to the next unit, all in less time than is required by this procedure.

Furthermore, although it does permit students to get started on the wrong track, it probably does not result in wrong habits, for habits are not formed quickly. Moreover, if a wrong start were fatal, most people would not live long; many of us make awkward, blundering attempts the first time we tried to drive a car, to swing a golf club, to paddle a canoe, or to do almost anything else.

Advantages. These advantages of teaching by guidance may likewise be suggested:

1. The procedure gives students an opportunity to exercise and develop the desirable traits of initiative and resourcefulness. The students cannot passively wait for instructions. They must do something, whether it is right or wrong. As successive problems occur, the traits grow and develop. Nothing that the school could do is of more importance than is the development of such traits.

2. It arouses incentive. If the solution is obviously wrong when attempted, the student will ordinarily try another method. . . . In many persons it develops a dogged determination to find the correct method, merely to satisfy themselves, and to show that they cannot be "stumped" by a simple little problem.

3. It permits the student to hear and to evaluate the methods of attack tried by his classmates. The others may suggest methods that had not occurred to him, and he may perhaps wonder why he hadn't thought of them. Thus in succeeding problems he may try to think the problem through more fully, and be less willing to accept the first method that occurs to him and more eager to find the most efficient method.

4. It causes the student to study methods in order to determine reasons for these methods. He examines his own procedures for reasons; he examines and criticizes the suggestions of others. Such a procedure should develop the ability to evaluate and to judge shrewdly. What could be more valuable?

5. It teaches the student to set up essential criteria when he meets a new problem, in order to determine carefully just what has to be done, and thus aids him to think straight.

6. It teaches the student to test his procedures for reasons, and to analyze them in terms of desirable criteria.

7. It produces a correct technique and (far more important) the **reasons why it is correct**. Under the older methods, the
student seldom knows why any particular technique is correct, because reasons are seldom stressed.

8. It provides the student with a strong motive for repetition practice.

The fact that teaching by guidance is a long procedure, is in no way a disadvantage. Under the older procedure, the student learns merely a skill or a technique—one that is imposed upon him; one for which he does not know the reasons; and one, therefore, which he may readily forget. The longer time required by this method is amply justified by the fact that the student not only learns the technique, but also discovers part or all of it for himself, and develops initiative, resourcefulness, judgment, and an attitude of critical analysis of his activities. If each unit took ten times as long as it takes by the demonstration method, the additional time would be fully worth while if these additional traits and attitudes could be insured, for the student would be developed into a thinking, reasoning, resourceful typist, instead of into a mere robot, able to do only those things he has been told to do. Furthermore, with practice in this procedure, students learn to become more efficient in its use and thus may better attack and swiftly solve later units.

Hence the guidance procedure is worthy of following, as it tends to develop typists who are more than makers of toy boats. They would tend to become independent, resourceful thinkers, whose skill would probably be far greater than that of the robot developed by the other method; greater in skill because the skill would be directed by intelligence; more valuable to the world, because they have been trained to attack and to solve new problems independently. Typing teachers should give this method careful consideration, not only in work calling for drill, but also in work calling for reflective thinking. They should be warned, however, that this method is more difficult than is the process of demonstration, and perhaps it is for this reason that most teachers use the latter method. After all, it is easy for a teacher to show students how a thing is to be done, and then, backed up by the authority of the principal and the superintendent, to insist that the students follow the procedure used by the teacher. The teacher's first attempt at guidance training may be confusing because neither he nor the students are used to it, but as he continues to teach by this method, his rewards in the way of pupil achievement and pupil attitude toward both himself and the work will be so gratifying that he will want to use no other method.

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Centering. In outlining procedures for developing thinking in the teaching of centering, Blackstone and Smith say:

A. The students should be placed in a problematic situation, so as to challenge them to attempt a solution. If such a situation is to arise, the teacher must consider the following things:

1. The problem or difficulty should be on a level with the students' interests, habits, skills, and fund of meanings. They should feel a need for the solving of the problem or difficulty.

If the teacher of beginning typewriting encourages her students to talk about their chief interests in the subject, she will no doubt get a variety of responses. Some will be interested chiefly because they hope to find a position in some business office; thus they will want to do any piece of work that they feel they will be called upon to do in such an office. Others may be interested chiefly because they would like to be able to type term papers and other papers that will be required in connection with their college work later on. Some may perhaps suggest that they would like to type their notebooks and other papers that they will write in connection with their other high-school courses. Many other interests may be suggested. Such a discussion will lead some to discover interests that they did not have before. The many uses thus discussed should serve as outleads into the current and later lives of the students. A consideration of such interests should also guide the teacher, since the interests of the students should be the points of departure in the presenting of new subject matter.

If students of beginning typing are encouraged to bring to class typing that they want to do, many worth-while problems will no doubt arise. Wherever possible, the teacher of typewriting should use these problems as a basis for problem solving. They are the problems of the student and not of the teacher. They are on a level with his immediate interests. He has need for their solution.

The problem of centering may arise as students prepare papers for their other classes, as they type articles that they have written for the school newspaper, and so on. Some students may ask the teacher for help in selecting and placing the heading; others may write such papers without recognizing the need for the heading. The teacher should be guided by these needs of her students. The problem of centering may thus be suggested to the class for consideration. The teacher will do well to keep in mind, however, that the problematic situation will not challenge a solution unless the problem or difficulty is also on a level with the students' habits, skills, and fund of meanings. It is evident, for example, that the students, before being placed in this problem situation, should
know the meaning or use of such machine devices as the type-bar
guide, the carriage release, the carriage frame pointer, the back
spacer, and so on; also that certain habits and skills should have
been built up in connection with the operating of these devices
and the keyboard.

2. There must be some scheme to take into consideration the
individual differences of students.

An attempt to provide for individual differences was made when
the students were encouraged to discuss their particular interests
in the work and to bring to class work that they wanted to do.

The teacher will likewise need to consider these individual
differences as the students progress with this unit of work. Such
consideration will be brought out as we continue the discussion of
procedures.

3. The problem should be clearly defined.

The class discusses the purpose of the heading and the meaning
of the term "center." The teacher may show the class various types
of attractive centering; e.g., the first page of a high-school theme,
a title page, a notice for the bulletin board, a report of receipts
and expenditures, and so on. These may be discussed both as to
content, and as to appropriateness and arrangement of the heading.
One of the aims here is to extend the students' interests in center-
ing by suggesting various uses for this part of the work. The
students should, of course, be encouraged to contribute their own
ideas on the subject.

If some one has attempted to center a heading without achieving
satisfactory results, the teacher may now suggest that the students
consider this particular problem in order that they may find out
how to do this type of work as attractively and as quickly as
possible. Even though some students have not yet attempted this
kind of work, they will no doubt be ready to attack this problem
since all of them have been led to see the many uses for this phase
of the subject.

The following heading is merely suggested as one that may have
been attempted as students wrote papers for their other classes:
"The Selection and Care of Clothing."

It is suggested that the teacher now present the problem by
writing the above heading on the board with instructions as follows:

a. Center this heading as attractively and quickly as
possible.
b. Strive for a satisfactory solution on the first attempt by thinking it through carefully before actually typing the heading.

c. Be able to give reasons for each step of your solution.

B. An individual work period must be provided.

1. Suggestions for a possible solution of the problem must arise.

Suggestions for a possible solution should arise if the problem is on a level with the student's interests, habits, skill, and fund of meanings.

The teacher should consider individual differences now also as the students work independently. She will observe perhaps that certain students are not progressing with the work, because suggestions for a possible solution do not arise. The right question from the teacher may serve to guide their thinking in the right direction. The teacher's problem here is to guide the student's thinking without doing it for him.

2. The student should be encouraged to test out inferences and suggestions before acting upon them; i.e., he must reason to see if the suggestions that arise have a bearing on the solution of the problem or difficulty.

3. There should be further observation and experiment leading to the acceptance or rejection of the solution.

4. Sufficient time must be given for reflection.

C. There should be provision for class discussion of the various solutions.

1. Further observation and experiment; acceptance or rejection, followed by formulation of what has been learned in such a manner that it leads to further growth.

The class discussion should lead various students to tell how they proceeded to place this heading so that it would be well centered on the page. Perhaps some one will suggest that he marked the center of the paper and then estimated where he would have to begin writing so that the heading would be in the center of the page. Other suggestions may be offered. Some one may criticize the first suggestions, saying that we should not depend on estimation since the heading, to look well, should be placed exactly in the center of the paper or nearly so. How can this be done? Some
one will perhaps suggest that half of the letters of the heading should be placed on the left of this center that has been marked and half of them on the right. How can we arrange to do this? Move the carriage so that this marked center is immediately back of the typebar guide. Striking at this point would be striking at the center of the paper. They must therefore back space one half the number of spaces contained in the heading and begin writing at this point. (It is assumed that the above responses are the ones that will likely come from the class. The teacher, however, will have to adjust her procedures to fit in with the responses that are made. She must anticipate responses and be prepared to meet them. By so doing she will be better prepared to meet the responses that are not anticipated. The lesson will not necessarily follow any fixed course of procedures.)

After the students have offered their solutions, the teacher may suggest that they determine the best method of placing the heading on the page by deciding upon the important things to be considered in doing the work. They will no doubt decide (a) that the heading should be placed exactly in the center or as nearly so as possible; (b) that the method they use should always produce this result; and (c) that the work should be done as quickly as possible.

The students should then evaluate their own work in the light of the criteria that they have set up; e.g., (a) Did they do the work in a way that assured them that the heading was exactly centered or nearly so, or did estimation enter into their solution? (b) Would they always get the correct result no matter where the paper guide was placed? (c) Did they do the work as quickly as possible and still get satisfactory results? This evaluation should be followed by a formulation of what has been learned so that the principle of centering may be used in similar and new situations.

The problem of placing copy on the page so that it is centered attractively as to top and bottom margins as well as to side margins, is an important phase of centering.

Work that the students are already doing may serve as approaches to this problem; for example, papers that they are writing for other classes.

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Student Participation in Units of Instruction in Bookkeeping

Introduction to the study of bookkeeping. In discussing the planning of a unit in bookkeeping, Lyons says:

... The unit here selected as an example is the "Introduction to the Study of Bookkeeping." The goal to be reached is the development of the account. This is the complete job that the teacher as leader of the group visualizes as an area of work; the elements of this unit will in the course of its development give rise to pupil problems that will challenge their creative abilities.

The development of the account may be considered a logical goal for the unit of work. Accounts are the instruments by means of which business transactions are classified, records accumulated and summarized, and data provided for interpretation and future planning. Starting with the first equation statement showing what is owned and who owns it, there is a logical sequence of situations arising from transactions involving purchases and sales for cash, on account, and for notes, and their effect on net worth. The imaginative pupil soon sees the folly of making an equation statement after each transaction and will, as a rule, suggest a device for collecting the data resulting from transactions in some form to be used at a later date. It is important that their fund of business experience, however limited in extent, be drawn upon to motivate interest and suggest possible solutions to problems. All of them have purchased innumerable items at stores, and they never saw the clerk make out an equation statement. Many of them have worked in stores after school hours, and never saw such statements prepared for each transaction. Others have worked in their parents' stores and know that certain records and papers are accumulated until a need arises for their use. What a collection of disconnected but potentially valuable pupil experiences we have here that need only a little guidance to emerge into a new experience—the development of the account in bookkeeping!

... Although the unit guide is prepared by the teacher and may be handed to the pupils in mimeographed form, it is only a guide and as such leaves room for pupil planning and pupil purposing.

As was stated before, a fixed unit plan is undesirable. The resourcefulness of the creative teacher can safely be relied upon to modify it in both its written form and in the rich variety of implications that the learner can draw for himself. The teacher who rigidly follows a prescribed written guide is lacking in the imagination so essential to creativeness. In fact, the alert and
imaginative teacher who can see all around the journey to the desired goal may find a written guide a handicap rather than a help. Such a teacher—rare as he may be—is the one who is encouraging pupils to explore their own store of unrelated experiences and to discover ways and means of making those experiences emerge into a new synthesis. How enthusiastically pupils will arrange the things they themselves own on one side of an equation statement and what they are worth on the other side, if the learning is properly motivated! Here are their own problems, their own experiences, emerging through their own creative efforts into an orderly and significant bookkeeping pattern. The finished product is their own creation, something of which they can be justly proud.

The imagination and the ability that enabled the pupils to present their own net worths in equation statements will make it possible for them to meet the challenge of other situations. What pupil has not imagined himself in some adult business undertaking? If the proper learning situation is provided, pupils will be the mental proprietors of any number of businesses and they will tackle purposefully and intelligently the problems that the management of those businesses present. Such problem-solving activities call forth initiative and inspire the pupils to strive for ever higher standards of achievement.

. . . The whole unit of work in the introduction to the study of bookkeeping may be pictured mentally only by the teacher, but the elements of the unit certainly should come within the scope of the pupils' vision and provide situations, real or imaginative, that are meaningful to them. If the development of the elements of the unit requires their problems to be solved, if the situations fall within the range of their own knowledge and experiences, if the various finished jobs are their own creation, desirable educative changes are taking place in the pupils.

In suggesting a possible introductory unit for a bookkeeping class, Boynton says:

. . . The bookkeeping class could well be started with the development of a major unit on "Why study bookkeeping?" Such a unit would be equally concerned with the process of students' learning and the subject matter of bookkeeping. Such a question as "What good is bookkeeping for stenographers, store clerks,

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farmers, beauty culture operators, garage mechanics, doctors, lawyers, housewives, private store owners, accountants, and so on could be the basis of classroom group action. Small groups could be formed in keeping with the topic to investigate the answers to the question along the lines of group interests.

Each group could decide upon the information that is needed and how to get it. It would probably be secured through the exploratory experiences of visits and interviews in the community; reading; pictures, films, or recordings; discussion; and guest speakers. When the information is collected, the small group would plan its organization and presentation to the entire class.

It is to be expected that such a process could result in (a) the development of interests by individuals; (b) the awareness of the need of bookkeeping personally and vocationally; (c) the awareness of the existence of basic business use; (d) the desire to discover the best way to master these principles.

Many an experienced bookkeeping teacher might oppose such an approach with the supporting premise that "Students enter my room to learn bookkeeping. To do other than put them to work immediately on the textbook content of bookkeeping would be a soft, unbusiness-like approach to this subject. I'd never finish the text if we spent a few days or a week on such an approach." Others might say that they tell (teach?) these things the first day or so and thus save time. Should not such teachers re-examine the value of the group process and the development of the unit and weigh it against the values of the process of teacher-telling approach?

In describing a project developed during the introductory phases of a bookkeeping course at Greenville High School, Greenville, Florida, Binger says:

"I think we're going to have fun in here."

"I never thought about bookkeeping this way."

Those were some of the comments pupils made on their way out of class the day we had made our plans for our first real bookkeeping project. The first week or ten days had been used in a short introductory unit familiarizing the pupils with the concept of

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property, the multitude of ways in which it is used, and the fact
that someone always has the claim to property. Then we discussed
the changes that occur in property and property rights due to its
use.

When we emphasized the fact that all property is owned by some-
one, questions arose concerning ways it could be owned. The class
had some brief discussions on methods of ownership in the United
States. We had illustrations of partnerships, sole proprietorships,
and corporations in the community. Three boys volunteered to make
short reports on some of the differences. Of course, they did not
bring out all of the points but did suggest enough for the class
to understand the differences in the forms of ownership. There
were many implications and related learnings which took place and
as a result, the pupils had a thorough understanding of the equa-
tion, property equals property rights. The class was then ready
to begin the discussion of the balance sheet and to learn the
terms which relate to it. The pupils were asked if they would
rather learn about this statement, which summarizes the property
and explains the property rights, from studying the textbook and
working the problems at the end of the chapter or if they would
rather learn about it by actually making statements for some
businesses in the community. Naturally, they chose the latter.
They decided to select five different businesses, visit them one
afternoon during the class period, get a list of all the property
in each business, and obtain a list of the usual types of debts.

The businesses which the class chose were the bank, a grocery
store, the theater, a service station, and the school lunchroom.
The pupils and teacher together, with the approval of the principal,
made arrangements with the operators of these different places. The
school assured them that we were not prying into their affairs and
did not want any figures. The businessmen were all very cooperative
and some even offered to give us their actual figures.

The class was divided into five committees. Each group gathered
the figures from a different business. When the information was
assembled, each committee worked on a balance sheet for the business.
The group also discussed together where the various items would
appear. Each one had an illustration to follow, and in addition
the teacher had made a large chart—a balance sheet on a window
shade which could be pulled down for them to follow in making their
own statements. As they sat and worked in groups over the room,
the teacher moved from one group to the other answering questions
which arose. Some of the questions pertained to classification,
some of them to bookkeeping techniques, and some of them to inter-
esting points which had arisen from their visits. The teacher
couraged a well-rounded experience during the visits rather than
merely emphasizing bookkeeping techniques. Most of the questions
which arose in the committees came up again when the entire class discussed the statements. At that time one of the committee members usually was able to answer the question.

During the committee work, the service station committee had to find out whether vending machines placed in the station by the seller of the product would appear on the statement for the owner of the service station. The bank committee was trying to decide whether the bank vault, which was built into the building, should be included with the building or listed as a separate asset. Most of them asked the questions concerning salaries earned but unpaid. The information was collected on Wednesday, and the statements were to be made up as of that date. It was not difficult for them to understand the necessity of placing wages payable under liabilities.

Some pupils took more than one class period to complete their statements; others were usefully occupied until all had finished. The statements (exactly as they had made them—mistakes and all) were duplicated and copies distributed for each pupil to use as a basis for class discussion. The next day in class we took up the statements one by one, discussing the classification of the item, the form, and the inclusion of certain items. Any related learnings concerning the nature and operation of the business which were a part of the problem at hand were included. Some of those came through the teacher's suggestions but many arose through student reaction.

Many of the same questions which the committees had asked were again asked by other members of the class, and the committee members were eager to "inform" others of the why's and wherefore's of certain decisions.

It is impossible to relate all of the discussion and questions, and I regret that I did not jot down the many learnings that took place in addition to the learning of bookkeeping techniques.

When the group had finished with a good understanding of the balance sheet, sufficient interest had been aroused and an adequate background had been developed to study the profit and loss statement. They were eager to know how the business determined its profit if it could not be found on the balance sheet.

Practice sets. In suggesting a method for group work on

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Many students will find employment in offices where they perform only one phase of the bookkeeping processes, such as posting to customer accounts or recording entries in the Cash Receipts Journal. It seems logical, then, that students should see how this division of responsibility actually functions. One way that this may be shown is through specialization of the work in a practice set.

... Instead of having each student do the entire practice set, divide the class into groups of five. The five students work cooperatively in the completion of the one practice set. Designate one member of each group as the head bookkeeper; he, in turn, assigns responsibilities to the other members of his group. The exact division will depend on the nature of the practice set being used and whether or not business papers are included. . . .

If the practice set covers a two-month period, the positions may be rotated for the second month. The entire practice set may be repeated with students assuming different positions if added work is considered desirable.

... In addition to simulating the division of the bookkeeping process, as found in many offices, and to increasing interest in the practice set, there are several other outcomes. The students are given an opportunity to assume responsibility. The necessity for co-operation is emphasized. For the first time students may realize that errors and delays in their work not only affect them personally but also affect the work of others.7

In describing how practice sets are used in his bookkeeping classes at Brookings High School, Brookings, Oregon, Chaney says:

... Several days before the students begin work on the set, I explain just what we are going to do. I explain that we are going to organize an accounting department for a wholesale grocery establishment. The students ask questions about the business, visit other wholesale grocery establishments in the community, and decide as a group just what records must be kept. The teacher merely acts as a guide and adviser. If students make a mistake—so what! Many times we profit greatly by our errors. The students can always revise their departmental organization to meet their needs.

When all questions concerning the needs of the department are answered (to the satisfaction of the class) the class then actually sets up an accounting office. . . . Appropriate signs should be made and displayed to identify each section of the accounting office.

When the physical aspects of the office are completed, the class elects, appoints, or, in some manner, places an individual on a particular job. My class follows the procedure of applying for the job by letter and a personal interview.

The positions and sections used in working this set are as follows:

**Office Manager**—Co-ordinates all work done in the office. Sees that everything functions smoothly.

**Personnel Manager**—(May or may not be used,) Conducts interviews and handles the public relations of the office.

**Sales**—Handles all sales on account and works with the accounts receivable section.

**Accounts Receivable**—Works with the sales section and keeps the accounts receivable ledger—keeps files and information regarding sales on account.

**Purchases**—Handles all records pertaining to purchases on account—files and works directly with accounts payable section.

**Accounts Payable**—Keeps all records and accounts payable ledger—works directly with purchases section.

**Treasurer**—(Cash Payments) Works as treasurer and in all instances where payments are made. Keeps records of checks and bank account.

**Cashier**—(Cash Receipts) Receives all cash and makes change, cashes checks, makes deposits and keeps the cash receipts journal.

**General Journal**—**General Ledger**—The head bookkeeper and his assistants keep these records.

If the class is large enough, an office boy can be used for errands and as a messenger. Other students can work with the teacher in getting supplies and aiding each section of the office.

If all office work is not completed, an office worker is given a copy of the narrative of transactions. The office manager can keep all of the other business
papers and distribute them as needed. The office force moves at the same rate of speed, usually five to eight transactions are recorded each day. This rate of recording transactions may seem slow, but remember that this is the students' first experience in this type of situation, and there are other duties in the office, besides the recording of transactions that must be performed, such as filing, letter writing and auditing. The first day may be spent profitably by having the students at their working stations and a class discussion on activities of the coming week.

When the office manager and I think a particular student is proficient in his particular duty, notice in the form of an office memorandum is given to that student telling him of his advancement to a new position. The class is rotated periodically or at any time the situation demands it. This rotation plan allows each student to participate in as many different activities as the office can accommodate.

...The unique way in which the class deviates from the traditional methods stimulates the students to do superior work on practice sets. They like to work in a situation where they can function as responsible individuals.8

In discussing the development of understanding of bookkeeping problems rather than the mechanical completion of problems, Peters and Stutsman say:

One plan that has proved helpful is to have the students write out business transactions that occur in their daily living, in their business, or in the businesses of family or friends. This list should be started before needed in order to provide transactions which cover the range of common types that arise in business. After a number of these transactions have been written, they can be used as a problem or a practice set where all of the steps in the bookkeeping cycle are given. The books needed to record these transactions, with emphasis on special columns, can be worked out through conferences with the instructor or in groups having similar transactions. This gives each student a different problem on which to work, real live transactions, and causes him to understand the reasons for doing the many things that are done. It also gives a fine opportunity for group work to be carried on

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effectively under the guidance of the instructor.  

In discussing ways of making bookkeeping instruction more realistic, Enterline says:

... After the pupils have acquired an understanding of the basic principles of bookkeeping . . . a survey should be made of the interests and needs of the different pupils. One pupil may be interested in the retail grocery business, another in a furniture business, another in an electrical business, and still another in farming. Each pupil should have an opportunity to complete a set of records for the type of business in which he holds a special interest. A sufficient variety of practice set material is available so that this is possible. . . .

Student Participation in Units of Instruction in Distributive Education

In describing their sales class at North Phoenix High School, Phoenix, Arizona, the students say:

To begin with we think it is fair to list four points of fact as we see them:

1. Students sometimes have ideas, too.
2. There are lots of things that cannot be learned from a back seat.
3. The old bromide about "learning by doing" should be mentioned less and practiced more.
4. Students will learn to accept responsibility only by being given responsibility.

So we say: "Stop talking 'Teach,'" and let your students learn. . . .

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Now we'd like to tell you about our class, though we don't pretend that it's just the schoolroom for Utopia.

It began like this: We had signed up for salesmanship. None of us knew quite what to expect. Our class first met on a bright Phoenix morning in February.

The teacher explained that this was the first class in salesmanship ever offered at our school and the first such class he had ever had, though he had always wanted a class in salesmanship.

The class started on general discussion of every-day psychology and personality, which we soon found are all bound up with the job of selling yourself, your product, or anything else. In the meantime, the class as individuals, was feeling its way around for some way to organize.

There were—and there have been—but two general rules on which our teacher insisted: (1) We must get started; (2) We must keep moving.

These rules were to apply not only to getting the semester's work started but to each day's work as well.

At the end of the first week we collected specific suggestions for the running of our class from each student. Most of the next week was spent in the process of organizing.

There is no need to go over the trials of our getting started. Let's just say: We've had our troubles—but we've come a long way.

Responsibility for class projects was divided among various committees. Membership on committees was voluntary. Only a few did not belong to one of the committees, yet only two or three were regular members of more than one.

Most important is the program committee which has a chairman and a vice-chairman. Each week the chairman must make plans for the following week. This program, which is to include alternative suggestions made by class members outside the committee, is mulled over on Monday morning as the class comes to decisions regarding its week's work. The chairman may resign after doing any single worthwhile piece of work. The vice-chairman then becomes chairman and his, or her, successor is chosen by the committee.

Other regular committees are: Secretarial; correspondence; editorial; tests; committee without portfolio.

Each has its duties and organization. . . .
A model schedule for a week's work has been adopted, but it is only tentative. However, the average week program will go something like this:

**Monday:**

1. Organization of week's work, program chairman in charge.
2. Balance of period usually spent in concluding any unfinished study, discussion, or demonstration from the previous week.
3. Assignments for week are posted.

**Tuesday:**

Day's work conducted by two or three students who plan tests, discussions, demonstrations, or special exercises dealing with Salesmanship. Usually this comes as a follow-up on an assignment in the textbook.

**Wednesday:**

Much the same as Tuesday's work with different student "experts" in charge.

**Thursday:**

The "Red" side of the room is pitted against the "Blue," by the use of questions covering the past week's work, written by the test committee. Scores are kept from week to week, and a party hangs in the balance.

**Friday:**

An outside speaker appears before the class to give a short talk, answer questions, and join in discussions.

In an effort to find out what students thought of their work, each class member was asked to write an unsigned opinion of his class and its work. These were collected, thoroughly shuffled, and then read aloud by students...

Well, teachers, now that we have gotten to our conclusion we are not just sure what it should be. We believe we have made some points to argue for greater student participation in class.

We have expressed a point of view, a point of view which not even our own teacher entirely believes in. But, after all, we are all working toward the same goal, a better more democratic education.
We believe, many of us, that our classes have made a good start toward this goal. . . .

In discussing the development of projects in a merchandising class at Girls High School, Boston, Massachusetts, Clancy says:

Our merchandising class was a bright and alert group of girls. To the casual observer the class activity was meaningful and productive, the atmosphere was friendly, and the girls were responsive. The teacher, however, was not satisfied, because it seemed as though the same girls were reciting all the time and the same girls were reluctantly contributing—and then only when called upon by name. Now what to do about it!

Good pedagogy demands 100 per cent student participation and response, so we set out to get it. The first approach to the problem came about when we were discussing the topic: "Store English." One of the girls mentioned that she had heard a radio commentator stress the importance of students' getting practice in reciting and talking before a group, and she concluded with these two sentences:

"The radio commentator asked how many of his listeners could talk for five minutes on any subject. How many of our girls in this class could talk for one minute on any of the subjects they have been studying?" What an opportunity for the teacher to start a discussion on the topic of public speaking!

One of the girls suggested that each girl be given a topic on merchandising—one that had been studied and discussed—to be presented to the class in one minute. The class liked the suggestion and decided to try it. The girls enjoyed the exercise and thought it was fun, but when the period for criticism came along the girls felt that they could have done better. The class suggested that instead of having each girl talk extemporaneously perhaps it would be better to have the talks prepared in advance. A wonderful suggestion! So the teacher and the students working together developed ways and means for arriving at this objective.

One of the girls thought the material should be presented in the form of panel discussions. She had seen this type of discussion on television and thought we could try it out. A panel discussion was planned for one class period. It was decided that the class would

be divided into groups and each group would present a panel dis-
cussion on a topic of interest to the class. The class wanted
topics that could be developed and discussed in an interesting and
original manner. The following topics were selected and each group
picked one:

1. Giving Merchandise Information
2. The Ethics of Selling
3. How to be a Good Salesperson
4. Duties and Responsibilities of the Salesperson
5. Finding the Needs of the Customer
6. Building Customer Clientele

Each group went to work with enthusiasm. They went to the library,
they read articles in current magazines, and they talked to sales-
people and to store superintendents. When the day came for the panel
discussion each group was well prepared. The members of the class
felt free to question each group, and there were many questions.
... All in all, the panel discussions were very profitable.

After the panel discussion project was completed the girls and
the teacher got together on another valuable class project. We
decided that it would be interesting to try a debate and continue
our study of merchandising topics in this manner. Debate teams
were organized—three girls on the affirmative side, and three on
the negative side. Each girl, again, was to be a member of one of
the debate teams. The topics selected for this type of group act-
ivity were: 1. Is the Customer Always Right? 2. Should There Be
Refunds on All Types of Merchandise? 3. How to Sell to the Difficult
Customer. Needless to say, interest in this project ran high. The
arguments presented by both the affirmative and negative teams were
so good that it was difficult for the class members to decide which
team was the winner.

The girls liked the group activity idea so much that they wanted
to continue with their study of merchandising topics in this way
for another period's work. After much discussion and deliberation
the class decided that it would be interesting to work on certain
subjects—subjects that were carefully selected from the point of
view of interest and future values. The class decided that it
would be different and interesting if they appointed a moderator
who would lead the class discussions. All members of the class
would study and read up on the particular subject that was selected
and the moderator would ask them questions. ... We selected the
following subjects for this interesting presentation: (1) The
Approach, (2) How to Open the Sale, (3) How to Close the Sale, (4)
How to Answer Objections, (5) How to Present Merchandise Effectively.
This project proved to be the most enjoyable because the girls felt
that in order to do justice to their subjects they had to demonstrate
the answers in a number of cases. The demonstrations added a great deal of variety and interest.

The girls were asked to evaluate the class projects. They were asked to study the results of each project and tell what advantages, if any, they had received from these class projects. Here are a few of their comments:

"I like doing these projects because I felt I was accomplishing something worth while."

"This type of work helps a girl become accustomed to talking to people not only in the classroom, but also when she is on the job."

"This activity develops teamwork—we found it fun to work with different groups."

"We learned to help one another."

The class, through the co-operative planning on the part of the teacher and the students, developed qualities that they need for success on the job. The students discovered for themselves that they need the ability to use words easily and to speak clearly in order to be understood. They unconsciously developed an attitude of natural ease when talking before a group. In addition to developing good work habits all the girls seemed to enjoy these group activities.

As a result of these co-operative projects our merchandising class developed into an active, aggressive, happy, and responsive group—a class that liked the subject, enjoyed working together, and was eager to put in extra time improving themselves in the techniques of the subject.12

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An informal experiment in committee work, with an aim of developing better techniques for teaching high school secretarial students to do office tasks in a responsible manner was undertaken because the method of teaching whereby the student memorized specific facts and mastered simple skills seemed inadequate to prepare him to solve office problems. Moreover, it was felt that the student preparing for office work should not only learn how to think and solve problems individually but also learn to work cooperatively with others in our democratic way of life.

The class was composed of ten seniors in high school, nine girls and one boy, having had one year each of shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping. It was conducted in an office machines room, with facilities for using a section of the room for a realistic office. This class met daily from 8:00 to 9:50 a.m., the first seventy minutes for shorthand and typewriting and the last forty minutes for office practice.

The units of instruction in office practice were as follows: Choosing an occupation; Personality development; Finding information; Filing and recordkeeping; Communications; Insurance and social security; Banking; Getting a job; Credit and taxes; Travel and itineraries; Office problems related to special businesses; Office supplies; and Legal problems.

The committee-organization method was tried out in some of these units and its use in teaching "travel and itineraries" will be discussed in this chapter.

The group of ten students sat around a large conference table. The teacher handed out colorful travel brochures, railroad timetables, and the Travel Section of the New York Times, and talked briefly about the secretary's duties in planning a trip for her employer. After discussing several possible places to which the students themselves might like to travel, the students selected two destinations that would require land and sea travel. Then each student chose one of the two destinations and volunteered to serve on the committee that would get travel information about going to that place.

Step 1. Each committee selected one student for its secretary, to be responsible for recording its deliberations and making the final report. They discussed how the work should be organized: what must be done, the order in which it should be done, and who was to do it. The teacher aided the committee work by furnishing a skeletal outline of how they might proceed and then moved back and forth between the groups, giving suggestions when needed.

Step 2. The students wrote to the various travel agencies, including steamship lines and airlines, and they visited local
railroad and bus station terminals to secure time tables. While awaiting replies, they studied the general information they needed in their projects: (a) form of writing the itinerary; (b) how to find suitable hotels in distant cities; (3) how to make reservations; (d) ways of carrying money; and (3) the form of the final report of each committee. They later worked out cooperatively the format of the final report, including an evaluation sheet for rating the work of each committee.

Step 3. After they received replies from the various travel agencies, the students studied the specific information for the two trips. Finally, each group was ready to make its decision as to methods of travel and the final details of the trip. One student chose the responsibility of handling library research on the climatic conditions en route and at the destination and reported to his group. Another student drafted the letters for the hotel and travel reservations and had them approved by the group. Another investigated the ways of carrying money on the journey. He called on the local banker and had an interesting conference; later, he explained to his committee the possible ways of carrying money and the reasons for his selections.

Step 4. As each student reported his findings and gave his recommendations, the secretary of that group kept a record of the group's decisions and typed them for the final report.

In other words, each member of the two committees secured and organized some data of information which he shared with his group. The teacher attended as many of the scheduled committee discussions as possible; when unable to do this, she secured reports of the proceedings from the secretaries.

The teacher met with . . . difficulties in evaluating the students' work at the end of the unit. She used three types of evaluation. First, she let the two committees evaluate one another's reports on a form worked out cooperatively at the beginning of the unit.

Second, the teacher herself evaluated the relationships and workings of the committees, making an oral summary of the strong and weak points observed.

Third, she evaluated the individuals on what they learned about "Travel and itineraries" by means of a written objective examination.

The teacher felt that these three means of evaluation did not adequately measure the learning of the students,—that many learnings appear vague but actually are very real in the lives of the students. . . .
Although teaching this unit with the committee method took longer, it cannot be overlooked that, in addition to learning specific information, students developed skill in working harmoniously with other students of varying interests and abilities.

The teacher found that organizing and teaching a class by the committee-organization method took considerably more planning than the usual method—she found a lack of textbook material to guide her; she needed more leadership qualities, enthusiasm, ability to organize, ability to guide, and patience.\(^{13}\)

Student Participation in Units of Instruction in General Business

**Insurance.** In discussing student participation in an insurance unit in a general business class at **London High School, London, Ohio,** Wells says:

In one ninth grade general business class, there were four farm boys who were very poor readers and as a result very slow to learn from the textbook. However, during an insurance unit conducted by the group project method, these boys organized around the problem of insurance needed on the farm. They made a complete study of all insurance needs and drew up a model plan for a typical farm and farm family. They investigated and understood the need for and cost of property insurance, animal insurance, crop insurance, auto insurance, fire insurance, liability to the public and to hired help. To do this they interviewed local insurance men, read pamphlets, talked with their parents and neighbors. From these last sources they obtained actual experiences and examples of the risks about which they had been studying.

The boys prepared a large drawing of a model farm showing things to be insured and a summary showing yearly cost. They held a discussion in front of the class explaining why they needed each kind and amount of insurance. The actual experiences they had heard about were brought out in this discussion. These boys, who in an ordinary class had great difficulty in reciting, made one of the best group presentations in the class and gained

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In discussing different approaches to the teaching of general business, Curtis says:

Let us consider our insurance illustration in the light of the experimental procedure. The class would be considering insurance because the teacher considers insurance necessary information for each individual in the class. How the class will approach the study of insurance will depend on the past experiences of the teacher combined with the interests of the class, with neither one holding a dominant role. The method of presentation may be the same as last year or entirely different.

Mary's father may be an insurance agent. The class members may agree to have him talk on life insurance. All class members will read the insurance unit in the text so that they may know the kinds of insurance, coverage, and general principles applicable to specific kinds of insurance. The teacher may find it necessary to suggest procedures for covering the unit if students do not find broad enough coverage of the material being considered. Johnny may decide that the legal aspects of insurance, automobile insurance for example, are important. He will look up information on the legal aspects of insurance in the school library and discuss his findings with his parents at home. He will talk with an insurance agent, a lawyer, or with the policeman on the beat. From the school and community he will secure the information he wants for his topic.15

In outlining a procedure for the teaching of a unit of insurance in a basic business course, Klaus says:

Secure information which students have relative to insurance.

... 

Discuss the meaning of insurance. Why insurance is a must in today's economy.

Organize questions raised relative to various insurance programs.


How can we find the answer to these questions? Students will list sources of information about which they know.

Organize class into committees, with each committee responsible for information about one major classification; sub-committees to discover information about classes of insurance within the single classification.

Begin study by having available information within the school listed for research.

The committees will meet to ascertain what questions must be answered; what they can find in school; where to go for additional information.

Following research, committees will decide on how information shall be presented to class, what information will be available to each student.

(Careful pre-planning on the part of instructor will make or break a program of this kind. If information is available to motivate students, they will take hold and work out a program which is both interesting and informative.)

Money and banking. In discussing the development of a unit on money and banking in a general business class at Aquinas Hall High School, Bronx, New York, Sister Virginia says:

... let's look at an outline for "Money and Banking Unit," and see how the pupil-activity method lends itself to a topic that is typical to all introduction-to-business courses.

FIRST DAY. Available materials are on display in the classroom. Students examine materials, talk about them, ask questions about them, contribute comments based on personal experiences. Teacher stimulates interest, gets students to assign a particular name to the unit (Example: "Dollars and Sense"), and instructs them to bring in any related materials to which they have access.

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As the discussion evolves, list on the blackboard the two main divisions of the unit and the topics under each. Suggestive list:

A. Money
   - How it started
   - Kinds of money
   - Handling money
   - Substitutes

B. Banking:
   - How it started
   - Kinds of banks
   - Bank services
   - Bank officers

Divide the class into two groups, and have class designate two group leaders. Leaders divide class into teams (committees), each of which will take one topic for research and future report.

SECOND DAY. Students show the new materials they have brought in, explain them, and discuss their uses, and so on. Committee groups organize formally and, referring to textbooks and supplementary aids, plan their investigations. Teacher may meet with leaders and chairmen.

THIRD DAY. Committees meet for group work. Teacher spends a few minutes with each group. Chairman assign dates for individual reports, and committees outline the committee project. Teacher enumerates special projects that individuals may undertake independent of their committees for extra credit.

OTHER DAYS. During the rest of the time apportioned to this unit (about three weeks), each committee reports in turn with group leader acting as chairman. Class takes notes, offers additional information, makes constructive criticism, evaluates each speaker, and constantly uses the textbook as a check-reference on the accuracy of reports.

The individual and any special group projects (the dramatization, for example) culminate the study.17

In discussing the potentialities of classroom observation as a part of an in-service training program for teachers, Peck describes one such classroom visitation:

In each case, visiting teachers were seated in an unobtrusive location before the students arrived. In one case there was evidence that the class had been doing work relative to different

types of business. In one corner was a miniature grocery store, in another was a reproduction of a small cotton farm, and near the door was a miniature oil field. A chart was on display which showed the interdependency of one business or industry upon another. Shortly after the lesson began the visiting teachers realized that the displays around the room were not representative of the lesson being taught but of a previous lesson. The subject being considered that day was money and bank service.

A young man, as chairman of the research committee on money and bank service, gave an excellent report on the history of money, together with his sources of information. His report stimulated many questions and brought out considerable information, such as a list of the different materials that have been used as media of exchange and why these materials were used. Another member of the committee brought old coins borrowed from an uncle who had quite a large collection.

Another report was given by a young lady who compared the visit the class had made the day before to a small local bank with a conducted visit she had previously made to a national bank while in a large city.

A young man suggested to the class that they might include a visit to the large city bank in their plans for a spring visit to that city. The class president was instructed to write the president of the bank for permission for the visit and to make the necessary arrangements. The teacher said she would be pleased to accompany the group on the tour.

Another young man, who had secured from the local bank a sample signature card for each member of the class, reviewed the necessity for having official signature cards for each depositor. A young lady suggested that since there was no available space for a bank display, the farm display be taken down and a bank be set up in its place. A committee was named to plan the display and report to the class at the next meeting, after which officers of the bank would be elected.

Another young lady reminded the group that before they could use the services of a bank it was necessary to know something about writing checks, whereupon several blank checks were given to each member of the class, and they were given instructions concerning the information needed for each blank line.

At the close of the class the boys and girls showed considerable interest in the new bank that was to be organized the next day. They were thinking of a name for the bank, the amount of its capital, the number and qualifications of its officers, the best available
location, how many departments it should have, the functions of each
department, and other points of emphasis.18

Transportation. In describing a unit on transportation which was
developed in a general business class at Waller High School, Chicago,
Illinois, Freeman says:

Like most of my fellow business training teachers, I have tried
to do a conscientious job. Prescribed units have been adequately
discussed and reviewed. Devices for increasing the rate and quality
of production have not been lacking. Minimum and maximum requirements
have been set up, daily reports examined, and individual progress
charts have been meticulously kept. Yet, the results that I obtained
for the most part indicated that there was much truth to the story
of the boy who wrote "I did it" one hundred times and then, upon
completion said, "Teacher, I done my work and went home." The prob-
lem then was to find some way through which the business training
student could integrate the units of transportation, communication,
finance and merchandising into a meaningful life situation.

I began to explore the possibilities with the unit on trans-
portation. "If you were granted your wish to go somewhere, where
would you go and why would you go and why would you go th e re ?" I
asked. The answers ranged all the way from the small towns of
Albion, Illinois, and Globe, Arizona, to the big cities of New York
and San Francisco. This trend of thought started us off on a pro-
ject entitled "Planning a Trip to the City of My Desire."

As a natural outgrowth of this central idea, the following ques-
tions had to be answered:

(1) How much money could the student set aside for the trip?

(2) What would the trip cost by (a) private car, (b) bus,
(c) train, (d) plane, or (e) boat?

(3) What additional expenses must be considered besides the fare?
(Food, lodging while on the road, possible repairs if the trip is
to be undertaken by private car.)

(4) What expenses might the individual incur after he has reached
his destination?

18 Gladys Peck, "In-Service Observations for Basic Business
(5) What type of clothing and how much of it should the individual plan to take along? Will that involve an additional expense, and if so how much?

(6) What itinerary has the student planned for spending his time after he arrives at his destination?

(7) At the present rate of saving, when could the individual make his plan a reality?

(8) How could he organize the data he must gather in order to use it most effectively?

To solve these questions the students proceeded to:

(1) Keep personal income and expense budgets based on actual amounts received and spent.

(2) Write, call, or visit appropriate agencies, such as railroad offices, travel bureaus, and chambers of commerce for information.

(3) Gather facts from encyclopedias, almanacs, current periodicals, and visual materials.

(4) Organize and file the data gathered in conformity with proper business filing procedures so that it would be available when needed.

(5) Write daily progress reports for the instructor to examine.

In the main, both the tangible and intangible outcomes that I had hoped for were realized:

(1) The students learned to be exacting in respect to both form and content in budget making. The budgets that they prepared encouraged habits of thrift and foresight, and in many cases the entire family considered the making of the student's budget a family project.

(2) Each student demonstrated evidence of a growing ability to express himself effectively in written communication.

(3) In every case the students showed an increased ability in the collection, organization, and analysis of materials from various reference sources.

(4) In almost every case there was a desire to actually carry out the plan that each had made.
(5) All the students had a greater awareness of the gigantic, efficient, and courteous nature of industry and looked forward with eagerness to an active participation in the business world.

The results of our first project, which brought life to the business training classes, was so gratifying that I started another entitled "Your Life's Work." To date the class as a whole has demonstrated a remarkable carry-over in its ability to write letters, make calls, search out materials, organize data and make use of the knowledge accumulated. I am at last convinced that there is a way to make learning meaningful and to make the learner anxious to do the learning.19

In discussing the creating of a proper classroom atmosphere, Harms says:

. . . "I thought your class was working on insurance," said a visitor to the teacher in charge. "Why then do you have all this display about transportation?" The explanation was that the class was finishing up insurance and that the transportation atmosphere was the work of the committee on transportation, whose duty it was to get the class ready for the new unit beginning Monday . . .

Thus, long before the unit is officially opened, the classroom gradually begins to take on the appearance of a workshop in transportation. The mood is created and the students become travel minded, they are on the lookout for materials, and they scan the newspapers. . .20

Communications. In describing a unit on communications which was developed in a general business class at Milby High School, Houston, Texas, Seufer says:

Businessmen are asking for workers who have the ability to adjust to new situations, who can get along with their co-workers, who will accept responsibility and who are willing to begin "at the bottom" with the skill tools they have acquired in high school. . . Let


us give pupils an opportunity to improve their personal competence, to look upon the successful completion of a job as their own personal responsibility, and to work cooperatively with one another to that end.

The basic business subjects lend themselves particularly well to group dynamics. Let us look at the group process as it occurred in a general business class which was about to embark upon a study of communications. First, the class discussed the types of communication systems used listing them on the board as the discussion progressed. Five groups evolved out of this discussion: mail, telephone, telegraph, radio and television. It so happened that during this unit, the class decided that instead of choosing the group they wished to work with, they would draw for membership. There were thirty students, six members to a group. One student who had hesitated to speak up when the method for choosing was being discussed, drew the mail committee. He had been working on a radio set in shop class and stated that he felt he would be of more use to the radio group; another person wanted to change to the telephone committee because her father worked for the telephone company, so after a little shuffling, everyone was satisfied with his group role.

... Our resource person (the one who checks the film list, the library and the community for reference material with which the groups can begin working) found two films which he thought would be of interest to the class on communication, so these films introduced the unit. After reading the textbook material, checking the libraries' reference material, and making trips into the community for material, we set about preparing reports for the class. The teacher works with each group as he is needed for advising, assisting in preparation, discussing individual and group problems as they arise.

The following projects grew out of the investigation:

1. A report on occupations in communication.

2. A trip to the telephone company, which was planned and carried out by the telephone committee.

3. A tape recorded skit on the right and wrong way to use the telephone, how to place long distance calls, etc.

4. A blackboard-size poster showing the various types of telegraph services, purposes and costs and another showing how to figure the cost of a telegram.

5. The mail committee presented various letter forms and envelopes to the class as well as postal regulations, rates, etc. At the end
of the report they tested the group on its ability to name the parts of a business letter. It may be interesting to note here that the class failed in the student-administered test, so requested permission to relearn and be retested.

6. The radio committee put on a skit on the history of radio, with the crystal set and all (one of the group had done some attic scouting).

7. The TV committee made a report on our city's TV setup as well as recommendations from Consumer's Union Report on various sets.

8. The final project was a trip to one of the local radio stations during which some of the pupils participated in one of the radio programs. . . .

Almost four weeks expired from the beginning of the unit on communication until the final report was finished and individual's grades computed (the students and teacher agreed on the letter grade given). Some may think this a waste of time, but if the skeptic could have observed the enthusiasm during the project, the cooperation within the groups, the subject matter which they learned, their evaluations, he would agree that the time was well spent. 21

**Consumer credit.** In discussing the development of a unit on consumer credit in a general business class at Withrow High School, Cincinnati, Ohio, Bahr says:

... Whatever the unit to be studied, it is sure to contain divisions. I let each pupil choose the committee in which he is interested. Each committee selects a chairman. I usually require two reports: one, an individual file or notebook for each pupil; and the other, an oral report given by the entire committee.

As an example, in studying "consumer credit," seven committees can be formed in the average class; each to deal with one of these topics: (1) charge accounts, (2) installment sales, (3) borrowing from banks, (4) borrowing from small loan companies, (5) borrowing from credit unions, (6) borrowing from pawnbrokers, and (7) borrowing from unlicensed lenders. Each member of the class may, in order to complete his individual file, read materials other than his text,
may outline references, may prepare a bibliography, may collect business forms and advertisements, may visit business houses, and/or may talk to relatives and friends about credit and write up these contacts. It is obvious that such activity needs the whole person—mentally, physically, and emotionally.

After a week or so of preparation, each committee gives its oral report, devoting most or all of a class period to informing other members about its findings. These reports vary as to form: panels, debates, dramatizations, imitations of radio programs, and so on. The students often need and provide charts, tests, and duplicated material, to emphasize important facts and concepts. Working on a committee fosters co-operation, participation, and originality. Pupils become enthusiastic when they find that they are responsible for the lesson, for they get not only a grade reward for their individual accomplishments, but also a sense of accomplishment and gratification.22

**Current events.** In suggesting methods of teaching basic business education, Bahr says:

> ... Classes must be kept up to date by means of current newspapers and magazines.
> ![](images

> In a year's time sufficient copies of Bread and Butter weekly are available for each member of the class. After skimming through his copy, the student decides what topic seems most interesting to him. Then the class can be divided into groups, each group to talk over its selected topics which might be price control, production of goods, or extension of consumer services, etc. The teacher goes from group to group as an adviser. Each group has a discussion leader who directs the thought on the topic while the secretary records the conclusions reached. All this can be done in a period and no more time need be given unless the students should wish to read their conclusions to all the class the next day.

Current topics can always be handled in a panel discussion or in "town meeting" form ...23

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In suggesting projects for an advanced general business course,
Douglas says:

Arrange "Business in the news" reports. A student committee
could take this as a continuing project. Individual pupils could
be given credit for bringing current items to the attention of
the committee. Brief weekly reports could be given, either orally
or through duplication. Also, pertinent items should be filed
according to the unit of study to which they most nearly relate
and then presented by the committee for added interest at the time
the unit is being studied by the entire class. Also, clippings
could be posted on the classroom bulletin board from day to day. 24

Student Participation in Units of Instruction in Consumer Education

Introductory unit. In suggesting a possible way for developing
a unit in consumer education, Wilhelms says:

On the first day we set in motion one kind of experience. Each
student was asked to start immediately a record of his spending,
and to continue the record for a month. Anyone's record, we empha-
size, will be kept as confidential as he wishes for the experience
itself is the eye-opener we chiefly want. Even if, later, a few
hang back from free discussion of their financial affairs, there
will be plenty of excited "talkers" for our purposes.

This activity appeals so keenly to most pupils that in a few
days they will be trading discoveries about their own habits. Still,
even though motivation is no problem, it may be well at the outset
to introduce some idea of the significance of such records. Adoles-
cents are idealists, with great hopes and great fears, with dream-
plans of what they will do when they earn their own living. They
want to make good homes, to succeed in life. Without preaching, we
can build confidence that they can learn good money management and
that it will help them get more of whatever they most want. Every
budgeteer and every financial counsellor knows that records of past
spending are the first essential to future planning.

But we should not be too serious. Nothing makes people avoid
budgeting and all that goes with it so much as the fear that it

24Lloyd V. Douglas, "Teaching Methodology for Advanced Business
threatens our pet follies, takes the joy out of life. So let's per-
mits this thing to be fun. And, to avoid any feeling that each per-
son's spending should fit some standard pattern, let's not even
suggest any of the usual classifications of spending. Just let each
pupil jot down his expenditures as they come, while we go on about
other matters. . . .

On the second day we activate another kind of experience—this
time in buymanship. It may take the remainder of the week to get it
going with full comprehension and shared purpose.

Let’s ease into it by stimulating the group to talk about things
they and their parents have bought or hope to buy. Though it may
seem a bit time-consuming at first, it will pay to encourage free
discussion of past successes and blunders. We'll probably unearth
some real stories. With a little judicious nudging, the class will
begin to analyze reasons why some purchases have given great satis-
faction while others are almost painful to recall. They can easily
see (with quiet help) what it would mean if all their purchases
yielded dividends like their "best buys"—and how their standards
of living would suffer if they often bought badly. They can even
begin to tease out some of the underlying factors which cause the
modern American consumer to have unique problems, as well as unique
opportunities, when he goes down into the market place with his
money.

However, let’s move on rapidly and find out what they should
learn to buy. With reasonable luck we should soon identify three
or four lines of goods or services that are of central interest
to the entire class, or to large segments of it. These will form
the basis of group projects in shopping. Of course, we shall try
to help them settle on commodities which are not only of interest
right now, but also reasonably important in the budget, and diffi-
cult enough in purchasing to raise a real challenge. We do not
wish to force them toward purely adult concerns, but neither shall
we idle away their time with trivia such as soft drinks.

It generally pays to agree upon a reasonable delimitation of
subject matter. For a group of girls, "Buying School Dresses and
Coats" is probably a better problem than one which includes all
kinds of clothes. Similarly "Buying Canned Fruits and Vegetables"
is likely to work better than "Buying Foods." Even within such
narrowed areas there is room for considerable choice by individuals.
As teachers we need to remember that comprehensive coverage of all
goods is impossible anyway, and a penetrating treatment of a few
examples is better than a skimpy survey of many.

Suppose, now, that the class has divided into four groups, each
setting out to study the buying of one type of goods. What sort
of target shall we set for them? . . .
Each pupil will tend to become unduly pre-occupied with the details of his own project as an end in itself—to see picking the "best buy" in his field as the paramount thing. Therefore an important part of our job is to keep his view of the matter in better perspective. Without playing down the importance of his first-hand investigation, we must help him see it as a laboratory experience aimed at something much more basic. For our aim is nothing less than to teach a generalized process of effective shopping and buying.

To secure maximum transfer from the specific to the general, we must help pupils to understand the elements which are universal in all good shopping.

Although in a few sentences we have already peeked further ahead, let's assume that it is now the end of the first week. We have set in motion two kinds of experiences. The first, involving a month's records, cannot be ready for another three weeks. Even the speediest shopping-project group cannot turn in a report before another week. The project work need not take a great deal of time, and much of it can best be done outside school hours. This leaves us an intervening week or so, which can be used in any of a number of ways. But let's skip it and assume that the first group's report—on clothing, perhaps—is ready for harvest during a couple of periods.

What happens now depends only upon how much the students' imaginations have been stirred. There can easily be exhibits of advertisements and labels, with discussions of how to use them. Swatches of materials of various fibers and weaves can be displayed, with pointers on durability, washability, shrink-proofness, color-fastness, and the like. Stories of the group's experiences in stores can be analyzed for buymanship guides. One boy, acting as clerk, can sell another a sports jacket, with the whole class as kibitzers of the buyer's technique. A girl can demonstrate how to inspect a dress for workmanship. The group as a whole can present a duplicated dictionary of important trade words.

The possibilities are endless, selection is the only problem. Interest will run high. And through it all we, as teachers, can bring into high relief the elements of fundamental importance. Our opportunities to do so will be plentiful, for discussion will drift naturally to the persisting problems. There will arise questions of values, involving not buymanship but one's goals and one's philosophy of life. Nothing is more truly important in consumer education. Other problems will cry for some understanding of our economic system and of economic principles, or will require realistic judgment as to the proper functions of a democratic government. How far we can explore these problems is a question of time. There is no question but that consumer education gives us wonderful opportunities to do so.
By the time we have gone through several such reports, with free discussion as questions arise, practically every matter of general importance to shoppers will have come up in a natural, functional setting. The youngsters will have learned much about the particular goods discussed. More important, they will have acquired, in some measure, a new way of looking at the whole process of shopping and buying in general. In their minds there will have begun to form some picture of how wise consumers make their basic choices and of how smart shoppers seek out values. And, perhaps most important, their active participation in the whole experience will inevitably have riveted something of their learnings into their permanent habits. . . .

By this time the month's buying record will be ready. New vistas of possibilities open up, too full to be described in detail. First, certainly, we shall simply discuss what the records show, keeping a non-moralistic tone. Then a little philosophy may enter in: Is what they are apparently getting for their money really what they most want? Are they getting as much as they could? Perhaps the atmosphere will be right for a little friendly work on budgeting. (But let's be careful not to press our luck.)

Rather easily, if we wish, a transfer can be made over to family spending and money management. We shall find many of these adolescents more concerned than we expect about problems of insurance, credit, and the like. . . .

But this is not the place to discuss all the superstructure which can be built upon the two key experiences our group has had. Good teachers will know how to keep building toward higher and higher levels. What I have tried to show is that even with little time, we can, through a few basic experiences, achieve real depth of insight, and enough genuine impact to change attitudes and habits. 25

Reading the label. In discussing the teaching of consumer education, Price says:

... The students themselves should be given an opportunity to plan some of the units. One of the most interesting units in consumer education which I have ever taught was planned by a high school class.

A week before the new unit, Reading the Label, was to be introduced a committee of five was appointed to plan the unit. After the first meeting of the committee, the chairman announced to the class that he would like them to save all labels from anything which was bought by any member of the family during the ensuing week. Each label was to be pasted on a separate sheet of notebook paper with the name of the article from which the label was taken, written underneath the label. Each student was also to write his name on the sheet in order that it could be later returned to him to be placed in his notebook. On the first day of our study of labels, I was surprised to find that my room resembled a grocery store rather than a classroom. One member of the committee assigned to plan the unit was the son of a local store owner who, at the request of his son, had sent his delivery truck to school laden with merchandise.

The committee instructed the class to examine the labels on the merchandise and to make notes as to the information available which would be of definite aid in helping the buyer. Notes were also to be made as to information omitted from the label which they felt was needed in order to assist the buyer.

After the labels on the merchandise itself were carefully examined, and this took two days, the labels from the class, which had been submitted to the committee, were passed around. These labels had been sorted as to hosiery, sheets, dresses, shirts, patent medicines, etc. From this first-hand experience with labels the discussion in the text was made real and meaningful, and the pupils already had some very definite ideas regarding the need for more informative labeling and also had discovered that there were certain things which could always be found on food labels.26

Agencies that help the consumer. In discussing the development of a unit on agencies that help the consumer in a consumer education class at Vandalia Community High School, Vandalia, Illinois, Barr says:

The pupil committee technique is one successful means to learn about the agencies that help the consumer. . . .

In the committee method the pupils may obtain general information about the number and type of agencies from their basic business

or consumer education textbooks, and classroom or school library pamphlets and books. At a meeting of the committee each member chooses the one or two agencies in which he is especially interested. Then, he conducts a personal survey by means of further library study, by letters written to the home office of the agency, by a call on the representative of the agency in his community, or by a visit to the agency itself—all depending on the opportunity provided in that particular town or city.

The presentation of the material to the class may be effectively presented by using as a basis a take-off on a Hollywood award or talent scout type of radio or television show.

This group technique helps the members of the committee greatly for it provides opportunity for industry, originality, competition, and responsibility. Each member has chosen the agency in which he was interested and which provided for individual differences in subject matter and in activity.

By using an oral committee report the members of the class learn in a brief period a great deal more about the agencies that help the consumer because it has been presented by their classmates in a style to which they are accustomed in this era of radio and television.

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Student Participation in Units of Instruction in Business Law

As a result of a field trip to a penitentiary and a wave of stories in the newspapers about juvenile delinquency, the business law class at Senior High School, White Plains, New York, decided to make a nation-wide survey of juvenile delinquency. In a report of this activity by the students, they say:

After returning to school, we discussed at length our visit to the penitentiary. Coincidentally with our visit, there appeared in the press throughout the country countless stories about delinquent "teen-age" boys and girls. We actually clipped from

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newspapers hundreds of these stories.

Our further discussion provoked the conclusion that we could not accept all these stories and rumors as factual, and we decided as a group of "teen-agers" to look for actual facts and to ascertain as authoritatively as possible the true over-all picture concerning juvenile delinquency in our great democracy.

We found, as we had earlier believed, that all the responsibility could not be rightfully placed on the homes throughout America. . . .

We believed that there were many other related factors. We felt that our study should include the schools, the churches, the homes, recreation facilities, and environments of young people. We were unanimous in the thought that we should keep ourselves interested in the curative aspects, but more particularly try to ascertain the preventive aspects of the problem. Our chief aim has been not what to do with a young person when he first becomes a delinquent, but how to keep him from ever becoming a delinquent.

We felt that we could rely on our citizens and residents, "teen-agers" as well as adults, to help us. The response we received from those we visited and interviewed—school heads, police department personnel, recreation heads, members of the clergy, outstanding heads of families, and young people themselves—was most generous and helpful.

We have appeared before church groups, service clubs, and other organizations. These good people have listened to us and have encouraged us in the study we were making. Our most notable experience was our invitation to attend, in a body, the June meeting of the Common Council of White Plains, New York. Our mayor, Honorable Chauncy T. S. Fish, welcomed us. The regular business of the Council was suspended in order to give us time to present an oral report on our project of juvenile delinquency. . . .

. . . Our recommendation to the Common Council was the creation of a youth center under the Department of Recreation. . . . The Council assured us that consideration would be given to our proposal.

Since we could not find accurate over-all statistics on the subject of juvenile delinquency, we concluded that we should set about digging here and there for actual facts. While much data had been gathered, and while much of what we could use reliably seemed to indicate a trend showing an increase in juvenile delinquency, we felt that these data were not sufficiently reliable for
survey and project purposes. It was this fact that prompted the idea that a personally typed letter to each of our forty-eight state governors might bring us much factual information and give us a more accurate over-all picture of the problem. We did send such a letter to our governors. Their response to it was splendid...

The splendid answers to the questions in our letters of inquiry gave us the constructive information we wanted...28

In describing a project in a business law class at Lane High School, Brooklyn, New York, Rosenblum says:

The treasure hunt in Law requires preliminary preparation by teacher, librarian, and pupils. The objectives and procedures must be clarified through the teacher's basic plans.

The teacher's preparation consists of co-operative planning, first with the pupils and then with the librarian. The teacher examines the library material available for each topic, adds some of his own, and arranges for its use. To guide the pupils in their research, mimeographed outlines are prepared.

The pupils' preparation begins with a general discussion of questions in law submitted by students. These are grouped under major captions. Sources of information are suggested by pupils and teachers. Students volunteer to study the topics that interest them.

In some classes, committees of two or three pupils work together. In other classes, each topic is handled by one student working independently. The class is prepared by its law teacher for a library lesson on research techniques.

The librarian's preparation starts with the assembling of the necessary locational materials. These will later be examined by the pupils in their preliminary search for appropriate references. This aspect of the treasure hunt is directed by the librarian in her explanation of the use of basic references such as the Readers' Guide; card catalogues; encyclopedias; and, in our school, the New York Times index.

If the students are properly briefed, they will leave the library classroom with the enthusiasm of treasure-seekers eager to explore

their chosen trails. The effectiveness of adequate motivation then becomes apparent in the intense absorption of each pupil in his task. This enthusiasm at work results from a natural sense of curiosity combined with the pleasure of self-satisfaction derived from satisfying that curiosity.

Initiative and originality are fostered in the preparation of the reports. Each pupil determines the form of his report and the media to be used.

Most pupils prepare a folder. More ingenious pupils use posters or dramatizations in presenting their reports. Some use a tape recorder to submit a case problem. Still others rely on a panel discussion. In one class, a pupil gave a piano recital to demonstrate plagiarism in music. In another class, a pupil accomplished this by the use of phonograph records.

Our project developed tangible skills and intangible traits. In exploring and discovering new sources of knowledge, research skills were developed. Enthusiasm was generated in accepting a challenging problem and seeing it through to its ultimate solution.

Student Participation in Units of Instruction in Economic Geography

What science and invention have done for the clothing industries.

In describing a unit of instruction in economic geography conducted in a school in Baltimore County, Maryland, Greene says:

A visitor coming into the new economic-geography class at our school would probably be startled at the informal gathering we represent—entirely different from the geography class of a decade or two ago.

The pupils know, when they enter the room, that they are going to be free to work together, to discuss common problems, and to plan

activities. They talk over things with their neighbors and have the privilege of moving about the room. The desks are arranged in groups to facilitate committee work.

A typical classroom activity is one recently completed from a unit of work on the clothing industry. The class was divided into four committees in order to study the topic, "What science and invention have done for the clothing industries." A description of the work of one committee will explain our procedures.

Committee I made a study of the effects of machinery on the industries providing textiles. This committee studied the inventions of Arkwright, Crompton, and Hargreaves; the use of steam, water, and electrical power for textile manufacturing; and the cotton-planting and cotton-picking machines, which the Rust brothers, of Texas, recently introduced into their own state and also into Russia.

From the store of reference material available in the classroom at all times, pupils read widely for background and then compiled the data in outline form.

A member of the committee was chosen to prepare a report on the material and present it to the class. Appropriate illustrative materials, such as pictures of machinery and of manufacturing plants, were prepared. The report was first presented to the committee for criticisms and suggestions. These were incorporated by the committee-man chosen to talk, and the report was then presented to the class.

An important phase of the work is the discussion that follows reports. This discussion is very democratic in that it gives each pupil a chance to state his opinions freely, to add additional information, to raise questions, and otherwise to exchange ideas with the rest of the class.

In addition to committee reports there are other activities. For example, each pupil may, if he likes, choose to do a piece of original work relating to the unit. One boy, in the unit on the clothing industry, made a model of a primitive loom and demonstrated its operation to the class. Generally, there is also some kind of continuing activity, which runs throughout the unit. For several weeks the students worked on a textile or clothing scrapbook, which created much interest among the members of the group. The pupils were interested in the work done by their companions, as well as in the scrapbooks they themselves planned and produced.30

The economic value of the Great Lakes. In describing a unit of instruction in economic geography at New Rochelle High School, New Rochelle, New York, Cole says:

In preparation for the commencement of class work on the unit called "The Economic Value of the Great Lakes," the teacher assembled as many as possible of the materials which the class might need to complete the unit. These included reference books, addresses where pupils might write for other information, specimens or samples, pictures of the region, lantern slides, and other visual aids in teaching the subject.

On the day when the subject was to be presented to the class for the first time, the teacher prepared an exhibit, including a display of travel pictures of the Great Lakes, grain elevators, grain boats, locks at St. Mary's Falls Canal, Welland Canal, freight steamer unloading coal at Duluth Harbor, car ferries, newspaper clippings about commerce on the Great Lakes, etc. When the class assembled, the exhibit on the board was noticed at once, and the class began to ask all sorts of questions about these pictures. Some of the students expressed the desire to study about the Great Lakes and find out what value they were to us. The rest of the class expressed the same wish and they were eager to start on the work at once.

The teacher took this opportunity to do some exploration and asked questions to find out what the class already knew about the Great Lakes and the surrounding area--such as the names and relative sizes of the lakes, their location, commercial relation with Canada, type of freight carried on the lakes, etc. Several students had taken trips on the Great Lakes or to cities on the lakes and were eager to relate what they had observed, while all were anxious to make a study of the region, for they felt that the subject had a definite value for them.

. . . At the beginning of each term, the class elects class officers, consisting of president, vice-president, secretary, and assistant secretary. They assist, advise and help direct class activities through the term. At this time, they helped divide the class into groups for group study. It was found advisable to change the topics assigned to a few students to subjects which were better suited to their interests--or sometimes during a supervised study period, a student would come across a new problem which he would want to solve and present to the class. However, in each case, the pupils were led to see the end to be attained and its value to them. The chairman of each group made further
assignments. Some members of a group made graphs to show a comparison of tonnage going through the "Soo" Canal and through the Panama and Suez canals during a given period, or monthly wheat shipments at Duluth and Superior, etc.; others made maps showing the origin of grain received at the upper lake ports, movements of iron ore from the iron ranges to upper and lower lake ports in a certain year, etc. Some students wrote to certain companies for further information and for samples of their products which were produced or manufactured in the lake region. One student wrote to the Chambers of Commerce of the principal lake port cities, such as Duluth, Superior, Chicago, Detroit, Buffalo, and Milwaukee, and received much valuable information from them about their resources, industries, imports, exports, commerce on the Great Lakes, etc.

The class president led a discussion on the main points which were brought out in the reports to show the economic value of the Great Lakes, not only to us but also to Canada. He made a summary of the most important facts and these were supplemented by the teacher.

... At that time, a request was made by a student to have a debate on the subject, "The deepening of the St. Lawrence River would be an economic advantage to the United States." The entire class was enthusiastic, so the request was granted. Sides were taken and speakers chosen. Through group work the debate was organized in a short time, and so much real interest was shown that it proved very worth while.

The study of the "Economic Value of the Great Lakes" proved to be one of the "Red Letter" lessons of the term. The pupil-interest, enthusiasm and activity in this subject made the learning very fruitful to them and they acquired information which they were able to correlate with other subjects which they were taking. They also accumulated materials which could be used in other geography lessons. If the value of this work to the students were judged by their interest and activity, it was decidedly worth while for them.31

The animal industries. In explaining a unit in economic geography, Einolf says:

To avoid misunderstanding it must be emphasized at once that subject-matter mastery in so many areas of knowledge is not a prerequisite for teaching the unit, nor should subject-matter mastery on the part of the learner be made one of its objectives. Emphasis upon subject matter would, more likely than not, tend to defeat the central purpose of the unit by directing attention, instead, to the memorization of highly specialized knowledge disassociated from the actual needs and purposes of either teacher or learner. It is, in short, one of the purposes of the unit to demonstrate how knowledge, understandings, and appreciations from many sources can be related and interrelated to the end that the learner may develop socially desirable behavior patterns, which, in reality, are the external manifestations of generalizations and conclusions reached through meaningful experiences and activities, both personal and vicarious. In summary, the philosophy of education demonstrated in the unit is essentially that, for many secondary-school students, general business education, in the best and broadest sense of the term, must be generalized from experience and not subject-matter mastery for subsequent experience.

The learning activities have been planned to appeal to a wide variety of personal, social, and specialized needs, purposes, and interests. Obviously, no one student will have time for, need for, or interest in all of the activities. Choice of activities must therefore be dictated not by teacher preference and convenience but by the learner's social and personal needs, purposes, and interests. Obviously, too, whenever the learner gives evidence of ability to substitute an appropriate activity of his own planning, democratic classroom procedure and sound educational psychology both demand that he be permitted to do so. If, moreover, the teacher encourages the learner to express himself through whatever medium is best for him (drawings, cartoons, graphs, diagrams, essays, reports, recitations, discussions), much will also have been done to simplify the task of evaluation.

Opportunities for collateral activities through which to achieve concomitant learnings are practically limitless. A few illustrations will suffice. As was mentioned earlier, the bibliography of the unit is not all-inclusive by any means. To omit items from the learner's bibliography is, in fact, an important teaching aid, since it paves the way for a variety of collateral learning experiences which, if carefully handled, should result in highly desirable concomitant learnings. For example, even though educational materials are available from several of the meat-packing companies, only those from one of the companies were included in the bibliography. The apparent omission creates a lifelike situation requiring a bit of investigating and letter-writing in order that additional materials may be on hand when needed. Individuals or small committees may, accordingly, be encouraged to assume
responsibility, early in the work of the unit, for securing pertinent bulletins and pamphlets from the educational departments of such firms as Wilson and Company, Armour and Company, and the Cudahy Packing Company. Obviously, the collateral activity, namely, the writing of a letter in a meaningful, lifelike situation, provides opportunity for growth in the ability to use language and the means of communication for achieving one’s purposes—a concomitant learning no less significant than the information gleaned from the bulletins or pamphlets themselves. Other similar activities suggest themselves at once. Such collateral activities, for example as discussing problems with competent individuals in the community, assuming responsibility for an interview with someone who might be willing to lead a class discussion, participating in community activities on one’s own initiative, assuming responsibility for an interview in preparation for a field trip, assisting other students with their activities, and assuming leadership responsibilities during the progress of the unit are all freighted with unexcelled opportunity for highly desirable concomitant learnings which, when exercised repeatedly in lifelike situations, should eventually emerge as useful tools, special abilities, and permanent traits of mental life.32

II. STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN CLASS, COMMITTEE, AND INDIVIDUAL PROJECTS

Field Trips

Business education in general. In discussing the values of field trips for business students, Hedman says:

... Planning the field trip is a student activity, teacher-guided. The entire preparation must be made in an organized, systematic manner. This method of approach develops the students’ technique of organization.

Preparation for a field trip also includes study and discussion of available literature on the project, and a formulation of the purposes and objectives of the trip. Some students should be assigned as spokesmen for the group. They can prepare certain questions in advance, and be on the alert to develop others as the

trip progresses. The group can be divided into specific committees with certain assignments to each.

Making arrangement for the field trip is a part of the students' experience. A student committee should be appointed to call on an officer of the business firm and make the request for the class to tour his office. This procedure gives the student the experience of entering a strange office, making a new business acquaintance, and making some arrangements.

The committee on arrangements should report back to the class the results of the interviews with businessmen and check with the school office to see that the date for the trip does not conflict with other school activities.

After a field trip has been made class activities include the following:

1. Reports to the class by committees having had definite assignments. Questions from students cleared up by class discussion.

2. Preparation of thank-you letters. The class selects the best letter or letters to be sent to each firm.


4. Discussion of employment possibilities in this field include such topics as working conditions, possibilities of advancement, security, and a study of typical application blanks.

6. Discuss the trip at home and bring ideas from parents to class for comparison to reactions from other parents.

7. Final evaluation of the trip including suggestions for the trip to be made by next year's class. What should be omitted? What additional matter included? What improvements on arrangements?

8. Development of an overall picture of the resources of the community.

Field trips awaken interest in the resources of the community, open up new vistas of employment possibilities, and help develop the student's character and social responsibility. Here we rest
the case of the field trip—it is justified in terms of educational
gains and growth in citizenship.\textsuperscript{33}

**Shorthand.** In reporting classroom practices which improve listening, observing, and planning tools in students, Musselman says:

At Anchorage, Alaska, responsibility was placed on advanced shorthand students proportional to their ability to assume it. All the projects of the class were carefully planned and executed by the students. Once a year the class went on a tour to visit the many offices in town. Committees were appointed by the class president to make the various arrangements. One committee screened the offices in town and selected one office for each class member. The class was divided into teams of two and each team was assigned two offices to visit. Questionnaires were prepared in order that the tour might be most profitable. Each team was responsible for telephoning the office to which it was assigned and for making an appointment for the visit.

This project has been worthwhile because of the confidence it has always built in the class members. Often the personnel director or the office manager dictated a letter to the pupils and asked that it be read back or perhaps transcribed and mailed in for criticism. Contacts were made that often meant employment upon graduation from high school. The tour always gave rise to such comments as, "I won't be afraid to make application for work now," or "I found those bosses to be so human."\textsuperscript{34}

**Bookkeeping.** In discussing the use of field trips in bookkeeping classes, Hanna says:

... The field trip has, unfortunately, become identified with the full-day excursion to the large office in the distant large city. Actually, the most educationally effective field trips for


\textsuperscript{34}Vernon A. Musselman, "Improving the Fundamental Tools," The American Business Education Yearbook, Volume VIII, 1951, pp. 44-45.
bookkeeping instruction are the short trips that are keyed to the immediate class topic and designed to show one aspect of recording activity at a time.

Class field trips are not always possible or desirable. Another plan found to be effective is to use student committees. Instead of taking the entire class to one business, the students are divided into committees of four or five students each.

Each committee is assigned the responsibility of obtaining certain information from a designated business. For example, in discussing the various ways that Accounts Receivable are kept by business, different committees may be assigned the responsibility of obtaining the information from the office of a doctor or dentist, from a lawyer's office, from a department store, from a grocery store, and from a manufacturing firm.

Each committee plans its visit, obtains the information, and reports its findings to the class.

Similar committee assignments can be made when the class is studying procedures for handling and recording cash, purchase and sales procedures and records, special journals, multiple-column journals, inventory procedures, preparation of financial reports, property records and depreciation, payroll records, use of accounting and posting machines, and opportunities in the field of bookkeeping and accounting.

The committee plan has several advantages. It places responsibility on the students. The development of a willingness to assume responsibility is a desirable educational outcome; this can be achieved, however, only by placing students in situations where they have the opportunity to assume responsibility. The committee plan provides such an opportunity.35

In discussing student visitation of businesses by bookkeeping students at Howland High School, Warren, Ohio, Lash says:

The bookkeeping students organized small committees. Each committee, consisting of three students, selected one business firm in the community for intensive study. Each committee contacted the selected firm and solicited its co-operation in the project. The names of the firms and the officers or owners of each firm were supplied by the local merchants association. Students visited during afternoon, free morning periods, Saturdays, school holidays, and so forth, but no classroom time was taken. All firms visited were located within ten minutes' driving time from the school.

As each topic was presented in class, the students were able to tell how their firm carried out the recording procedure and usually were able to show samples of the pages used in the various books. Needless to say, such a project involved more than one visit. The firms were extremely co-operative.

In describing a field trip taken by a bookkeeping class at The University School, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, Malsbary says:

Every teacher of bookkeeping has had students question him toward the end of the course as to whether all businesses really do keep complete books and records, and if so, whether they are all maintained in the same manner as those in which the practice set entries were recorded. When those perennial questions came up, the teacher suggested that the students themselves might like to find out the answers.

After a discussion as to the best way to go about determining whether business maintained bookkeeping records and to what extent, it was decided that the class be divided into committees of two members each. Each committee then selected a type of business in which the two members were most interested relative to the record keeping or bookkeeping system maintained. The types of businesses selected seemed to be fairly representative of the business life of the community in which the school was located: grocery store, limestone company, physician's office, social fraternity, retail electrical appliance outlet, furniture store, and wholesale produce.

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The students then selected the particular firm that they wished to visit. Letters prepared by the typewriting class were mailed to the proprietors or managers of the firms selected requesting their co-operation and explaining the purpose of the interview being requested. The letter merely stated that the bookkeeping students were interested in determining for themselves the answers to such questions as:

1. What bookkeeping and other business forms are employed by the firm as bases for entry and as records?

2. Who and how many employees are charged with the record-keeping functions and how is the work divided?

3. What records are maintained and reports prepared by the firm?

After the letters had been mailed, the students called and made specific appointments for their visits.

After each committee had visited the firm selected, the members presented detailed reports to the class on the bookkeeping or record-keeping system employed in that office. These reports were well-presented and adequately illustrated through the mounted display of actual business forms that served as the basis for bookkeeping entries.

Members of the class were encouraged to question the reporting students regarding any point not made clear in the report.

In describing field trips taken by a bookkeeping class at Meadville High School, Meadville, Pennsylvania, O’Shell and Walker say:

FIRST DAY OF PLANNING. The class had been working on a practice set for several days and still had a considerable amount of work that had to be done when the teacher suggested a field trip to a business office. The class liked the suggestions and immediately considered certain criteria that had to be set up and voted upon, such as:

(1) The business establishment to be visited should be a partnership.

(2) The office selected should be within reasonable walking distance from the school.

(3) We should plan for a certain day that would be most convenient for the store or business establishment.

(4) We should visit a small partnership because we would like to see a large corporation in action during the second semester.

One of the girls in the class stated that some of the bookkeeping offices in the stores were so small that it would be impossible to accommodate more than five or six students at one time. This brought up the possibility of dividing the class into a number of small groups.

The students were asked to suggest possible places to visit. A list was compiled and each student listed first and second choices.

It was also suggested that we not bother the bookkeepers during the Christmas rush, while working on a payroll, or just before closing time. Since our class met the last period of the day, the teacher suggested that some groups possibly could arrange an interview during the school activity period.

We compiled a list of questions that could be asked after the observation of the bookkeeping system. By this time the 45-minute class period was over.

Before the class met the next day, the teacher made up a list of business firms suggested by the students, trying to give each student his first or second choice, and named a chairman for each group.

SECOND DAY. Students and chairmen were told which office to visit. . . .

While the other students worked on their practice sets, the teacher briefed the chairmen on how to contact the businessmen to make arrangements for a field trip.

THIRD DAY. Two chairmen reported that they had arranged everything for their trips, while the other two chairmen surprised all of us when they reported that two of the establishments were corporations, not partnerships. This disrupted our plans somewhat. Since the offices were small, all of us could not go to two places.

Sam also had his plans disrupted because he was not going to have the opportunity to see [a] certain bookkeeper. But Sam was
an excellent student and could be given responsibilities, so he quickly arranged a trip to a third establishment and became chairman of the group.

FOURTH DAY. Students worked on the practice set. All plans for the field trip were complete. Sam was not sure that his trip would be a success. He did not believe this certain car dealer would want to open the books. He was told that the entire project was an experiment.

FIFTH DAY. One group went on the trip during the activity period, while two groups were out during the class period.

SIXTH DAY. Each chairman, with some group participation, made an informal report to the class on how the books were kept. None of the chairmen used any notes while reporting, and each talked for approximately five minutes. They had learned more than the teacher had ever expected.

The project was given publicity in the local paper and each student wrote a letter of appreciation to the firm visited.

SEVENTH DAY. The best letters—one to each business concern—were typewritten and mailed.

There was no excessive noise during any of the planning sessions, and the students worked on their practice sets while we were not discussing plans for the trip. Yes, it is true that the teacher could have planned all three trips in less than one hour, but it takes time to be democratic.38

General business. In describing a field trip taken by a general business class at Grover Cleveland High School, Queens, New York, Smithline says:

1. The Purpose of the Project and a Brief Statement of the Problem

The business training class had just completed the topic, "The Making and Receiving of Telephone Calls, Both on the Dial and Manual Telephone." Some members of the class expressed a desire to learn,

by actual observation, just how the person making a call is connected with the one receiving it.

The subject was brought to the attention of the entire class, and soon all the members became interested in the problem. By a majority vote, it was decided that the best way "to see" an actual "hook-up," and to trace the course of a telephone call was to visit one of the telephone exchange buildings, preferably the one in the neighborhood.

The teacher agreed to devote a few minutes during several class periods to the planning of the visit and to a discussion of its various phases.

2. The Working Out of the Project

The class, under the leadership of its president, set to work on the project. It was realized at the outset that such details as permission from the Telephone Company, the date, the exact time, the number of students the Company could accommodate during any one visit, the compliance with school regulations governing the taking of field trips, etc., required immediate attention. In the course of the meetings held during the regular class periods set aside for the project discussions, the following details were worked out by the pupils:

A. PLANNING THE TRIP

1. Applying for Permission from the Telephone Company to Visit the Local Exchange Building

Each member of the class was to bring in a letter addressed to the manager of the district business office asking for permission to visit the exchange building. From the letters written, a committee of students selected the best three, which were then read to the class. After some discussion, the letter . . . written by Frieda Albrecht, was selected by the class as the best letter, and she was delegated to type and to mail this letter to the district business office of the New York Telephone Company.

Several days later, Miss Albrecht received a reply to her letter . . . which she read to the class. The president of the class was delegated to learn by telephone how large a group could be accommodated. A party of fifteen was organized to make the first trip.

2. Complying with the School Regulations

A committee was then sent to the chairman of the department, requesting that he apply to the proper authorities for permission to make this field trip. . . .
3. **Preparing Direction Sheets**

A committee of three was appointed to prepare a mimeographed sheet containing specific directions for going to and returning from the place to be visited.

4. **The Use of a Scrapbook**

The group adopted the suggestion made by one of the members to prepare a scrapbook containing the following: the letter the individual student wrote to the Telephone Company, a copy of the letter actually mailed, the reply, the direction sheet, the illustrative materials that might be collected during the trip, the salient facts gathered from the visit, etc. It was further agreed that the best scrapbooks were to be exhibited on the class bulletin boards.

C. **THE FOLLOW-UP AFTER THE VISIT**

Later, in the course of a class project meeting, the members of the visiting group, at the suggestion of the class president, summarized their observations in individual two-minute talks, from prepared notes, on one of the following topics:

1. What was most interesting and outstanding in the visit I made to the Hegeman Central Office Telephone Building.

2. Following a call from a dial telephone to a manual telephone.

3. Following a call from a manual telephone to a dial telephone.

A committee collected the scrapbooks. The best three were chosen and placed on exhibition on the class bulletin board.39

In discussing pupil participation in developing field trips in basic business classes, Hooper says:

Large classes of giggling pupils filing through a factory or mercantile establishment . . . would more than likely annoy the manager, disrupt the work of the personnel on duty, and cruelly

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embarass the teacher in charge. Perhaps this fear of embarassment is the reason business teachers hesitate to use the excursion.

Sending out small groups, or excursion committees—perhaps with six or fewer in a group—might be more satisfactory as a learning method than sending or taking whole classes at one time. Armed with a purposeful attitude and a set of ready-made questions, these six pupils could bring back to their classmates a rich report on the organization of the business establishment visited.

To secure purposeful attitudes, let the pupil participate in the planning. Divide the class into discussion groups of six by an appropriate method. Arrange these committees around the room—three facing three—to discuss the questions which the teacher hands them. A reporter should be selected to jot down decisions and suggestions of the committee and to report them later to the entire class.

After deciding which business organizations to visit, the group captains should present each of their group members with a set of questions so that each pupil will have specific things to look for.

The Six-Six committees will need a class period to talk over plans for making their formal report. The revelation and comparison of bits of information the pupils have gleaned during the excursion are the purposes of this report. After the trip has been made, the students quite naturally want to discuss what they have seen. They may choose to use any one of several methods for presentation of the data collected. The panel discussion method is informal and entertaining.40

Interviews with Businessmen

Distributive education. In discussing possible student projects in the teaching of salesmanship, Knouse says:

The interview-dramatization technique involves an interview with a merchant by two or more students and then a dramatization of this interview before the class. This can be used effectively in teaching the unit on "Applying for a Sales Position." After the instructor has made the proper arrangements with the personnel director, two or three students should serve as a committee and present themselves for an interview. While one person is being interviewed, the other members of the committee should observe and take notes. The interview should then be duplicated before the class with members of the committee taking the parts of the personnel director and the applicant. The technique of both the personnel director and the applicant can be analyzed by the class and discussed at length.

The [interview-report] . . . technique is similar to the interview-dramatization technique. However, the interview is not duplicated in the classroom. Instead of a dramatization, the members of the committee present a complete report of the interview.

Office practice. In describing interviews with businessmen made by office practice students at Leyden Community High School, Franklin Park, Illinois, McLeod says:

"Good morning. This is Tuesday, December 11, and six of our class members are visiting the offices of the Johnson Wire Company, in Franklin Park. We were greeted this morning by Mr. Larson, the office manager, and I've asked him to say a few words for us now. . . ."

These were the opening words of one of the secretarial students, who had been assigned the job of conducting an "on-the-spot" interview with the office manager. He had been forewarned that the students would bring a tape recorder with them and that they would ask him a series of specific questions.

CLASS PREPARED SPECIFIC QUESTIONS FOR THE INTERVIEW

How many employees do you have in your offices? In your factory?

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What products do you manufacture? Who are your customers?

What raw materials are used in your product? What are your sources of supply?

Do your factory employees need special types of training? Do they belong to unions?

What types of office machines do you use? For which types of employees do you have the greatest demand?

How would we go about finding a position with your organization?

What qualities do you look for when you are hiring new employees?

Pupils have a natural curiosity to know what awaits them in the business world, and they want to hear their questions answered by the executives themselves. Thus came the idea of recording "on-the-spot" interviews and playing them back in the classroom.

Rather than have the class as a whole visit just a few offices of industries, smaller groups of students are sent out to a larger number of places. Bringing back to the class a tape or wire recording of the interview makes the student reports much more interesting.

The instructor should be sure that every member of the class has a part in formulating the questions to be asked during the interview. This provides added motivation when it comes to hearing the interviews played back.\[2\]

General business. In discussing the use of interviews with business men by general business students at Jamesburg High School, Jamesburg, New Jersey, Smith says:

... Let's say the class is studying banking. Discussion shows that there are many questions the students would like to ask a real banker—but if everyone in the class trots down to the bank and asks his question (assuming all of them could get to a bank) the reception accorded the students might grow cooler and cooler after the first few had made their appearance. So, encourage the class to form a "banker interview" committee and have the chairman solicit the right leading questions from his classmates.

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Now a letter is written to the bank. It says that the committee would like to bring a recorder to the bank and to interview someone who could authoritatively answer a number of questions about banking. The letter includes the questions to be asked. The banker is thus in a position to schedule an appointment that will suit his convenience, have his answers ready, and, in the one recorded interview, answer the questions of the whole class. His voice, transmitting the answers over the recorder, becomes a vital teaching aid when the recording is then played in class—and his answers can be analyzed for their content on replaying; and his voice and cordiality—as well as the voices of the committee members who ask the questions—can also be analyzed and discussed. In many regards, it is preferable to have a "recorded visitor" instead of having one in person.\(^3\)

**Consumer education.** In discussing learning activities and instructional methods in consumer education, the National Council for Business Education says:

> ... Interviews are not used very extensively by teachers, but they have great possibilities as a means of gathering information. Individual students or small committees may go out to conduct the interviews. The procedure must be carefully planned beforehand; the questions to be asked should be formulated by the students and checked by the teacher. ... Interviews may be arranged with:

a. Insurance agents, about specific problems of insurance for young men and women

b. Building contractors, about what to look for when building or buying a home

c. Local store buyer, about how he buys\(^4\)

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Bookkeeping. In describing a community survey made by a bookkeeping class at Ardsley High School, Ardsley, New York, Patteson says:

There were eighteen members in my bookkeeping class. First, we discussed what sort of things we would like to know about bookkeeping in the community—things that would be within the realm of understanding of people who have had one-half year of bookkeeping instruction. One girl in the class acted as secretary and took down the questions as they were suggested. Soon we had a list of about ten elementary questions, all of which the pupils believed would be of real interest to themselves at this time. The questions were as follows:

1. Do you keep your own records, or does someone else keep them for you?

2. Do you extend credit?

3. If so, what are your terms?

4. How often do you balance your books?

5. If you were to hire someone to do your bookkeeping, what other knowledges would you want them to have?

6. Do you use single-entry or double-entry bookkeeping?

7. How do you record Social Security? What kind of forms do you fill out and how often do you send them in?

8. What business machines are used in your record keeping?

9. What statements do you prepare?

10. May we have copies of any record forms that you employ?

After these questions had been formulated and then duplicated by the class secretary, the procedure was to select eighteen different businesses in the village of Ardsley, assign one to each member of the class, and have each person make an appointment for his interview.

This survey proved to be a strong teaching and motivating procedure for the bookkeeping instructor and for the pupils. It has helped the boys and girls to see for themselves that record keeping among the merchants they know is a real and important function. It
has helped them to realize that they have already learned a great deal—that they understand more than some businessmen themselves understand about keeping records. It has provided the class with information as to what sort of records different kinds of businesses must keep.

Most of all, however, the survey has definitely served to enliven bookkeeping and to make it a more interesting and more meaningful subject for all. . . .

**Distributive education.** In describing a survey of consumer buying habits made by a retailing class at Poughkeepsie High School, Poughkeepsie, New York, Brown says:

An interesting study which not only pointed up the necessity for using scientific research on merchandising problems but also provided practice in the use of research tools was made by the retailing class in Poughkeepsie, New York. A study of consumer buying habits was made, using a scientific sampling technique. The questionnaire was submitted to consumers in three age groups corresponding to the age groups of the buying public. The questionnaire was further controlled by sex, income groups, and the occupation of the respondents. Class members had interesting experiences in formulating the questionnaire, developing the method, securing replies, and, more important, in tabulating and analyzing some three hundred answers.

In discussing possible student projects in salesmanship, Knouse says:

The service-shopping report is an excellent device for building proper customer attitudes and analyzing sales techniques. In this type of project, each member of the class makes one or more purchases in a selected store. Each sale is then analyzed in report form. This form will usually include sections for recording the appearance

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of the salesperson and the degree of courtesy, interest, helpfulness, and efficiency showing in completing the sale. It may also include a section for checking the use of selling points and suggestion selling. . . .

In discussing student investigation of specific kinds of merchandise in distributive education classes at the High School, Boone, Iowa, Hartley says:

Early in the semester the class is divided into several committees of from three to five members. Each committee chooses or is assigned some kind of merchandise in which it is interested and of which it makes a detailed investigation. The pupils begin by making a thorough study of all the literature available on the subject. To supplement the material on hand, letters are written to manufacturers asking for sales help . . . .

After the first few weeks the members of the class are given one or two periods a week to visit stores handling the lines of merchandise they are investigating where . . . they learn by first-hand study of the goods and by asking questions of merchandise managers, buyers, and experienced salespeople. . . .

During the last few weeks of the semester, each pupil goes before the class and gives an oral report on the subject of his investigation. . . .

General business. In describing a community survey made by a general business class at the Laboratory School, Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Illinois, Johnson says:

An excellent way to start a general business year with good objectives and high interest is to initiate it by having the class plan and conduct a survey of community employment information.

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My senior business class of juniors and seniors planned and conducted such a survey, then tabulated, studied, and planned the use to be made of the information after its collection.

The teacher can, perhaps, stimulate class interest in making a community survey by such questions as: How many businesses are there in town? What kinds of businesses do we have? How many people are employed in our town? What kinds of work do they do? What qualifications must one have to be employed at 's? What proportion of community workers has specialized education? What are your chances of getting a job here next year?

A discussion involving such questions develops the desire for knowing and finally, the decision to find out.

Once the decision to make a survey has been reached, the objectives of the survey should be set up. After much discussion the class decided their objectives were:

1. To find out job opportunities in the community.
2. To find out qualifications which must be met for jobs in the community.
3. To secure information which would be of value in planning their individual futures.
4. To lay a basis for future study in the general business class.
5. To gain an acquaintance with community businesses and with businessmen.
6. To build good will between the school and businessmen.

Procedure. The following steps were decided upon as necessary to realize the objectives:

1. Make Out a Questionnaire. A questionnaire for each owner or manager to answer was necessary, the class thought. (The interviewer was to take down the information as given during the interview.)

Two committees each made out a questionnaire which they submitted to the class for approval. The final questionnaire was a composite of the two-committee plans plus class suggestions.

2. Group Students for Purpose of Survey. The students chose to go out in pairs and divided themselves into groups of two without any formal plan of choosing.
3. **District the City.** While two class groups were working on the questionnaire another was preparing a map of the city with street names written in. The final draft was duplicated so each class member had a copy. Since they chose to interview in pairs rather than singly, the city was divided into 17 districts and each group of students was assigned a district to cover.

Edge of town businesses too far from school to be reached during the class hour were assigned to volunteer class members living in the general direction of the business. . . .

4. **Provide Pre-interview Guidance:** manners, appearance, interpersonal relationship techniques. It was the wish of the majority of the class that some attention be given to personal conduct during the interview, introductions, and generally how to carry on a successful interview. They practiced on the teacher and on each other before starting out. They discussed dress and decided to ban "jeans" and similar attire, but not obviously to "dress up."

5. **Conduct the Survey.** When the members of the class signified they felt ready, they went out to make the survey. Class time and some study periods were used.

6. **Report the Results.** After the collection of the data, the information had to be classified, tabulated, and interpreted. Again the class worked in groups. Some students tabulated, some duplicated the results, some made tables and summaries of the information, and all had a part in drawing conclusions from the data.

7. **Plan Class and Individual Activities on the Basis of the Results and Their Interpretation.** Class planning of future study resulting from use of the information gained by the survey included:

   a. Study of retailing, since there was greater job opportunity in that field than in any other.

   b. Investigation by groups and individuals of prerequisites, salaries, wages, and extra-community opportunities in skilled trades and managerial positions which the survey reveals as being good. The same procedure was planned in a few fields which seem to offer better opportunity elsewhere than in the local community.

   c. Study of single proprietorships from the standpoints of management and operation since this was the most common form of business organization found.

   d. Individual consideration of plans for the future in the light of community job opportunities. Reconsideration and evaluation
of interests and abilities by means of interest tests and investigations with recognition of local qualifications found to be necessary. . . .

Finally the class evaluated and criticized the whole project. They decided what they would do differently if they were to make this or any kind of a survey again.49

In describing a community survey made by a general business class at Kendallville High School, Kendallville, Indiana, Stephens says:

Early in the General Business class, which was composed of tenth and eleventh grade pupils, an interest began to grow in the products manufactured in Kendallville and in the size of the area served by our industries. It was during the first six weeks of the semester that we decided to make the survey and plans for it were made. The primary purpose of this survey for the pupils was to find out what is made in our town and how and to whom it is sold. I knew that from it they would not only learn this but many other things about our town and its industries.

Through our regular class discussion and through personal contacts with the pupils outside of class many things were suggested that they thought would be worth knowing. These were placed on paper as a guide for these very inexperienced interviewers. About a week before the interviews were to start a copy of the questionnaire . . . was given to each member of the class and we discussed it as a guide to direct the conversation with the businessmen. We discussed interviewing procedure briefly.

. . . The pupils were not to take the questionnaires with them on the visits but were to become familiar with these questions, adjust them to the firm being visited and to use their own judgment as to what questions and how many to ask. Since two or three students went on each visit they rarely forgot any of the questions and came back with most of the information and usually much more. They were often taken through not only the office but also the factory.

After they made the visit they gave an oral report of it to the class. They worked as committees in filling in the questionnaire and it was handed in on the day they gave their oral report. This information was used to compile the final report, a copy of which

was given to each member of the class. Each student made at least two visits and they went to different kinds of factories. If at all possible, they were allowed to make their own choice as to the place they wished to visit... 

In describing a community survey made by students at Roslyn High School, Roslyn, L. I., New York, McNeal and Shiley say:

Three years ago Roslyn High School, Roslyn, New York, added to its already functioning group of integrated classes an experimental class, which integrated junior business training, ninth year English, and ninth year social studies. The results of this initial attempt were satisfactory enough so that now all beginning commercial students are enrolled in similar classes. In these classes, because they meet with one teacher for daily periods of three hours' duration, they are able to undertake the study of problems and projects that cover broader areas and materials than the textbook limitations of the 45 and 60 minute periods formerly permitted. Also, the integrating of the subject-matter of these three courses of study has brought about a stressing of the guidance features found in junior business training. And, it was out of this guidance phase that the present situation arose.

Early in the school year of 1937-1938, two of these classes originated a series of questions about employment whose potential answers seemed very vital to their educational and vocational futures. Like all ninth graders, these youngsters had no realization of the fact that being commercial students would not automatically make them job-holding stenographers and nothing else upon their graduation from school. After some general discussions, however, they began to recognize the meagerness of their knowledge of the actual processes of earning a living. So, working in small groups, they listed the things they expected to get from a job, but they failed to recognize the fact that the job and the employer had the right to demand a certain amount of preparation on their part. At this point, a prominent and popular store-owner in the community was invited to speak to the classes regarding the preparation and conduct he expected from his employees. The discussions that followed this talk soon turned to the local businesses and the jobs available in them. The pupils tried to list these jobs from memory and knowledge of the town, but soon found that they did not know as much about the local employment situation as they had at

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first thought. This caused disappointment and discouragement until further discussion brought out the fact that many statistical studies and reports on the subject were available in the school library. A research committee of students was appointed to study and report on these references. While this committee was working it discovered The South Western Publishing Company's "Monograph 33, A Job Opportunity Survey."

After an examination of this booklet, the committee immediately reported to the class the possibility of making a similar survey in the local community. The group seized upon the idea enthusiastically, and the work on the project itself was soon under way.

Armed with a list of the pupils' questions, the teacher attended a meeting of the businessmen's association and asked for their cooperation and support in carrying out the survey. These men readily endorsed the proposition and requested that the students make a directory of the community's businesses at the same time that they were making the survey.

Since it was seemingly impossible to improve upon the general plan of organization and procedure used by the Evansville committee, and, since their own questions coincided with or approximated those of the earlier questionnaire, the pupils decided to employ them with the modifications necessary to meet the local situation. As their first step, they compounded a combination check-list, personal-interview, questionnaire form, which was typed and mimeographed by the secretarial practice classes. The questionnaire . . . listed 30 actual vocations and provided space for "write-ins."

. . . The classes were divided into teams of two pupils each. These teams were then assigned a particular street or streets in the town and it was their duty to interview every merchant and business man on those streets, ask him the questions listed, and check or write in on the form the information which they received. Immediately after roll-call at the beginning of each session, the youngsters left the school and went to their assigned streets and began their work.

The actual task of collection required only four days or twelve clock hours of work on the part of eighteen teams participating.

On their return to the classroom, the youngsters set about the task of tabulating, studying, analyzing, and discussing the replies to each question with a great deal of eagerness and enthusiasm. When a conclusion regarding local employment, vocations, or education was arrived at, it was carefully written, typed and mimeographed in order to supply local requests. In addition to this they
compiled an 11-page business directory of the village, including two maps. Two thousand copies of this directory were mimeographed at the joint expense of the businessmen's association and the school board by the secretarial practice class, and distributed throughout the community.

These two publications were the most obvious and tangible results of the work, but, now that a year has elapsed since the project was finished, they have proved to be almost the least important.

A number of unforeseen developments have arisen to supersede them in value. Prime among these greater benefits has been the rise of an active feeling of mutuality between the school and the community as evidenced by a livelier interest in the town and its affairs on the part of the social studies classes and by an increasing number of calls on the school for aid and offers of assistance to the school from individuals and organizations in the community. Within the school itself there has been an increase in morale, social activities, and student interest in administrative problems brought about by a nucleus of poised and able leaders whose interests were awakened and whose abilities were developed through participation in the survey work. Also, within the school, a more understandable result has been the growth of a definite interest and actual participation in vocational and educational guidance on the part of both students and faculty. . . .51

In reporting classroom practices in general business, Wells says:

Conducting a community survey of business has been used successfully with both junior and senior business training classes. Most members of a class were interested in active participation in making this survey; others worked on committees to prepare the questionnaire, to tabulate the data, and to provide the class members with the results of the investigation.

Students should be in on the planning of the survey. They need to decide what they want to find out from the survey and how to secure the information without appearing too inquisitive. Among the facts most classes wish to find out are these: the nature and kind of business; the type of ownership (whether sole proprietorship, partnership, or corporation); the trend (whether the business

is expanding; the form of management (whether it is managed by the owner, number of employees, male and female); the kind of jobs; and the skills and abilities of the employees.

Results of the survey were studied by the class from the standpoint of vocational guidance, business and its importance, the relationship of a business to individuals and to other businesses, and business management. Students became conscious of economic principles at work and were concerned with the happenings in the business world.52

In describing projects which had been carried out by business organization classes, Haines says:

Another class proceeded from the premise, "We believe we need a new high school," to conduct a survey of every conceivable condition to prove the point. The class became a laboratory in which the group organized into units for the consideration of the problem from the following angles: fiscal, physical deficiencies of building, physical deficiencies of equipment, comparison with other communities, and anticipation of future educational trends.

The survey commission (that is what the class really was) filed its report with the Board of Education. The members of the board, despite their intimate knowledge of the situation, were shown numerous new angles to the obsolescence of the high school building.53

Consumer education. In describing an industrial survey made by a consumer education class at Cathedral Boys' High School, Springfield, Illinois, Ryan says:

Last year the students enrolled in consumer education at Cathedral Boys' High School, Springfield, Illinois, undertook and accomplished an unusual and valuable class project. Thirty-five

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manufacturing and processing firms cooperated with as many students in the development of the first student-sponsored industrial survey conducted in Springfield.

The project evolved from a desire to know more about local industry. Over a period of weeks the students had studied local business conditions, collected data and samples of products manufactured in the area, and evaluated business opportunities in Springfield.

An outstanding difficulty experienced in these assignments was the lack of an objective knowledge of local industry. Activities of the leading factories were well known, but the smaller organizations were almost unrecognized in either name or product of the majority of the students.

This deficiency stimulated the students to interest themselves in overcoming the problems; hence, they were motivated to undertake the industrial survey. Many of the students were motivated to an enthusiastic endorsement of the project in the hopes of securing specific backgrounds on particular firms and the possibility of establishing contacts within the organization proper. Both ends were accomplished in some instances.

A representative planning committee was elected by the class to develop preliminary plans with the teacher before the entire project was outlined in class. Five students, titled captains, represented the class and met with the instructor after school to formulate plans for the project. This committee selected about forty-five possible manufacturing and processing firms from a master list of one hundred thirty-seven submitted by the secretary of the Springfield Chamber of Commerce. The committee recommended that (a) interviews be pre-arranged; (b) that the "buddy-system" be employed in securing the interviews, and (c) that a set of standard questions be evolved to facilitate comparison of the results of different interviews.

The proposed firms were listed on the blackboard. Each student was invited to make a first, second, and third choice. In tabulating preferences each captain handled a row of students. Very few duplications occurred. However, where duplication did occur, the students concerned and the captains worked the solution out among themselves. A few additional firms were approved at the suggestion of some students.

It had been determined earlier that the information desired would have to come through interviews, and the project was constructed under that assumption. The problem of what to discuss in the interview resulted in the development of a questionnaire. Although it
was a committee suggestion it was also the natural outgrowth of the situation. The entire class contributed to formulating the questionnaire and each student made a master copy to complete during or after his interview.

Nearly all interviews were arranged outside school hours. Two students attending each interview necessitated spacing of the interviews, but all thirty-five were completed within a five-day period.

Upon completion of the assigned conference, the student made an oral report to the class outlining the success of the visit, explaining the questionnaire and expanding the interview.

The industrial survey was designed to enrich the fundamental knowledge possessed by the students through a joint classroom project of an extra-curricular nature. The personal values derived from the activity, in terms of increased interest in local industry and increased poise and confidence, are valuable outgrowths of the activity. 

In discussing learning activities in consumer education, Price says:

Investigations in which pupils are put on their own to gather and analyze data, and arrive at their own conclusions are valuable learning activities. For instance this kind of question often arises in a consumer class: "What stores handle graded canned food in our town?" The alert teacher can then plan with the class a research project that will answer such a question. Pupils can visit the local grocery stores to determine: (1) What kind of grade designations are used; (2) Which foods are usually graded; (3) Which packers generally grade their products; (4) Which of the local stores handled graded food products?

Student Pursuit of Specialized Interests


Business education in general. In suggesting ways in which business teachers can aid students in their classes to make occupational choices, Forrester says:

After making preliminary surveys of the wide range of occupations and acquiring information concerning several of them, each pupil should be encouraged to investigate very thoroughly some specific fields that he is considering favorably.

After the selection has been narrowed down to two or three vocations, an intensive investigation should then be made of one which the pupil considers a satisfactory choice. After investigating the occupation, he must also analyze his physical capacities, his intellectual grasp, his economic resources, and his tastes, so as to rule out any occupation in which he would not be successful and happy.

The intensive study will include making personal contact with officials and workers in industries and businesses; watching the pamphlets, magazines, and other printed information; utilizing radio broadcasts and motion pictures and lectures; and interviewing vocational counselors, teachers, advisers, workers, family, and friends.

Classes in business subjects may easily incorporate a study of the occupations for which the courses give preparation. Pupils who are taking business subjects for personal use or for training for part-time work to earn college expenses may investigate occupations of interest to them.

It is extremely important that each pupil prepare his individual outline for the investigation of the occupations in which he is interested. He should be allowed considerable elasticity in formulating his plan and freedom to select methods of acquiring information.

General business. In describing a project in a general business
class at Cortland Junior-Senior High School, Cortland, New York, Holmes says:

[As one phase of the work] . . . pupil was to choose the type of business for which he believed his qualifications suited him; such as farming, school supply store, gas station, confectionery, and magazine stand. He was encouraged to choose one that he would be able to use during summer vacations or after school graduation to net him a real income, and thereby enable him to defeat the "unemployment bugaboo." Written summaries of the activity unit were submitted in report form. . . .58

Economic geography. In describing a project in an economic geography class at Zanesville High School, Zanesville, Ohio, Graham says:

About one month before the close of the semester course [in economic geography], a mimeographed sheet of instructions is given to each student, with the suggestion that he choose for intensive study an industry in harmony with his desires for future employment.

The student makes all arrangements for his field work. Before receiving permission to leave school for a class period or several periods, as may be required, he presents a written statement giving the name of the plant to be visited; the name of the person who gave him permission to visit the plant; the date of the trip, with the probable number of hours' absence. . . .

The student compiles a list of questions to which he will seek answers—questions about location, raw material, methods, labor, capital, markets, influence of climate, soils, relief, and trends.

The results of placing responsibility directly upon the student have been gratifying. Good textbook students need this kind of opportunity. Students who are less enthusiastic in class frequently need only this stimulus to enable them to prepare exceptionally fine reports and to manifest the development of new interests. Some students find that they no longer wish to seek employment in the factory that formerly seemed so desirable. Others find industries in which they hope to find not only

employment but also an opportunity to express themselves in creative endeavor. 59

**Business English.** In describing a Business English class project at Fortuna Union High School, Fortuna, California, Curry says:

Business English in our high school is a required subject of all business graduates. Since a commercial club that would include all business students did not seem feasible, it occurred to us that the business English class might well be organized into a club. The students liked the suggestions, organized the club, and called it, "Better Business Bureau." The class elected officers for the club, wrote their own constitution and by-laws, and decided that each member should be assessed ten cents a month for dues. Subsequent classes have followed the same procedure so far as the election of officers is concerned and the original constitution and by-laws and other features of the club have not been changed materially. In order to encourage participation of each member of the "Better Business Bureau," committees covering a wide range of duties are appointed. . . .

As soon as the officers are elected at the beginning of the year, a program of class work is set up. Each student participates in working out this program. . . . Quite naturally careful guidance on the part of the teacher must be exercised to see that the fundamentals of business correspondence are not neglected.

The real core of the work is based on an individual business study. Early in the year, each member of the group decides to make a thorough study of some business or profession that he would like to enter after graduation. The study deals with the clerical activities of such businesses and professions as insurance, lumber, medicine, dentistry, law, title insurance, and banking.

Each student gathers materials on the business or profession that he is studying. He is encouraged to write letters to firms or individuals representing the business, visit offices, and talk with persons who are familiar with the business or profession. When he has announcements, credit and collection letters, sales or other types of letters for class assignment, he is expected to integrate his assignment with his study. Thus if a boy were studying lumber, his sales letter must be related to the sale

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of lumber. A basic requirement for this study is that the student must familiarize himself with the terms, expressions, forms, and letters common to the business or profession he has chosen.60

Student Contact with Real Business Experiences

Business education in general. In describing the operation of the school store at Plymouth High School, Plymouth, New Hampshire, Tapply says:

Our school store was devised initially to give our business students some living business experience, thereby preparing them for the business world and for society as a whole. As it has turned out, the learning opportunity has spread and spread, until now our school store is a functional center of education for nearly all—the students in our school.

Stores in some schools are run only by distributive-education students; in this regard, ours is different. The store is staffed by Salesmanship students; but its policies are directed by the Business Organization class, its facilities were provided and will be improved by the Industrial Arts classes, its financial records are maintained by the Bookkeeping students, some of its merchandise is made by the Home Economics students, and its stock is owned by students in all grades of the high school.

How We Got Started—Our school store was organized by the Business Organization class, which still decides upon its policies in their capacity as Board of Directors, with a president, vice-president, and secretary.

The store is organized in the form of a corporation, and shares of stock were sold in order to raise money to start the business. At the time the plan took root, the Business Organization students were discussing different ways that money could be raised to start a business—the advantages and disadvantages of each. Mention was made of our school's need for a school store, and the discussion turned toward how money could be raised to start a school store.

The students took the discussion most seriously, and out of it came the decision really to issue stock—but first we waited long

enough to find out what stock is, what kinds of stock there are, and what kind could be issued for the school store. It was decided to issue common stock. That got us started.

The sales campaign to sell the stock became a project of the Salesmanship class—and they did the job with fine results. Sales talks were prepared, and then a salesman went to each home room and gave his sales presentation. The sales students placed slogans and display posters in the halls. They designed and prepared a chart for each home room to show the status of the room in the "race" to be first with 100 per cent stockholders. As further motivation, they placed in every desk in the school slips of paper which asked, "Have you bought your stock yet?"

The campaign was most successful—educationally as well as finan-
cially. It is likely that every student in the school became interested in the meaning of stock and capital and gained a new concept of how a business could be started.

The Industrial Arts department stepped in and helped us. We were assigned a large storage room. The room was partitioned off to pro-
vide us with both storage and store space. The I-A boys painted the store. We borrowed some display show cases, but I-A is plan-
ing to make us some modern cases in the woodshop—they are motivated by having a practical learning situation, too.

How We Operate—The store carries (the Business Organization class decided this) clothing, shoes, cosmetics, school supplies, school emblems and banners, milk, and candy. More goods will be added as the store grows. The Board of Directors has laid down the policy: any new materials added will be ones whose merchandising requires the use of real salesmanship.

There is a work schedule for the store staff. One student is in the store each period of the school day, and three students are there during the noon hour. All members of the store staff are members of the Salesmanship class. They receive pay for their work.

Buying of merchandise is done by the Business Organization and Salesmanship students. Salesmen come to the classroom and sell their goods, just as they sell to other stores.

For example, the class placed an order with a shoe salesman. From that salesman's presentations, the students learned not only the real importance of "Knowing Your Product" and other steps in making and concluding a sales presentation, but also such things as:

How prices are written in code
How markup is figured
How, when, and why styles change
When the goods arrived, they were unpacked, were checked against
the invoice, were priced by markup procedure, were tagged, were dis-
played, and then were sold—after preparation of a shoe-sales pre-
sentation. The invoice was sent to the Bookkeeping class to be
recorded and filed. Such is the procedure on each delivery of new
merchandise.

How We Expanded—Already our store owns a building of its own.
The Business Organization class decided the store should sponsor a
concession of hot dogs, candy, drinks, and so on, at athletic games.
The enterprise got launched well; and, while the weather was good,
the heating unit and food were placed on tables in the open. When
the weather turned bad, however, the concession was in distress.

So the Board of Directors decided to borrow some of the money
needed to construct a suitable housing unit for the concession.
The Board's officers went to the bank and borrowed the money. A
committee drew up plans for the building, bought the lumber, hired
the carpenters, and supervised the work. In five months, the note
at the bank had been paid off.

It's Sound Education—What have been the results of the school-
store project? The full value cannot be measured, of course; we
may not know the whole story until long after the students partici-
pating in it are themselves merchants and adult consumers. But we
do have some small clues to the value of the project:

There has not been one student fail a business course that had
any connection with the school store.

There have been no discipline problems in any course associated
with the school store. (And the classes include many students who
have histories of being academic and disciplinary problems.)

At least one girl who had no interest in going to college has
elected to do so because she wants to major in merchandising.

More than one student has frankly stated, "I learn more when I
work in the store than I learn in Salesmanship class."

Every student in our school is a more understanding purchaser of
business goods and services.

The business department is surely the center of student interest.

Phillip C. Tapply, "Our School Store," Business Education World,
Bookkeeping. In describing how a bookkeeping class at Middleton Union Free High School, Middleton, Wisconsin, organized as a corporation to sell school supplies, Larson says:

"The bookkeeping class has become a corporation" was the word passing from student to student last spring at Middleton Union Free High School. And it was true—the class had actually formed a corporation to sell such school supplies as pencils, paper, erasers, rulers, and so forth.

During the month of March the bookkeeping instructor felt that if the course could somehow be made more practical, the students would not only profit, but would also be motivated at the same time. Thus, the idea of forming a corporation came about.

... When approached with the idea, the class responded with instant enthusiasm. A committee was selected to obtain the incorporation rules for the state of Wisconsin and to draw up a tentative charter.

The committee reported to the class on the state rules for incorporation and explained the tentative charter that later was adopted. "Commerce Supply Company" was the name chosen for the corporation with a capitalization of $10.00. Forty shares of stock were sold at 25 cents a share. Each student in the class subscribed to two shares and the extra shares were distributed by means of drawing lots.

The corporation officers elected were: chairman of the board, president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer. A sales manager, sales promotion manager, and purchasing agent were appointed. ... Following the election of officers, each appointee obtained information on the type of duties he should perform and reported on these duties to the class.

Another committee made a study of the business forms that would be necessary and duplicated them. The business forms included a sales record blank, stock certificates in color, purchase requisitions, purchase orders, a perpetual inventory book, and a simple set of records. Each item of merchandise scheduled for sale was listed on the sales form and checked as sales were made. This procedure of recording sales served as a means of checking the total cash sales for the day and also as the basis for the entries in the perpetual inventory record book.

The local bank also helped in the project. A checkbook with the company name printed on the checks was purchased and a free checking service was offered to the organization by the bank.
Now the corporation was nearly ready for business. The class obtained a small cash register without a tape and practiced the technique of making change. Stock was ordered and checked against the purchase order and sales invoice. The importance of checking purchases was very pointedly driven home to the students because on the very first order our corporation was billed for two dozen typewriting pads that were not received.

Merchandise was sold in the library during the lunch hour three days a week. Several sales campaigns were organized by the sales promotion manager, complete with reduced prices, advertisements in the school newspaper, and the distribution of duplicated leaflets in color.

Discounts were taken on the company's purchases and their value pointed out to the class. Profit and loss statements and balance sheets were prepared every two weeks.

New elections of officers were not held, but each student in the class worked in every company position as an assistant.

The corporation was only scheduled to operate for one month, but the students enjoyed the organization so much that the company was continued for the duration of the semester. Dividends were declared at the stockholder's last meeting, and after the stockholders were paid, the books were closed.

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If the present class desires a similar project, the tentative plans are to start with a single proprietorship. The business would be changed to a partnership and finally to a corporation as these units are studied in class.

True, a class project of this kind entails a great deal of work and supervision on the part of the teacher, but the satisfaction that the teacher and students receive more than compensates for the effort that is put forth.62

In describing a project in a beginning bookkeeping class, Bagwell says:

This year, the beginning class in keepkeeping chose as its project the maintenance of a school savings bank... it was

decided that all bookkeeping for the bank should be done in the class period. Although the bookkeeping class is the nucleus of the savings bank, the organization includes students from the entire school. From each class in both the junior and senior high schools, two directors and two bank clerks were elected. . . . To the directors was given all authority of deciding the policies of the bank, and to the clerks was entrusted the operation of it, other than the actual bookkeeping. From the board of directors was elected a president, a vice-president and a secretary, and from the bookkeeping class was chosen a cashier and an assistant cashier. 

In suggesting small group activities for bookkeeping classes, Boynton says:

Services to Public Agencies. Community experiences of small groups within the bookkeeping class may be further extended by having them contribute their bookkeeping services in keeping records and collecting money and pledges for the Community Chest, Red Cross, and other such organization drives. Such experiences extend the concepts of service, co-operation, and community interrelationships. It gives the small class groups increased and varied working and social experiences with adults. It also puts the bookkeeping skills into a real situation and thus supports the need for skill and understanding, and the mastery of both.

In-School Work Experience. The same values which accrue from the community service are available through small group in-school work experience. Two or three students may form themselves into a group to take care of the school cafeteria books and accounts. Or the entire class may desire to assume the responsibility, with small groups rotating to do the work throughout the school year. Other opportunities for bookkeeping teams to attain work experience within the school might be found in working in the school office on records and reports; in selling tickets and keeping records for basketball, football, and other athletic games and for plays and dances; in assuming charge of the school banking program and in any other similar available school activities.

Such experiences give practice in working (a) with a bookkeeping team (group of two or three); (b) with groups outside the bookkeeping class, with bookkeeping as the bond of relationship; (c) with adults who supervise the activity programs. It gives the practical experience of using bookkeeping to meet personal and school needs

and provides practice in the use of knowledge obtained through book-keeping to guide action.

**Out-of-school Work Experience.** Through the cooperation of the business men in the community, groups of two or three students could be placed in an office for a specified time. Such time, and other conditions under which the work would be undertaken, could be determined by the process of group discussion with the group and someone from the business office. Such work experience would be a form of evaluation of the success of the classroom group work which had preceded it.64

**Distributive education.** In describing a project of a retail merchandising class at Spaulding High School, Barre, Vermont, in which the students took over the management and operation of a local department store for a day, Beede and Gendron say:

"It didn't take long to make preliminary arrangements with the Newberry store manager; then the permission of our principal . . . was readily obtained. The class was eager to undertake the project . . .

For at least three weeks prior to the big day, discussion about what to do and how to do it was the order of the day. A small portion of the time was used in determining the allocation of personnel. The manager-trainee, assistant-manager-trainees, and so on, were selected by the members of the class, voting largely on the basis of class leadership, selling ability, executive ability, and scholastic achievement. The selections were good ones.

The manager-trainee and his top assistants visited the store several times to discuss duties, procedures, and store layout with the manager, Mr. Wendell Parker.

On the day before "Store for a Day," the entire group of trainees went to the store to observe the workers whose places they were to take, to note the location of departments, to study the kinds and location of merchandise, to analyze the types of customers they were to meet, and to obtain similar pertinent information that

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would develop harmony and teamwork.

At 9:00, Mr. Parker handed the keys of the store to the student manager, "Go to it, boy; it's all yours."

Never did a group enter more wholeheartedly into a project. ... Student co-operated with student; student with regular store personnel; and vice versa. Trainee-managers and department heads solved any problems that arose and smoothed the way in other matters in the ready manner of old-timers.

It was evident that the trainees had experienced and had felt the responsibility of operating a big store. They had discovered, first hand, some of the problems of administration. They enjoyed the flush of satisfaction, too.

And it was pleasing, too, while the students were reporting what had impressed them most, to note the repeated use of two words—cooperation and responsibility. In view of the general lack of these two qualities among us these days, it would seem that the greatest praise we can offer the "Store for a Day" project is to point out that our students had learned the meaning and importance of those two words.

In describing a project cooperatively carried out by salesmanship classes at Altoona High School, Altoona, Pennsylvania, and a local department store, Heiss says:

... A chairman, to serve as co-ordinator between the committees and the store executives, was elected. Each student indicated whether he would prefer to serve on the sales-promotion, display, or merchandising committee; and then each committee group elected its own chairman.

The sales-promotion committee, working under the advertising manager of the store, had the valuable experience of participating closely in a local portion of a national program. The Bon Ton was about to announce its spring showing of "Junior First" dresses.

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The major duty of this committee was to help plan the full-page advertisement that appeared in the local newspaper the day before the style show; but, in addition to this, the committee sent a post-card invitation to every girl in our senior high school; prepared spot announcements for our local broadcasting station; and worked up other advertising materials.

The display committee, working directly under The Bon Ton's display manager, was equally busy and excited with new learning. The interior displays and the stage for the style show were completed by the store's display personnel, although designed by the committee members; but the window displays were a student accomplishment.

The merchandising committee was supervised by the merchandising manager of The Bon Ton. The committee selected the five girls who would do the actual modeling; and the committee members themselves served, too—the girls as hostesses and the boys as floormen—on the day of the show.

The experience gained by the students was a rich one, a practical one, a highly educative one.

In describing a project cooperatively carried out by distributive education students at Medford High School, Medford, Massachusetts, and local department stores, Brown says:

A fashion show not only acquaints the pupils with the buyers in local stores but also provides experience in planning and working together in a vocational situation. Pupils from the distributive education class in a Massachusetts High school, planned and staged a complete fashion show. After selecting the merchandise to be shown under the supervision of buyers, the girls, who also acted as models, went to the stores to be fitted so as to show different styles, sizes, and colors to be presented to the best advantage. Each pupil had the responsibility of collecting from all sources complete information on costumes she was to model. The coordinator acted as commentator. Each girl in the class took some part in the show.

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In discussing providing work experiences for students at Senior High School, Kittanning, Pennsylvania, Miller says:

During the spring semester of last year, 375 "student days" were spent in actual store practice. There were fifty students enrolled in the class. Students were given one-day assignments in local stores and they were required to perform each of the duties regularly delegated to clerks. This work was closely supervised. Private conferences were arranged between the instructor and the student, and between the merchant and the instructor.

No student was given an assignment of this type unless he definitely stated an enthusiastic desire for store training. On the other hand, as far as possible, each student who really wanted store training was given an opportunity to obtain it.

In describing a project in which students in a retailing class at Senior High School, Baldwin, New York, organized and operated a small retail store, Clements says:

The foundation for the project was laid back in the first semester... with a thorough study of an imaginary business and all its needs, from the capital to cases, from know-how to nails... From this study generated the wish and the plan for a real store of their own.

During each of his three years at Baldwin, Mr. Drescher [the teacher of this retailing class] has led his seniors into a different, interesting, and valuable project of some kind. This time the students did the leading; they led him into the store business.

As plans were formulated, ideas—like popcorn—burst out all over the room from pupils and teacher alike. The talent and strengths of every girl and boy were exploited; so, each pupil contributed (and was aware that he contributed) an important part of the whole scheme. Everyone was on at least one committee; and everyone voted for the chairman and the management, which comprised a store manager, an assistant manager, a head cashier, an accountant, a publicity director, two display directors, and an artist. Mr. Drescher acted in an advisory capacity and took charge of co-ordinating the whole project.

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Two solid months of preparation preceded the occupancy of the store. Merchants were canvassed; twenty-one became "co-operating merchants" by providing, at cost, the goods the students sold in their store.

Publicity was resoundingly thorough. Talks were given to fourteen groups, including the local PTA's, Lions, Kiwanis, Masons, and Board of Trade. Six stories appeared in four newspapers... Four thousand handbills were distributed from house to house. Fifty posters were placed in store windows, and daily radio announcements were made during the week over local radio station WHLI.

On opening day there were the usual Opening Day promotions, and then some 225 carnations were given to the ladies, and chewing gum was given to the children who visited the store.

All the students took turns in all the roles that must be filled in a business; thus all learned from experience the entire business of operating a small retail store...

In describing a sales laboratory at Central Commercial High School, New York, New York, which is a replica of a better than average retail store, Rosenblum says:

In order to determine the type of store which will be in operation for a period of six weeks, the students make a survey of the wants of the student body of the school. In cooperation with the salesmanship classes a questionnaire is made up, through which the school as a whole has opportunity to decide on the types of merchandise, price ranges, sizes, colors, etc. The store group carries through this project and reports to the teacher.

The next step is to become familiar with sources. The group visits wholesalers to examine merchandise lines and make selections. The selection being made and the quantities determined, students fill out the order blanks and return to await the receipt of the stock.

At the store the student group receives the shipment, examines articles for imperfections and shortages, checks invoices for prices.

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and extensions, checks styles and quality, and makes the entries of the inventory on hand in the store room.

A store manager is appointed to departmentalize the work and to keep a general oversight over operations. He requisitions the storeroom for fresh supplies for the shelves, sees that all articles are properly marked and priced. A record keeping department is set up and thereafter a close relation is maintained between store and stock room.

Students who are specializing in advertising are called into conference and presented with the problem and project of devising displays, window-dressing, and other publicity. They prepare original handbills, posters, bill-boards, and conduct publicity through classes and in clubs and organizations.

[The students] work under general supervision only. They are participating in carrying the responsibility of the store. Store keepers in the neighborhood, visiting the store, express surprise. In some cases they have asked for assistance from the students in making their own window displays,—for which work we give credit to the students.

No student is told to be original, but each student is left free to find the most satisfying way of doing his part of the work consistent with a coordinated plan. We find that when students are given the opportunity to participate in the conduct of the store, the latent ability begins to manifest itself. Almost all pupils are shown to possess some originating ability. It has been clear, however, that freedom to use his own ideals is a necessary basis for full participation: and this must be made equally clear to each student. Participation therefore succeeds in bringing out the whole-hearted cooperation of the student and through it, his natural curiosity and taste. This breaks through obstacles which often hide his real abilities.70

In reporting classroom practices in distributive education, Brown says:

Another interesting activity which offered practice in discharging responsibilities not always available to pupils in normal work

experience was carried on in several high schools. This was the operation of a school store with rotating committees made up of co-operative part-time pupils. Although on a smaller scale, all the functions of an actual retail business were carried on by committees who planned and performed all the operations in the school store. In this way pupils were able to see the interdependence and relationships of one function of retailing to another. For example, the merchandising committee could see the result of overstocking on the sales and turnover ratio; the advertising committee could see the effects of promotion on sales, cash receipts, and working capital. Operating the school store, therefore, offered excellent supplementary training to that given in the work experience program.71

In describing a project conducted by a salesmanship class at Phillipsburg High School, Phillipsburg, New Jersey, Di Salvo says:

... In past years, the tickets for the [annual school] play were sold under a plan whereby students were given complimentary tickets if they sold a certain number of tickets. I thought that this ticket-selling project would be an ideal one for my salesmanship class, so I outlined tentative plans for the project and presented them to my class. I was amazed and overwhelmed when I found that the students began supplementing the plans I had made. The class made more definite plans and decided to proceed with the project.

First of all, the appointment of five committees was suggested so that the work would be sparsely divided and everyone would be able to select a job that he or she would be most interested in and would enjoy. The five committees suggested were as follows:

1. A committee to draw advertisements on the blackboards in every homeroom.

2. A committee to write advertisements in the school notices.

3. A committee to write advertisements to be announced over the school public address system.

4. A committee to sell tickets in the box office in our gymnasium.

5. A committee to place an article in the local newspaper.

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After the committees were formed and each student had selected the committee on which he would like to work, the functions to be performed by each committee were outlined by its members.72

General business. In describing a project in which students in a general business class at The University School, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, organized and operated a bank, Dean says:

As a result of an experiment which is being conducted by the everyday business class, the students of The University School are learning banking services by experiencing banking activities. . . . Since members of the class felt that it was absolutely necessary for the banking to be made voluntary, no pressure was used in getting the bank started. . . .

I asked the students for their opinions and help in organizing the bank. They were enthusiastic and spent a great deal of time outside of class developing individual suggestions. The student-teacher helped them to set up what they would consider the purposes and the objectives of a bank for The University School.

Students in the everyday business class undertake full responsibility for the activities of the bank. Banking is open to all students of all grades, one through twelve, to the faculty members, and to the student-teachers of The University School. A central office is located on the first floor and is open from 7:45 a.m. to 8:55 a.m. on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday mornings. Students fill the following positions: president, vice-president, cashier, bookkeeper, assistant bookkeeper, deposit clerk, withdrawal clerk, file clerk, bank messenger, secretary, supplies clerk, office manager, and advertising manager.

What everyday bank experiences do our students actually learn? The following is a list of some of the experiences:

1. Planning the supplies to be used in operating the bank and in modeling the forms after the forms used in business.
2. Writing business letters.
3. Making deposit slips.

4. Filling in withdrawal slips.
5. Checking signatures on withdrawal slips with those on
   signature cards.
7. Writing checks.
8. Depositing money in the control account.
9. Receiving cash and checking amounts.
10. Posting deposits and withdrawals to individual accounts.
11. Preparing bank statements each banking day.
12. Preparing quarterly statements for depositors.

In describing a general business class in which the students
organized a business concern, Jones says:

    . . . [The students] elected a president, vice-president, secre-
    tary, treasurer, sales manager, advertising manager, purchasing
    agent, stock clerk, and file clerk.

    These pupils organized and ran the small school supply store
    located in one corner of the main corridor. Every month a new set
    of officers was elected in order to allow all students to partici-
    pate in the plan.

    This little corporation bought and sold paper, pencils, supplies,
    and candy. It actually issued stock certificates and called meet-
    ings of stockholders, who elected a board of directors. The board
    of directors appointed the officers. Later on, the board of direc-
    tors authorized dividends of five cents a share—paid out of profits.

    At the end of the semester, the business was dissolved, the stock
    certificates were redeemed at ten cents a share, and the remaining
    profit was used to purchase some needed article for the school.  

In describing a project in which students in a general business
class at Franklin Junior High School, Rock Island, Illinois, organized
and operated a candy company, Greenley says:


The organization and the operation of a candy company of the
students of the Franklin Junior High School, Rock Island, Illinois,
has proved to be an excellent project to give the students first-
hand experience and information concerning the many and varied
problems of business.

1. General organization

a. Election of Officers. The officers to be elected by the
group were: president, vice-president, secretary, and
treasurer. Regular parliamentary procedure was followed
for the selection of officers.

b. Selection of a name for the business. Each student sugges-
ted a name for the company. The name favored by the group
was decided upon by ballot.

c. Selection of a place for doing business. If there were more
than one candy company, and since there happened to be a
choice location to sell candy, each company submitted a bid
as to the amount of rent it would pay. The choice location
was awarded to the highest bidder. A lease was drawn up for
the space to be used by each company.

d. Selection of employees. The employees were: manager,
bookkeeper, advertising manager, purchasing agent, clerks,
and janitor. The number of clerks depended upon specific
conditions. One clerk was designated as the head clerk or
cashier. The requirements of each position were studied
carefully by the group.

Each student who was interested in a specific job filled
out an application blank for that job. The officers then
selected the employees, using the information gained from
the applications as the basis for their selections.

2. Securing the capital to operate the business

The necessary capital was secured by selling stock to
the students of the group. The following questions were
decided by the group under the leadership of the president:
(1) How much candy do we need to make an attractive display?
(2) What kinds of candy sell the best? (3) How much money
can we raise in this group? (4) Should we raise our capital
and then buy as much candy as we can, or should we determine
the amount of candy needed for an attractive display and then
raise capital to buy that amount? (5) How much should the
par value of the stock be? (6) Should we set a limit as to
the amount of stock any one individual can purchase? . . .
After these problems had been solved, some sort of a certificate was issued for each share of stock purchased. All money thus received was turned over to the treasurer, who was required to keep an accurate record of all receipts and expenditures.

3. Purchasing merchandise

The head clerk prepared a purchase requisition of the kinds of candy wanted and turned the information over to the purchasing agent. The purchasing agent prepared a purchase order, in duplicate. One copy of the order was delivered to the wholesale house that supplied the merchandise. When it was possible, the merchandise was delivered during class time so that the transaction could be completed before the class. When the merchandise was delivered, it was checked with the purchase order and with the invoice. If the merchandise received were as listed by the invoice and the purchase order, the invoice was approved by the purchasing agent and forwarded to the manager to be approved for payment. After the manager had approved the invoice, it was then forwarded to the treasurer, who made out a check in favor of the wholesale dealer for the payment of the merchandise. . . . After the treasurer had paid the amount of the invoice, the invoice was forwarded to the bookkeeper, who was to record the information in the purchase order register and in the merchandise sales record.

4. Selling merchandise

The time for the selling of the candy depended upon specific conditions. The noon hour was the best time. The clerks who had been selected by the officers took care of all selling. Each student in the group could be a "traveling salesman" and he could secure orders for merchandise. . . .

One of the problems involved in selling merchandise was a well-planned program of advertising. The advertising manager saw that the merchandise of his company was displayed correctly and that posters were prepared calling attention to his particular organization. Various methods of advertising were used, depending entirely upon the ingenuity of the advertising manager and his assistants. Having the principal, the teachers, and the leading students endorse the merchandise of a company proved to be an excellent means of advertising. Since endorsements cost money, the company decided the amount it could pay for such services. However, the amount paid was not as important as the problem of recording all information about such transactions.
5. Paying of obligations

In order to make the problem as complete as possible, each group elected two students who were known as the bankers for that group. All funds were deposited by the treasurer in the bank according to current business procedures. When the account was opened, signature cards were filled out, and deposit slips were filled out for each deposit.

The treasurer of each company made out the checks for the payment of all obligations, such as salaries, purchases, rent, supplies, and commissions. The manager prepared the payroll with the assistance of the secretary. All obligations were approved by the president before the treasurer could issue checks.

The amount of the salaries to be paid to officers were decided upon by the stockholders. The salaries for the manager, the bookkeeper, the advertising manager, the purchasing agent, the clerks, and the janitor were set by the officers.

6. Keeping of records

The records for the candy company varied according to personal decisions. However, there was a detailed report each day concerning the opening inventory, the daily purchases, the total merchandise available for sale, the closing inventory, the daily sales, and the detail of change resulting from sales. Each day was regarded as a fiscal period which required a detailed report of the exact profit or loss for that period.

7. Division of profits

With the completion of the project and all items of business finished, the profits or the losses were divided equally among the shareholders of stock.

8. Miscellaneous problems

Since the company had just one sale of stock, it was necessary for those students who wished to buy stock after the business started to purchase the shares owned by some person in the company. This part of the problem became interesting when information relative to the stock market was introduced to the class. The financial and stock
quotations that are presented in the newspapers became most interesting to the students. Students were encouraged to buy and to sell their shares of stock, always taking into consideration the present value plus the anticipated earnings. There was no limit to the number of shares of stock any one stockholder could have, provided all shares above the limit of twenty were secured by purchasing from another stockholder.75

In describing the way in which students participated in attacking and solving a business problem at Randall Junior High School, Washington, D. C., Holland says.

With the steadily growing complexity of our society, the need for educating youth for effective living is receiving greater emphasis. As a result, changes in methods of procedure in classroom instruction are being examined with increased interest. One of these changes has been the fostering of maximum participation of students in educational process through teacher-student planning. This article is a description of such a plan of work in practice with a small group of business students in a District of Columbia junior high school.

In September, 1947, our school faced an unfortunate situation in which the school cafeteria faced a deficit of over $2,000. The complexity of this situation necessitated detailing a teacher to analyze the problem and set up an adequate bookkeeping system. To assist with this task the teacher was given a small class of boys majoring in business for a double period, the equivalent of a period for general business and one for commercial arithmetic. The boys expressed a desire to assist with finding a solution to the business problem of our school.

The plan of teacher-student planning was an outgrowth of the teacher's desire to develop this class into one of functional business with all the problems and the activities growing out of the cafeteria situation, a situation almost as new to him as to the students.

In assuming responsibility, the students first became acquainted with every detail of the cafeteria—the purchases, the companies

from which purchases were made, procedures for receiving and distributing food, use of the store room, and other problems. While acquiring this information, we arranged our room into one most closely resembling a business office.

After thoroughly understanding the situation and formulating its own objectives, the class planned its method of procedure by breaking down the entire problem into smaller problems which were accepted by members of the group for complete analysis.

Opportunity was given for each student to work with the entire group, with smaller groups of two or three, and then handle some aspect of the problem himself.

The general procedure was that of initiating a plan, putting it to work to test it, and then revising the plan in light of new evidence or difficulties arising. In executing individual problems which were numerous, the student who was insecure in trying to plan for himself secured guidance through individual conferences with the teacher and the chairman of his particular group. Each student assumed the responsibility for all records pertaining to a particular company of his choice. After the group decided upon the type of information that would be needed for daily records of purchases, business forms were set up so that common information could be kept by each student. As each new problem arose in the cafeteria, it was handled by the group working on problems most closely related to it. Individual problems that concerned a particular company or commodity became the responsibility of the students keeping records on that type of purchase.

There was little difficulty in evaluating student growth for two reasons: (1) The class was sufficiently small for detailed individual progress sheets to be kept for each student; (2) many of the activities ended in productions, such as written or oral reports, charts, or graphs. The class worked out a point system of marking, which periodically was converted into a numerical grade. The grades, however, represented more than actual production as the class shared in rating each member on such qualities as co-operation, agreeableness, neatness, initiative and business manner.

There was also concrete evidence that our initial problem was being solved as evidenced by the fact that the cafeteria had paid its delinquent debt completely by January, 1948, and closed the school year in June, 1948, with a small balance. Throughout the year there was much evidence that interest aroused by real problems is one of the best bases for successful learning. For example, in assisting with analyzing the profit and loss statement submitted by the
teacher, the students spent periods computing percentages, an activity which when even well-motivated and presented under ordinary circumstances often results in lack of interest. It was also frequently apparent that the tedious part of learning was accepted with interest when the activity had real meaning.76

In describing a project in which students in a general business class at the High School, Mount Holly, New Jersey, organized and operated a placement bureau, Haines says:

... One class inaugurated a school placement bureau sponsoring the three following types of employment (1) Part time, (2) Summer, (3) Permanent Graduate.

The local area was adequately publicized through several advertising media. After an inquiry into the sales psychology involved, several typewritten letters were sent, through which appeals to the business men, housewife, professional men, and others were made. The surrounding territory was thoroughly covered with this type of publicity. Next, a study of newspaper advertising was made and was followed by an extensive campaign. The class, through committees, designed application blanks and other necessary forms to facilitate the operation of the bureau. A school publicity program, in which the merits of the bureau were presented was carried on. ...77

In discussing opportunities in general business courses for the development of social-economic and consumer-business competencies, Enterline says:

If the student is to be expected, as he grows older, to become increasingly competent to manage his own personal business affairs, he must be given many opportunities in school to pass judgments, to make choices, and to render decisions on business matters which are component to his school experiences. The school is a business organization—in many communities the largest business organization. The scheduling of student activities in the school, and the

financing of these activities, are business. It is a type of business in which students are interested because it is a part of their present-day living. There student activities are rich in practical general business problems, problems which, if solved by the students themselves, make a real contribution to the higher competency levels.78

Business arithmetic. In explaining their work in mathematics, the students of The University High School, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, say:

One of the most valuable things that we did in our mathematics work was the planning and organizing of a bank. We did this in the latter part of the seventh grade. It started when we were studying stocks, bonds, and banking. These were very difficult to comprehend. We were all trying to think of some way to clarify what we had learned, when someone suggested having a bank. It seemed to be a grand idea, but we wondered if it would be possible to have real money and checks. (The common ambition of everyone in the class was to have a checking account.) We elected a committee which made all the plans. These were then submitted to the director of our school, and were approved exactly as they were. We then had checkbooks mimeographed, and elected officers for the bank. On the day our bank opened, everyone in the class deposited a sum of money. There was no limit to how much we could deposit, but the largest amount was ninety cents. We had made arrangements with our office to make checks on our bank negotiable, and before long the drug store across the street agreed to accept our checks. We felt very important walking into a place of business, ordering a candy bar, and then nonchalantly writing a check for a nickel. By the end of the year we certainly knew more about the actual workings of banks than we could have learned in twice the time spent in reading.79

Simulated Business Experiences in the Classroom


79Class of 1938, University High School, The Ohio State University, Were We Guinea Pigs? (New York: Henry Holt and Company), pp. 196-97.
Business education in general. In describing a project conducted by the students at Central High School, Wabeno, Wisconsin, Mikich says:

A general office project was promised to the commercial students of the Wabeno High School at the successful completion of their commercial courses. For one full week they were to operate a business proposed and set up by them.

... [The students] decided to "operate" a commercial airline. One week was spent preparing and setting up the business. Classes were combined, materials were procured, stationery and forms were printed on the stencil-duplicating machine, rooms were obtained, records set up, and personnel selected. Everyone joined in advertising the business throughout the school and near-by towns.

The entire school building was used for the project. Small conference rooms were used for private offices. The shorthand room was a reservation department with the aid of the school's speaker system. The school office was the main ticket office, the gymnasium was the hangar, and a small room off the gymnasium was the repair shop. An airplane seating twenty-five persons was set up there. Signs, maps, and advertisements were hung throughout the building. The typing room was the stenographic pool; the bookkeeping room was the accounting department.

The high-ranking boys of the shorthand and typing classes were appointed officers of the company and department managers. The high-ranking girls were their secretaries. Others in the shorthand and typing classes were stenographers, office clerks, messengers, and reservation clerks. Members of the commercial geography class were the meteorologists and made out all the routes and schedules. Bookkeeping students kept records of sales, expenses, specified salaries of personnel, and advertising. Everyone in the business dressed for his job.

The personnel office was complete in every detail: interviewers, voice-recording machine, tests, and investigating committee. Applicants applied for such positions as stenographers, secretaries, bookkeepers, clerks, stewardesses, managers, agents, and pilots.

Many incidents of an airline business were brought into the organization. Planes failed to depart on schedule because of bad weather, thus causing the re-routing of passengers on trains and busses. Reservations were made; cancellations recorded. The complaint department was kept busy calming dissatisfied customers. A training school was in progress for the instruction of the new personnel.
All the high school students, instructors, and several of the businessmen of the town participated. Reservations were received from people in near-by towns as well as from townspeople.

As a result, the students all worked in harmony, understood the organization of a business better than they had, and thoroughly enjoyed the accounting department's announcement of the profits made by their firm. . . .80

In making an appeal for democratic relations in business education classrooms, Murphy and Murphy say:

. . . One procedure which would incorporate . . . desirable avenues of learning would be to have the students plan the class organization in the form of a democratically-run office. Each person has his own job to do and is responsible to the group for doing his part to have a smooth-functioning organization. The students, under the guidance of the teacher, should decide on the appropriate offices and the students who are to act in those capacities. Conditions will vary, but most business classes can find use for the services of student monitors who will work as time or attendance clerks, supply clerks, file clerks, receptionists, publicity directors in charge of bulletin boards, office managers and assistant teachers. These positions should be rotated so that all will have a chance to contribute both as intelligent followers and as leaders.81

Bookkeeping. In discussing the use of classroom dramatizations in bookkeeping classes, Hanna says:

. . . Let's assume that our new topic concerns "Records of Corporations." Which of these two situations do you feel will lead to better understandings and more permanent learning?

Situation No. 1. No dramatization is involved; the class is conducted in the traditional manner of study and recitation.


The students read the unit in the textbook. The text states that a corporation is "an artificial being created by law, and given many of the legal capacities of individuals"; that a corporation must have a charter issued by the state; that capital stock is "an investment which the stockholders make in a corporation"; and that dividends are "that portion of the earned surplus of a corporation which is divided among the stockholders."

The students study the terms. They list them, write definitions. The objective is to be able, eventually, to match the definitions with the terms on a chapter test.

The students undertake also a number of bookkeeping exercises that require the use of such accounts as Capital Stock Authorized, Capital Stock Subscribed, Capital Stock Issues, Surplus Earned, and Dividends Payable.

The major portion of the class period is spent in doing or checking exercise material. Some questions and answers are organized around the entries required by the problems.

Situation No. 2. The topic is made the subject of a dramatization—not histrionics, please note; not a humorous skit of a few minutes' visualization, but rather a detailed enactment of the subject matter of the topic on a level in which all students participate. The objective is not entertainment, notwithstanding the fact that interest will be high; the objective is to simulate real experience so that understanding will be complete.

1. The class decides to set up a dummy corporation. The group discusses (a) why it would be better to establish a corporation than to establish a partnership, and (b) the disadvantages of any corporate organization.

2. The class examines certificates of incorporation—perhaps the illustrations in several different bookkeeping textbooks—to determine the items covered. The class writes co-operatively the certificates of incorporation for their class corporation. The class discusses such topics as the amount of stock to be authorized, the differences between par-value and non-par-value stock, the differences between preferred and common stock.

3. Each student in class subscribes to take a certain number of shares of stock. The accounts for Capital Stock Authorized and Capital Stock Subscribed are placed on the blackboard for discussion.

4. Stock certificates are prepared and issued to each class member. Entries in the Capital Stock Subscribed and Capital Stock accounts are illustrated and discussed.
5. The class holds a stockholders' meeting and elects the board of directors. The voting rights of stock are discussed.

6. The board of directors holds a meeting in the classroom and elects the officers of the corporation. Duties of corporation officers are discussed.

7. A Profit and Loss Statement is presented (assumed that the corporation has been in operation a year), and the directors determine the amount of profits that are to be paid in dividends. The class discusses where dividends come from and the desirability of retaining part of the profits in surplus. The Surplus account and the Dividends Payable account are discussed and illustrated on the blackboard.

8. Dividend checks are issued to the stockholders. Entries to record dividend payments are explained.

9. The students do exercises involving corporate records from their textbook.

Comparison of the Two Situations. In Situation No. 1, the approach was through memorization. The terms (capital stock, surplus, dividends, certificate of incorporation, par-value stock, non-par-value stock, preferred stock, common stock, etc.) were not attached to any real experiences. The knowledge is mainly verbal and probably will be forgotten soon.

In Situation No. 2, the procedure for establishing a corporation was simulated in the classroom. Through participation the students gained a background of experiences to which to tie terms and bookkeeping accounts. Knowledge is functional and will probably be remembered.

There are many phases of business and recording activities that bookkeeping students cannot possibly experience at first hand. Dramatic participation can be used as a means of getting students as close as possible to certain real situations that they could not otherwise directly experience. It personalizes content, thus increasing student interest. It leads to more permanent learnings. It teaches students to work co-operatively toward a common goal. 

In discussing possible small group activities for the bookkeeping class, Boynton says:

... An introduction to out-of-school work experience through a substitute for it could be the establishment of a simulated bookkeeping office within the classroom. Small groups could be established to find out what a bookkeeping office is like. Through discussion, the setup of the classroom to simulate an office could be determined, a type of business could be chosen, books opened, and operations carried through a fiscal period.\(^{83}\)

Distributive education. In describing how the distributive education class at Central High School, Evansville, Indiana, is organized as a store, Woodward says:

When teaching the unit on store organization and management, Warren Wilhelm, D. E. teacher-coordinator, Central High School, Evansville, Indiana, actually organizes the class as a store. Each student becomes a stockholder, who in turn helps elect a board of directors. The board hires the officials to manage the store...

The store manager (hired by the board of directors) gives each class member a chance to apply for the job of his choice. In this way, the student must study the job specifications, and decide whether or not qualifications fit him for the job. He helps hire himself!

After the store personnel is "hired," the advertising manager works out the opening day ads, along with the department buyers. There is usually some one student interested in art and copy for ad work. Another student may sketch floor plan layout and exterior, along with window displays. This is also coordinated with the buyers.

In the meantime, the buyers and their assistants must study for their model stock plan. They study the market, contact stores for information, get trend information, and bring in information they have gathered from the downtown stores.

Much time is spent in committee work, meeting with store buyers, drawing up plans, studying sources, and the like.

After about two weeks, the "department heads" make reports to the entire class. The reports are oral, usually accompanied by wall charts and diagrams prepared in committee meetings...

In describing a project in which students at South Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, planned and operated an imaginary retail store, Brown says:

A project which was quite successful in helping pupils to grasp better over-all principles and operating procedures in distribution has been the preparation of a manual on "Establishing and Conducting a Business." The general plan and content was determined after a discussion with the entire class. Each pupil then planned to open an imaginary retail store. Usually it was the same type of store in which he was employed. He prepared complete plans for opening and operating the retail business he had selected. He was guided in the preparation of his manual through classroom discussion, the study of reference materials, and actual observation. Briefly, the manual contains chapters as follows: Explanation of the Type of Store, Selection of Store Location, Store Organization and Departmentalization, Financial Requirements, Layout and Equipment, Personnel Requirements and Management, Merchandise Control, Legal Considerations—Insurance, Records, Advertising and Display, Customer Service, Credit and Collection Policies, Store Policies, The Opening Day, and Future Plans. This project was carried on throughout an entire term while pupils were also getting first-hand information through work experiences.

In discussing the utilization of sales demonstrations by students at Laurens High School, Laurens, South Carolina, Brown says:

The sales demonstration is used in Laurens, South Carolina, as a method of teaching pupils to analyze the sale critically and

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objectively. To give the demonstration, each pupil sets up his own department and sells whatever merchandise he chooses. He must, of course, make a thorough study of the merchandise he is to sell. Normally he selects merchandise from the store in which he is employed. Other pupils act as customers. The "customers" learn in advance what merchandise is to be sold in order that they may be prepared to offer natural objections. They also imitate various kinds of customers with whom they have dealt in their work. When the pupil concludes his sales attempt, he is scored objectively by other members on fourteen different aspects of his performance.

Office practice. In discussing the committee organization of a clerical practice class, Bauernfeind and Lockwood say:

Clerical practice is commonly understood as the non-stenographic phase of office practice, as differentiated from secretarial office practice. With this understanding the reader will understand the why-for of the "stations" described in this presentation.

The clerical practice program which can be developed on the committee organization plan is truly a model office. In this plan each student has a station, which he keeps for at least two weeks before he is rotated to a new position, and the work of all the other students depends on each individual in the group.

The stations, or positions in this clerical office practice organization, are those of general manager (instructor), accounts receivable clerk, accounts payable clerk, invoice clerk, audit clerk, head bookkeeper, file clerk, stock room clerk, messenger, duplicating machine clerk, voice transcribing machines, and cashier-payroll clerk. Before this plan is put into operation a complete set of transactions are devised which will provide enough work for such a group for one semester.

The plan begins with each member of the class writing a letter of application and completing a personal data sheet for the purpose

of securing the job he most desires. It may be necessary to have
group discussion of the various responsibilities and duties of
each job before the letters are written. After all the letters
are completed, the general manager (instructor) interviews each
applicant before the group. Each employee (student) has a rating
sheet for each applicant and is a part in selecting the person for
each job which is open. . . .

After the employees are chosen, and the staff for the model
office is completed, the matter of pay rates must be established.
Rather than have this done in an arbitrary manner by the general
manager (instructor), it may well be done by the committee system.
In some cases the entire group meets to decide the wage rates for
each job in the office; in other cases a group of three are chosen
by the general manager to work out the scale. . . .

With the operation of the office ready to begin it is now neces-
sary to have certain policies established about absence, tardiness,
time to present requisitions to the stock room, time of mail deliv-
ery, frequency of messenger service, schedule of pay days, etc.
These operational policies are no longer a matter entirely in the
hands of management in business, so in this office a committee has
the responsibility to work out the details. Naturally, the commit-
tee is guided by the general manager, but only in an advisory
capacity. This method may seem slow to the reader, but there is
a great deal of satisfaction to see Mary, John, and Jane struggle
with their problem; and to see the glow of achievement when the
policies for their office are established for the remainder of the
group.

When the office is in operation, with orders arriving by tele-
gram and by mail, with the orders being cleared by the stock depart-
ment, with the orders prepared and audited by the audit clerk, and
the final invoice recorded in the accounts receivable ledgers, we
have a complete cycle in the making.

. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

The next step in the operation of this office is the rotation
of the workers to new jobs. A Promotion Committee is appointed
to work out where Jim, Mary, John, Rachel, and the others, will
work for the next two or three-week period. It is true, that in
the semester's work all the students will work at all stations,
but through the committee-plan the decision is made by members of
the group. Still later, it is decided by the Policy Committee that
increases in all wage rates should be made. As this committee meets
it is necessary to study the income, expenses, profits, overhead,
and surplus of the company in order to decide the margin which is
left for increases. . . .
In this office routine, through the committee plan, the general manager is never idle. He is perhaps the busiest man on the staff; but he is also the most completely satisfied person, for he sees democracy in action in the life-like atmosphere of the office-classroom. Mary, John, Jane, and yes, even Rachel are anxious to come to clerical office practice because each knows and feels he is a very active part of the entire organization and operation. 87

**General business.** In describing a project in which students of general business at Winona Public Schools, Winona, Minnesota, planned the construction and operation of an imaginary office building, Johnson says:

What is the local city's greatest need? This problem was presented to a class of thirty-two ninth-grade students in general business after a unit on the study of money had been completed. The group agreed that a survey of the business district should be made to determine the number of needs and the importance of each. As a result, a field trip through the business district was planned. Informal discussion was encouraged throughout the trip.

The day following the trip it was revealed, in the opinion of the class members, that Winona's greatest need was a new office building. The general plan for such a building, the operating organization, the size, the location, the general costs, and the possible returns on the investment were topics for discussion during succeeding class periods. The sum to be raised for such an enterprise was set at $320,000.

The group agreed that each student would share equally in the purchase of stock. A committee was appointed to design and to word the stock certificates.

**THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS.** A board of seven directors was elected by popular vote. The members of the board chose the officers: a president, a vice-president, a secretary, and a treasurer. The duties of the board of directors were rather extensive as all important matters were brought before it for discussion and sanction. The president appointed two members to draw up the articles of incorporation. All shareholders signed the by-laws "in the presence

ARCHITECT COMMITTEE. The drawing of the plans for such a building was an activity selected by those who were interested in art work of this type. This committee received specifications from the board of directors. The drawings consisted of a set of floor plans and a sketch of the facade.

THE BANK. Each student was given a check book at the beginning of the year. On the first stub he entered the sum of seventeen thousand dollars. His first check was made in payment of the stock for GENERAL BUSINESS, INCORPORATED. A committee of bankers was selected to keep the accounts for each student. The committee was provided with a file. It designed the statements to be used and the forms necessary to carry on this activity successfully. The work in the textbook was used early to familiarize the students with correct methods of making out checks, of keeping accurate records on the stubs, and of reconciling bank statements.

REAL ESTATE COMMITTEE. Several students selected possible sites for an office building. They inquired about the relative values of each site and they gave the information to an agent, who was to represent them and to receive the usual commission if his sale was successful. The agent appeared before the board of directors to sell the sites, presenting the relative merits of each. . . . The board of directors was extremely careful about selecting the site. This made the agent's task doubly difficult, but after several meetings, an agreement was reached. The treasurer of the board drew a check for the amount and this check was submitted to the owner of the property who, in turn, wrote a check to the agent for the commission.

SALESMAHSHIP. Each member of the class selected an article of equipment or of building material to sell to the board of directors. The section in the textbook on salesmanship was discussed during the time the students were preparing their salesmanship arguments. A sales letter was written first and then the salesman was "called in" to present his arguments. The sales letters were reviewed by the general manager who notified the salesmen of the time and the place to meet the board. Telegrams were the means of this last communication.

THE GENERAL MANAGER. Because of the detail work to be done, the board of directors realized the need of engaging a general manager. All members of the class were eligible for the position, which was to pay $200 a month. Each student wrote a letter of application to the secretary of the board, signing it with a fictitious name, but placing his textbook number in a corner for reference. All letters were submitted to a committee who chose the successful candidate.
and submitted his recommendation to the board. The duties of the general manager were discussed in order to give him an idea of what was to be expected of him. One of his chief duties was to keep an accurate record of the offices that were rented and to see to it that the rent was paid each month.

INSURANCE. Naturally, the building needed to be insured. A committee, or an insurance firm (which occupied offices in the building), was given a chance to sell insurance to the board. In addition, each student in the class was approached on the matter of personal insurance. Each student selected the type of insurance that he thought would be beneficial. The section on insurance in the textbook was discussed at this point. Premiums were paid by each student for the period of one year. The amount was deducted from the balance in the check stub.

RAMCZIK INVESTMENT COMPANY. One of the students played the part of a broker. Each member of the class selected a stock or a bond from the list in the daily paper and wrote a check for the amount of stock purchased, plus brokerage, to the investment company. Each student kept a graph of quotations for six weeks. He was privileged to buy and to sell at will. The broker kept the brokerage and wrote checks for the balance. As a whole, the class lost quite heavily. The moral of this lesson was quite evident at the end of the period because of this intimate experience.

FILING. In order that the organization's business would be conducted efficiently, it was necessary to build suitable files. The work in the textbook was discussed when this need became apparent. After suitable skill had been accomplished in the methods of filing, students could go about using the files of the organization whenever it was necessary. The general manager and his assistant were held responsible for the upkeep of the files.

RECORDS. Each student participating in an activity realized the need of keeping neat and accurate records. Here, too, the textbook was the basic reference. The treasurer kept his records of the finances of the corporation. Purchases and sales records were handled by the assistant manager. The manager had to be able to tell each patron the offices he occupied and the rental rate of each office. The banking committee had to be able to check with the patrons concerning bank balances. The broker had to be able to tell his patrons what stock they owned, how many shares they owned, what they paid for the shares, and the amount of brokerage. The insurance committee had to be able to tell their patrons what insurance policies they had and the premiums for each policy.

BUSINESS POSITIONS AND ORGANIZATION. The organization of the business was largely in the hands of the board of directors. The
board determined the amount of help and the service that would be needed. Elevator operators, janitors, engineers, telephone operators (local exchange), general manager, and assistant general manager were the positions for which salaries must be provided.

PUBLICITY COMMITTEE. It was necessary to advertise for positions and office rentals. The publicity committee was paid according to the amount of service rendered. They made recommendations concerning the extent and the type of suitable publicity, which were submitted to the board of directors for criticism.

LAW. Contracts needed to be drawn between various parties for such purposes as the purchase of the site, the construction of the building, the purchases of equipment, the employment, and the sale of office space. Each member of the class chose the documents that he wished to word.

TAXES. Naturally, the corporation must pay taxes. The rates were ascertained and the amount was determined. When the building was sold and the stockholders were reimbursed, a check was made on the bank balance of the members of the class. All incomes and expenditures were determined and considered for the income tax report. Those stockholders who had sufficient incomes were compelled to pay the federal and the state taxes.

Other topics, such as transportation and communication, were discussed as separate units.

I realize that this is a superficial set-up and that experiences in this type of organization are not life situations. The attempt was made to bring the students closer to possible life situations and, in so doing, the interest was keener. This interest, alone, was worth the effort.88

In describing the work of a general business class at Franklin High School, Franklin Minnesota, in which students set up imaginary business organizations, Knudson says:

May I conduct you on a tour through Utopia, the city you find in our ninth-grade elementary business class? . . .

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Its organization grew out of our efforts to answer the oft-repeated plea, "Can't we make our business training class more interesting?" The answer turned out to be a first rate solution of the age-old problem of motivation; more, it proved to be much more educational and worth while than the ordinary class routine we had previously followed.

Yes, this is really a little city. Those two boys are each conducting a bank. This boy over in this corner has a post office—he relays letters to me, for checking. You see, each boy and girl in this class, in Utopia, has chosen a business or profession in which he is particularly interested; and he is learning about business by conducting his own business or profession. As we progress through the course, he enlarges his activities so that he really learns what business is and how it clicks by making it click for himself.

Those two "bankers" are superior students. Until we established Utopia, they found our course scarcely challenged them; but now that they have a bank, they are busy carrying on their business—including the advising of their patrons. Now they spend much extra time in reading and research so as better to conduct their business.

Because of his interest in airplanes, Bob is the owner of an aircraft factory. His is a "big business," and he gets a better insight into aviation and the problems involved in it through studying aviation magazines and handling his business affairs.

Bonnie's Dress Shoppe is very popular. She is keeping a perpetual inventory from which she replenishes her stock, always watching her expenses so that she can make a reasonable profit.

Dale is carrying on the occupation of his father--farming. He is discovering the many business problems involved, from the selling of grain and keeping records to the buying of hail insurance.

Jerry, who works in a bakery after school, chose a bake shop for his business in class. The problems of advertising, buying, and selling in class give him a picture of the work his employer has.

And so, though Main Street is not actually visible, each class member is sincerely living his part as a Utopian businessman. There is a feeling of a united and co-operating village. Its name, Utopia, is definitely a misnomer, for we do have our problems; but in terms of satisfactory accomplishment, the procedure is a step toward "classroom Utopianism."

Of course, this method could become a front for activity with no meaning—just play. To prevent such a situation, the teacher
must be alert at all times to make every activity meaningful and educational.

... We have not gone so far as to conduct the class entirely on the activity level. Instead, we first study a unit and then apply it. We might, for example, spend four days on a topic—reading about it, analyzing it, discussing it, perhaps dramatizing or visualizing it; then on the fifth day we would go to Utopia again and apply what we have just learned to conducting our cityful of businesses for a period.

In the study portion of each unit, we may have special committee activities—making graphs and charts, for example; and it is natural that the members of the committee will draw on their Utopia businesses for the "slant" of their handiwork. A line graph showing how insurance premium rates rise with age is likely to be made by the Utopia Insurance Man. A bar graph showing comparative costs of bus, train, and plane travel will doubtless reflect the keen interest of Utopia Travelers, Incorporated.

After a thorough class discussion of each unit, the pupils put the new knowledge into practice. When students realize that they will be putting to use the facts they are learning, they pay more attention to details. After making use of the information in their Utopia business activities, students have a much better understanding of the topics presented.

The following shows how several of the important units are handled in the activity period.

Banking

To achieve the objective of teaching an understanding of the functions of money and its substitutes and of banking services, two banks were established in Utopia—one in either corner in the front of the room. Each had half the class as its patrons.

Money is deposited in checking and savings accounts: checks are drawn on the accounts for payments of debts contracted in the course of business; checks are certified; cashier's checks and bank drafts are secured; certificates of deposit are purchased; bank statements are sent out and are reconciled by each patron; notes are discounted; collections are made through the use of notes, order bills of lading, and drafts.

Money Management

To gain an understanding of the principles of intelligent spending and buying, the students through the banks and in business
transactions with other members, practice buying and selling, borrow money, and make use of mortgages and promissory notes. Interest rates are determined and paid. A notation of due dates is kept in a tickler file.

A more thorough understanding of money management is obtained by keeping records of financial transactions in the journals and ledger. Simplified cash receipts, cash payments, purchases and sales journals, and a customers ledger are used. Transactions requiring general-journal entries are kept only in notation form because a complete knowledge of bookkeeping procedures is out of the question in this course. This record work, however, serves as a good introduction to a bookkeeping course because the students realize the necessity for accurate records and the need for standard procedures.

Saving and Investing

Through their activities in the banks, the students open savings accounts, collect standard rates of interest, apply for withdrawals, and deposit money. Many invest their money by buying stocks and bonds from a student broker who keeps in touch with current business activities through the daily newspaper market quotations. Others invest in the one corporation we organized in Utopia, and thus are interested in its operation and its declaration of dividends.

Insurance

Class study and discussion brought about the understanding of the principle of insurance as a means for sharing economic risks. When one student became more thoroughly informed through his own research study, he devoted his class activities to the business of explaining, discussing, and selling insurance to the Utopians.

Proper rates for each type of insurance are charged, and a record is kept for the payment of premiums. Because insurance policies are not available, simple forms were made by the class and additional copies were prepared for our use by the typing class.

Travel

A travel bureau, organized and operated by a member of the class, provides the experience necessary to show how the transportation services can be used most advantageously. When a Utopian businessman must plan a trip in the course of his work—whether by bus, railroad, plane, or ship—he appeals to the travel bureau for arrangements.

To be considered are the methods of travel, schedules, rates, and reservations. As evidence of how the trip was planned, the
traveler writes an outlined itinerary, giving important details for checking by the teacher.

Communication

For the imaginative business pupil, many situations arise in which the use of communication, either by telephone, telegraph, or letter are utilized. Stationery and telegraph blanks are kept on the teacher's desk. When letters or telegrams are written, a duplicate is kept "on file" and the original, properly folded and inserted in a properly addressed envelope, is "mailed" in the Utopia Post Office. Such communications reach the teacher's desk for checking.

When addressed to a fellow citizen, the letters are "delivered" and the addressee is expected to answer them. When addressed to an imaginary person or company, the teacher briefly writes an answer on the letter before returning it. Telegram rates are determined by the sender from a schedule prepared in class, and the amount is recorded in his cash payments journal.

Information on the shipping of goods is included in this section. When a shipment is made, a letter is sent to the consignee informing him of the method of sending, the rates, and the approximate date of its arrival.

Filing

After handling so many forms and business papers, the students appreciate the value of a systematic plan for keeping the information. As soon as methods of filing and procedures are studied and discussed, each "businessman" starts a file of his own choice, such as a box, bellows, or card file. By actually having papers to keep in a place where they could easily be found, the pupils realize the value of correct filing procedure and learn to utilize it in their businesses. Their files included such materials as duplicates of letters sent, letters received, invoices, bank statements, insurance policies, inventories, and canceled checks.

Business Organization

Although most of the businesses represented in class were sole proprietorships, two partnerships and a corporation did exist. By transacting business with them, the entire class received additional information regarding their organization and operation.

This program provides a complete business environment in which each student can understand the relationship between personal,
business, and social welfare.

Checking is done after each unit by a written report from each student on what he has accomplished, by observation, and by an analysis of the records and files of business papers kept.89

In describing the work of a general business class at Purcell High School, Cincinnati, Ohio, in which students set up imaginary business organizations, Beyer says:

... The plan outlined here is principally intended for schools that offer business courses or a business curriculum simply as one among many different courses of study. All that is demanded is a little ingenuity, patience to wait for results, and a realization that the teacher must expend much more time in labor than he extracts in fruit. One good point, perhaps the saving feature that makes all the rest worth while, is that the student, while learning the fundamental principles and procedures of business, is given the chance to develop a certain sense of responsibility. The student is forced to rely on his own talent to make his part in the program succeed and be of interest and use to the others in the class.

Two semesters were consumed in the execution of the plan, although other teachers might shorten the program if desired. For the first semester the school week was divided into two unequal parts: the first three days constituted the lecture and discussion aspect and the last two days were devoted to reference work in the library. The lecture periods were used to acquaint the students with the theory and practices they would need during the actual plan and to iron out any group difficulties encountered on the two research days. The reference work revolved around topics chosen from the textbook because they fundamentally covered important phases of future work in the second semester.

For approximately two months the class functioned in the manner described. At the end of that time the students no longer needed the periods on Thursday and Friday for library work. Instead, each group organized its findings into coherent programs and, upon approval of the teacher, presented them to the others. Since many of the groups wanted to stage skits and use the public address

system, the auditorium was the scene for the presentations. ... Meanwhile, the first part of the week was still occupied with teacher explanation and trouble discussion.

Shortly after the second semester began, the students felt ready to organize their separate businesses and inaugurate the second phase of the program. Several class periods were used to decide which kinds of businesses would function and who would belong to each concern. From these preliminary, informal meetings, different companies were suggested—a radio corporation, a newspaper plant, a bank, a motor company, a travel agency, a printing plant, an employment agency, and a post office. The last two organizations merged as a governmental bureau which also included tax collection. Then the motor company and the travel agency were eliminated. Pleasantly enough, the twenty-five students scattered themselves evenly over the five companies.

Chairs, tables, typewriters, and other available furniture and supplies were proportionately divided. Each group established itself in a portion of the room with the center completely free. As soon as each organization was settled, immediate plans for the smooth operation of the companies were worked out. Each concern, doing about the same work as the others, discussed the most apparent needs of its company, such as electing a president or manager, estimating amount of material, planning sources of revenue, fixing prices, and preparing contracts.

For convenience of treatment each concern is mentioned individually ... T H E R A D I O C O R P O R A T I O N . After a station manager had been chosen, the five radiomen placed an order with the printing company to make signs with the station's name on them. Then the group went from company to company soliciting sponsors for station-written commercials. Later on the crew planned programs satisfactory to the sponsors and aired them on Fridays. Following each broadcast, the sponsors as a group would offer criticisms and improvements for subsequent programs were incorporated. As for material, the radio group simply put their heads together and used whatever ideas they could discover. Scripts, commercials, recorded music, and the acting chores were accordingly assigned. Such responsibilities forced the members of the radio company to come through with suitable programs. Usually they succeeded quite well.

All business transactions, such as bills, bank accounts, purchase of materials, and salaries, provided ample opportunity for applying business techniques. These were, after all, the chief reason for the plan, and the students did get a chance to use their business training. But more than that, the boys who were in the radio
company as well as those who operated the other businesses were
given a degree of responsibility. The sense of responsibility seems
even more important than actual business sense for it is responsi-

bility which makes the successful business, not only individually
centered responsibility but also social interest, cooperation with
others in the pursuit of a common goal, and the give and take of
common interest. . . .

THE NEWSPAPER CONCERN. Once the editor-in-chief had been voted
into office, the newspaper plant took stock of its needs. In addi-
tion to the business essentials of the radio corporation, the news-
paper people realized that they had to negotiate for a suitable
press—the Mimeograph machine answered their purpose. Then suf-
ficient paper to distribute a copy of the publication once a week
to each member of the other concerns was estimated. Elaborate
plans matching the daily journals of the city were speedily nipped
in the bud by the consideration of the universal newsprint shortage.
So the ambitious journalists were satisfied to run a small but
smooth periodical, which combined general school newbits, adver-
tisements for the other businesses (sold at a fixed rate a column-
inch), inside-business hints, pale-columnists' gossip, editorials,
and opinion columns.

Transactions with all the other concerns brought sufficient
paid advertising to make distribution a gratis affair. Accounts
similar to those of other businesses were opened with the radio
corporation for commercials and with the bank and the post office.
In return, the newspaper people at a nominal fee helped supply
material for the radio concern's news broadcasts.

Early in the semester it became apparent how closely connected
each business could be with the others. The harmony of interaction
helped make the whole program a success as well as show the students
how much one organization depends upon the others for its suc-
cess. . . .

The editor-in-chief assigned the beats to his reporters (who
incidentally, doubled in brass as the pressmen, business managers,
compositors, and linotypists) and he planned the page layouts with
the advice and constant assistance of the others. . . .

THE BANK. As far as business transactions went, the bank was
kept at top speed constantly. Besides the deposits of each of the
companies, the bank negotiated loans with careful investigation
preceding each loan. The tellers, guards, and executives of the
bank were never idle. When no other business occupied their time,
the bank people prepared statements, listing the standings of its
depositors, or reminding them of interest due on loans made. The
bank employed about the best business sense of all the concerns.
THE PRINTING PLANT. The first business of the printing concern was to make signs for each of the other companies. Then letterhead designs suitable for each buyer were prepared and submitted to the company presidents or managers. Color schemes were worked out for advertising. Whereas the newspaper concern used the Mimeograph as its press, the printers used the Ditto machine for their work. All business operations involving the other concerns were carefully tabulated and books were carefully kept.

THE EMPLOYMENT-POST OFFICE AGENCY. The employment and post office agency also included the tax bureau. All three divisions were handled by the same five students and were classified as a governmental agency. The combined work proved enough to match the energies and talents of the boys.

The employment agency had this objective: If a member of one of the other concerns desired to leave his original company, he had to inform his manager two days in advance, and then secure an employment blank from the government, leave it with the employment agency, and await a reply. The agency wrote to the other companies and asked whether they wished an exchange or had sufficient work for another member. Before the new company hired the person in question, the application blank had to be signed by the teacher. This precaution prevented students from changing jobs spasmodically. In fact, few changes actually were effected. When employment was found for someone, he had to pay a nominal fee for the governmental service.

Twice a day, at the beginning of each class period and again twenty minutes after class had been in session, mail deliveries were made. The post office preferred to work with the other companies on the basis of a set and standard fee for the entire week rather than on the individual postage rate. Each concern took its mail to the post office whence it was distributed to the others. At times there were as high as twenty-five pieces of mail to be handled.

Every now and then the taxes would come up. But the tax statements and collections were made only once every month. Other duties of keeping postage payments straight and employment fees and inquiries filed occupied the time of the government men.

In retrospect, the teacher finds that those who took the course seriously did profit from it more than if they had followed the regular procedures. Besides the understanding of business functions, which was the principal objective of the course, an important by-product, which in its own way was as important as the prime purpose itself, resulted. That extra was the functional training
In responsibility and social co-operation of one student with another in planning and executing the different programs...

In describing the work of a general business class at Roger Ludlow High School, Fairfield, Connecticut, in which the study of general business was approached by the planning and operating of an imaginary business, Kunhardt says:

In following the routine assignments of our junior business textbook, I felt that the ninth-grade students did not appreciate the significance of the facts and techniques they were acquiring. Therefore, I changed the viewpoint and presented the subject on the "let's pretend we are going into business" idea... With this in mind, each unit covered in this course was presented from the angle of "This is what you will need to know to run your store successfully or to carry on your own business affairs."

After an investigation of the community, we decided on what type of store we would open... As far as possible the class decided in what order we would need to know the various business factors. Each need was listed and then studied as separate units.

The outline below is one that we followed last year. Other classes may suggest the units in a different order as they see the need for them. If so, I follow their general direction and set up the work as they suggest...

BUSINESS PROJECT

I. Kind of Business to Start
   A. Consideration of community, population, income, and cultural level.
   B. Will the business we start answer a definite need?
   C. What competition will we have, if any?
   D. A bookstore was decided upon since there was no other in town and this community has the income, education, and interest to patronize one.
   E. What else might I sell besides books?
      1. Gifts, old china or antiques, stationery, wrapping paper, greeting cards, children's toys, and games.

II. What Capital Have I to Invest—the Bank.
   A. Cost and requirements of merchandise, equipment, and supplies
   B. Running expenses, heat, rent, labor, and telephone.
   C. Could I borrow through a bank?
      1. How much and how can I raise extra capital?
      2. What collateral must I have, if any?
      3. What are the services of the bank?
      4. What is their interest rate on loans?
   5. Banking procedure and kinds of banks?
      a. Opening a bank account.
      b. Keeping a checking account.
      c. Reconciliations.
      d. Promissory notes.
      e. Use of credit.

III. Location.
   A. What place is centrally located?
   B. What is the rent?
   C. Will it meet our needs?

IV. Personal Factors.
   A. Is my personality pleasing?
      1. Am I courteous and considerate?
      2. Have I honesty and integrity enough to hold customers?
   B. How may I develop salesmanship?
   C. What factors do I need to become a good businessman?

V. Where Shall I Purchase My Goods?
   A. Investigation of reputable wholesale houses.
   B. Contact with publishers to keep up with new fiction.
      1. Subscription to publisher's magazines and catalogs.
   C. Alertness to likes and dislikes of the community.

VI. Advertising and Mailing.
   A. Sending form letters.
   B. Does advertising pay, and how much should I spend on it?
   C. Attractive window and store displays.
   D. The mail service.
      1. At what rates may I use the postal service for sending out circulars, cards, books, or packages?
      2. Correct use of the mail and its special services.

VII. Record Keeping and Filing.
   A. File mailing lists of all customers.
   B. File all bills and customers' accounts.
   C. Keep records of daily sales.
   D. Keep records of outstanding bills.
   E. Keep records of individual charge accounts.
F. Correct method of sending bills.
G. Checking daily receipts by cash registers and making correct change.
H. Stock records showing goods on hand and those needed.

VIII. Shipping.
A. Correct use of and advantages and disadvantages of freight, express, and parcel post.
B. Correct wrapping, marking, and shipping of goods.

IX. Insurance.
A. What insurance do I need in my business?
   1. Fire and theft insurance on stock and equipment.
B. Personal insurance.
   1. Kinds.
      a. Term.
      b. Endowment.
      c. Straight life.
      d. Limited life.
      e. Annuity.
C. For what shall I look in good insurance?
   1. Reputable firms—how are they organized in this state and how may I investigate them?
      a. How the state protects the consumer.
      b. Laws that govern banks and insurance companies.
   2. Clauses good insurance should have.
      a. Waiver of premiums.
      b. Disability clause.
      c. Cash-in value.
      d. Loan value.
      e. Extended insurance.
   3. Automobile insurance—kinds and costs in this state.

X. Telephone, Telegraph, and Cable.
A. Correct use of each.
B. Cost and expense.
   1. When should they be used?

XI. Cash or Credit Buying.
A. Necessity of establishing good credit standing.
   1. Advantage of buying goods for cash.
   2. Figuring discounts and interest.
B. Borrowing through a bank to stock up.

XII. Investments and Savings.
A. How much should I reinvest of my profit each year?
B. What shall I do with excess profit, if any?
   1. Co-operative bank shares (building and loan associations).
2. Real estate as an investment.
3. Stocks and bonds.
   a. Government and municipal bonds.
   b. Reliable stocks.
4. Insurance as an investment and venture.

XIII. Care of Stock.
A. Receiving and storing.
   1. Checking incoming stock by invoices.
   2. Reporting damaged goods or those short for collection.
   3. Correct storing according to space, protection of goods, and accessibility.
B. Taking inventory—reason for.
   1. Taking careful analysis of the inventory.
      a. Am I buying correctly?
      b. Am I stocking up on slow selling items?
      c. Is there enough turnover to prove that I am making enough profit?

XIV. What Profit Should I have to Stay in Business?
A. Analysis of my bookkeeping and inventory records.
B. In what way may my expenses be cut and my profit increased?
C. Am I pricing my stock correctly?
D. Am I using my floor and display space to advantage?
   1. How may I push slow selling books and other items?
   2. Am I meeting the public's demands?
E. Have I been able to meet all outstanding bills?

In discussing the work of a general business class at the

Laboratory School, Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Illinois,
in which students planned and organized imaginary businesses, Wells says:

To build basic concepts, one senior general business class used
a project on initiating a business which put pupils on their own
and made use of their knowledge, their skills, and their intelligence. On the basis of a community survey made and studied by the
class, each pupil selected a business (including farming) to be run
as a sole proprietorship and worked out its organization. Each
pupil studied location; cost of financing, taxes, advertising, and
insurance; licenses or permits needed; and the establishment of
credit. Each consulted wholesale catalogs, trade journals, and
equipment catalogs; each prepared a lease and the blanks needed

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for the records of his business. A scrapbook or illustrated report was required of each pupil in which he listed his procedures, his decisions, and his reasons for his choices.92

In describing the work of a general business class at Oakland High School, Oakland, California, in which students planned and organized imaginary businesses, Yockey says:

The pupils are instructed to choose the thing that they would like to do in the business world. This must be their own choice. The only restriction is that the choice must be of a business nature. To illustrate, in one group three boys were interested in acting and wished to spend their time in play production. This project did not meet the requirements so they decided to equip and manage a Theater. The boys decorated and equipped a show house, booked their talent for a year, and planned an advertising campaign which included street car, bill board, and newspaper displays. For their opening they dramatized a popular movie. The school auditorium was used for this performance which was a great success. The boys had conducted a ticket sale in their class and included the results as part of their final report.

The projects have been varied as this partial list will show. Tea Rooms, Gift Shoppe, Barber Shop, Beauty Parlor, Banks, Teaching, Saw Mill, Dress Shops, Coat Shops, Hospitals, Trans-Continental Air Line, Cabinet Shop, Auto Repair Shop, and many more.

What have the pupils learned?

The pupils have learned how to get information on a particular subject, they have learned how to meet people in a business way, they get an idea of the many details that go into a business. They learn that buying and selling are not the only things to be considered in conducting a business. Finally they remember much more about the project than any other part of the whole course because it was their experience. I meet pupils who had projects three years ago and they remember them although the rest of the course has at least faded if it has not passed entirely from their memories. . .

92 Inez Ray Wells, "Teaching for Basic Business Understanding," The American Business Education Yearbook, Volume VIII, 1951, p. 120.

Business law. In describing the work of a business law class at Plainview High School, Plainview, Maryland, in which the students planned and organized a hypothetical business, Wells says:

In Plainview High School, the students were asked what they thought they should know about business and business law. This questioning led to a discussion of the local community and to the starting of a hypothetical business in the community—a movie theater. The class divided itself into committees to study various phases of this problem—location, finances, personnel, organizational structure, legal relationships, etc. Out of this grew many activities, such as visiting the local theater, having the owner speak to the class, visiting the banks, the post office, and the city hall. All the learning was brought down to a realistic, immediate basis for the students. Actually they were studying the problems of the local businesses and the legal relationships involved, although they wove them all around this one hypothetical theater. The general educational activities worked themselves into the situation almost as though they were a necessary part of living. 91

In discussing the teaching of business law, Henderson says:

In dealing with the topic of corporations, the project method may be used. It is interesting for the class to decide which businesses will be successful during the next few years and to incorporate one of these with the members as the stockholders and the teacher as the head of the department to which application for incorporation must be made.

Corporation papers are usually on file in the office of the Secretary of State. Where convenient, the students may visit this office and study the papers and card indexes before making any decisions about their own corporation.

In preparation for the organization meeting, the class decides the purposes for which it will incorporate, the kinds of stock it will issue, the amount at which it is to be capitalized, its name, and place of business. By-laws are worked out and each student is required to prepare a copy in the proper form.

When everything is ready, the meeting for organization is held. The directors and officers are elected, by-laws adopted, and

necessary papers signed as they would be at any regular organization meeting. The first meeting of the Board of Directors is held directly afterwards. The class then writes up the minutes for both meetings, completing the set of papers necessary for incorporation.95

Business arithmetic. In explaining their work in mathematics, the students of The University High School, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, say:

Our work in mathematics during the seventh and eighth grades was concerned mainly with things that influenced our daily lives. . . .

In connection with the furnishing of our home we studied the principles of business mathematics. As one of our problems, we each assumed we had one thousand dollars to be spent on stocks and bonds. For a period of two weeks we read the stock quotations and pretended to buy different shares. We kept a complete record of our transactions. At the end of the two weeks, this record was turned in.96

Dramatizations

Business education in general. In discussing student participation inplaymaking, Caine and Sluder say:

The potentialities of writing and acting out short plays in the classroom have been fully comprehended by the leading educators for many years, but very few teachers have used plays as a teaching aid and still fewer teachers have included the art of writing plays in their program of instruction. No other type of classroom activity can provide the teacher with such excellent opportunities for creating enthusiasm in the class, for stimulating cooperative group participation, and for developing those desirable personality and


character traits which we so frequently neglect in the usual classroom situation.

Every classroom situation presents many ideas which lend themselves to dramatization. These ideas need not be visualized as complete dramatic plots or stories. Even though the scene you wish to dramatize would constitute only a fragmentary part of a commercial drama, realistic dialogue and a real-life situation would tend to make of your skit a valid learning experience. For example, students need not present an entire courtroom case to learn a specific law. Through the use of short mock trial, which would use only a few minutes of classroom time, the student is able to grasp a whole situation and fill in the details with his ever-active imagination. . . . With available situations aplenty, and with young minds ready and eager to express themselves in dialogue, it becomes only a problem of selecting those essential ideas which need the more forceful and enlivening medium of presentation—dramatization.

Although the teacher may suggest ideas for plays, no play should be attempted that does not have the enthusiastic approval and support of the students. The ideas should arise naturally out of the classroom discussions. In a class of office machines, a short skit illustrating the proper care of each machine readily suggests itself. In secretarial practice, the efficient and business-like, yet pleasant, attitude which is such an essential part of the successful secretary's stock-in-trade, is easily illustrated with a short skit.

The basic principles of good office management, the ways of developing good will and desirable public relations, the development of harmonious, cooperative team work in the office, and many other phases of this functional course can best be taught through dramatization in a realistic office scene.

In a bookkeeping class, the need for accuracy and neatness can, with very little imagination, be worked into an assimilated life situation. Teachers may use a variety of skits and classroom arrangements to bring home to the students a clear picture of the true relationships of various business transactions, the intricate functions of our banking system, and the logical sequence and unity of the bookkeeping cycle.

In the distributive education field, and especially where the cooperative training program has been established, clever skits and plays may be developed around such themes as the steps in making a sale, the techniques used in selling by telephone, the functions of the various departments of a large organization, and the innumerable opportunities for success in the selling field.
Consumer education and general business . . . are pregnant with ideas which cry out for dramatizations. For entertainment and for educational purposes, what theme could be better than one on "Frauds Discovered by the Better Business Bureau"? Family budgeting, insuring your risks, investing your savings, buying appliances, obtaining credit, are suggestive play titles and these themes lend themselves to easy, yet effective, classroom dramatization. . . .

In discussing student participation by means of role-playing, Walters and Lansner illustrate how role-playing might be used in teaching business education students how to apply for jobs:

Before . . . [role-playing] can take place certain conditions must be met, both on the part of the teacher and the student. . . .

The first requirement is that the teacher must be certain that the problem being acted out is one that the students recognize as being a real one. This may be achieved by polling the students in advance as to the kind of problems they anticipate having to face during their first year out of high school. . . . The students may make a follow-up study of a recent group of alumni in the same curriculum to discover the problems that they had to meet during their first post-school year. Through the local office of the United States Employment Service the teacher or students can also obtain information in relation to the problems of beginning clerical workers in order to compare these findings with those from the follow-up study of alumni. In the event that the students' ideas do not coincide with those listed by the United States Employment Service, it is suggested that the students' ideas be used first and then those of the other list brought in from time to time.

Another basic requirement is that the teacher herself be well enough acquainted with the problem being acted out to recognize the proper atmosphere and to supply the "correct" answers. . . .

The teacher also has the responsibility for preparing the students for [role-playing.] If the students are polled for their ideas on problems, or if the follow-up survey on which they assisted is used, they will be partially prepared, that is, assuming the teacher motivated the students adequately for the follow-up survey. When the time for the actual classroom demonstration is at hand the

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teacher should ask for volunteers for the two roles. The teacher should be careful not to assign students to these roles, but allow the class to produce its own volunteers. . . .

After the volunteers for the roles have been determined, she can ask the class to help "set the stage." They will usually describe the setting and give the personalities of the two actors. If the class does not wish to set the stage, which is unusual, the teacher, or director, then has to perform the task. The actors can leave the room for a few minutes to talk over their roles and generally "warm up" to each other, but the director has to "warm them up" to their individual roles. The senior actor, employer, supervisor, or foreman, as the case may be, may be given a set of questions. This is suggested in the earlier trials with this technique but may be dispensed with as the group and the actors gain familiarity with questions typical to the situation. Before the playing begins, the director should request that the students take notes, written ones preferred, of the things that they thought were done well, as well as those that they felt could have been done better. These notes will then serve as the basis for a class discussion after the play. This discussion is very often a highly valuable part of the session for it gives the students an opportunity to learn from each other, with the director leading this discussion and reserving her own comments for a summary.

The following excerpts are quoted to illustrate how a coed group of high school juniors and seniors reacted to [role-playing.] . . .

The group had decided that during this employment interview one member, a male, would be the employer and another member, a female, would be applying for a stenographic position.

D (Director): How do you want the employer to act?

John: He should be very polite. Just like in the movies.

Peter: He should wear a clean shirt and smoke a cigar.

David: He should only be a personnel manager and not the owner himself. This would be much better because most of us will be working for large concerns and won't ever get a chance to be interviewed by the boss.

Ruth: I think he should be the boss. I have a few friends who graduated last year and all of them are working for very small concerns. They say that they got their positions after being interviewed by the boss himself. I had a job last summer and the boss hired me, so I think that George should be the boss too.
David: Three of my friends are working for the Insurance Company which has several thousand employees. Another friend is working for Department Store which has even more persons working there. Do you think that the bosses or presidents of those companies interview their clerks? Most of us will work for big companies and be hired by personnel managers so let's have that kind of interview.

D: There is really no way of determining at this point which of you will be hired by a boss or personnel manager on your first position. Some of you may start out by working for a small firm and then feel that you want to apply for a position in a large concern. Others may start out in a large concern and decide to change to a small concern, so that at some time all of you may experience being interviewed by either a boss or a personnel manager. We can have George be both persons today, but let us take a vote to see which role he will play first.

(The group voted to have George be a boss.)

Frank: The boss should have about five people working for him and Alice (girl who volunteered for role of job applicant) should be looking for the position of his personal secretary. He should be a man who takes a personal interest in his employees, even though he insists that they do things very promptly and correctly.

Louis: It should be a business that is growing and one that the boss feels will become much larger in the next few years. He should be pleasant in spite of the fact that he is very ambitious for his business. He feels that it is a good place to work and a place where only people with ambition should work.

D: Let us now decide what the applicant should be like.

Betty: She should be a high school graduate like we will be next June, and looking for her first job.

Bernyce: She should be dressed in a nicely tailored suit without too much makeup. She should be wearing shoes with medium-high heels and closed toes, very plain earrings, her class ring and one bracelet. She should not be chewing any gum. Her hair should be very neatly combed, and she should wear a plain hat. I found out about how to dress for an interview from my typing teacher yesterday. (Applause from the other members of the group)

Frank: She should answer the questions as briefly as possible.

Betty: No, she should use this chance to show the boss how well she talks and try to talk as much as possible, otherwise the boss will think that she doesn't know very much.
Ds: It is usually courteous to let the boss do as much talking as he seems to want to. When he asks questions that require more elaborate answers, answer accordingly but try to keep the answers related to topics he is talking about and bring in things that will throw light on them. For example, if he should ask what was it like going to high school, what would you think if she said OK?

Frank: That's a good answer.

Louis: I think that anyone who answers like that hasn't any enthusiasm and I just wouldn't have them around.

Ds: What we will do in trying out these answers is to see how the employer feels about the answers and whether he wants to employ the applicant or not.

It should be noted that the discussion prior to the presenting of a sociodrama should be conducted as illustrated, in a democratic manner by the Director, giving recognition and acknowledgment to all the viewpoints that come up. This prepares the emotional climate for the production, for a receptiveness in the audience, and provides motivation to group members to be frank in their sociodramatic work and free to be curious about all ways of looking at a problem, rather than falling into routine habits that are "right" or "wrong." Hence, they are being prepared for the eventual analyzing of the behavior, as shown in the sociodrama, and also into the more favorable way of attacking a specific problem rather than simply saying this is "good" and that is "bad."

(Send out Applicant)

Warming-up Process

Ds: Now I will try to warm up George to the role of boss. (to George) You are Mr. Finnegan. You are the boss. You started this business yourself six years ago. It is now expanding rapidly. You are a self-made man, a man of decision. It is OK for your employees to be beginners who have just graduated from high school but you don't want any clock watchers working for you. You feel that it is all right to tell this to an applicant because if she is too sensitive for that, you don't want her working for you anyhow. You realize your own importance in the community. Mr. Finnegan, you are a man of decision. Please stop the interview when you think that it is over. Employ her or not, as you wish, when you end the interview.

(Mr. Finnegan is sent out and Alice returns.)

Ds: (to applicant) Miss Brownell, you've earned fairly good marks in high school. You feel that the world is your apple and
any concern would be glad to get you. You have a good idea of the hours you would like to work preferring 9:00 to 5:00 or 9:30 to 6:00 p.m. You want a nicely furnished office near convenient transportation. You want the neighborhood to be clean with nice eating places and pleasant stores to window shop on your lunch hour. Miss Brownell, you are an attractive young lady and you have a good idea about the kind of employer for whom you will work. You are certain that he will be lucky to have hired you.

The Director should be certain to direct a few questions to the person warmed up for the role to "test" whether he is now in the role and hence able to carry it.

(Call in Mr. Finnegan)

(D) Director: Now, Mr. Finnegan, how much taxes did you pay last year?

Mr. F: Too much. Over $10,000.

D: I see your office is very attractively furnished. Where did you get these lovely items?

Mr. F: The Moose head is one that I shot on a hunting trip last winter. The pictures are of my wife and two sons who will some day take over this business.

D: Thank you Mr. Finnegan.

D: Miss Brownell, that is a very nicely tailored suit you have on today.

Miss B: No, it is an old suit. It's just something I haven't worn in some time.

D: I'm talking to Miss Brownell now, not to Alice.

Miss B: Excuse me, Yes, it is something I bought to wear when I start working.

D: Do you think today is your lucky day for job hunting?

Miss B: It will be a lucky day for some employer if I decide to accept a job today.

D: OK, Miss Brownell, you can now walk into Mr. Finnegan's office.

Miss B: Good morning, Sir. I'm Miss Brownell. I'm here for the secretary's job that you listed in today's paper.
Mr. F: Well, well—in what way are you qualified for this job?

Miss B: I think I can do it. I'm a high school graduate from High School. I type 62 words per minute and my shorthand is 118 words per minute, almost 120 words per minute.

Mr. F: Hm, Hm, Well—There is more to this job than shorthand and typing. Anyone who works here represents this business. If anyone calls up and you answer the phone the way the other girl did, you will be out of here in five minutes. The other girl kept people waiting while she finished her conversations with people in the office. That certainly makes the caller think that I have irresponsible employees.

Miss B: Very unintelligent too, Mr. Finnegan. It might even be long distance, and how expensive that would be.

Mr. F: You get the point, you get the point. You see what I mean.

Miss B: Were there other things that this girl did that I should watch out for?

Mr. F: Yes, plenty. One minute, young lady, I didn't say you had the position yet.

Miss B: I know—oh—I just got so interested.

Mr. F: Well that's a good quality. A little enthusiasm, it's not harmful, and that's what I expect. When things get going and it's 5:00 p.m. and still work to do, I don't want to hear "I got a date. I have to go." In this office we take care of our work first.

Miss B: Oh really? Then it will probably be 6:00 p.m.

Mr. F: Six, five, seven, business is life and life has emergencies.

Miss B: But, you wouldn't be against my having my social life.

Mr. F: I'm in favor of your social life or anybody else's. But, understand one thing, this is not a date factory and the phone is not supposed to be tied up from 9:00 to 5:00 p.m. with such playing around.

Miss B: Oh, of course not, Mr. Finnegan.

Mr. F: What do you consider you learned at that high school besides stenography and typing?
Miss B: I think I learned real well how to get along with a lot of people, how not to lose my temper when things go wrong, how to admit it if I make a mistake, how to ask questions until I get things right, and how it is an honorable thing to be a good worker because this is a democracy and we all have to.

Mr. F: Young lady, you are hired. That's the most responsible bit of thinking that I've heard from a young person in a mighty long time. You can be sure that I'll stand behind you and help you learn everything that you have to learn on this job. I'm sure that you have what it takes.

Miss B: Thank you very much Mr. Finnegan. I'll try very hard and I hope I won't make too many mistakes.

Mr. F: Be in at 9:00 a.m. tomorrow. The salary will be what the ad said. Good-bye, Miss Brownell.

Miss B: I thank you again, Mr. Finnegan. Good-bye.

(Applause from group)

D: Mr. Finnegan, you decided to hire Alice Brownell. Will you tell us on what you based your decision to hire her?

Mr. F: She seemed like an honest girl and real frank. She knew what she wanted and I could be definite with what I wanted and wouldn't get scared. I felt comfortable with her.

D: Mr. Finnegan, what did she do that made you reach that decision?

Mr. F: That's a cinch. She asked what the other girl did that I was complaining about, so that she could do differently. She admitted that the other girl did not behave intelligently. She gave me a direct answer when I asked her what she got out of high school besides stenography and typing. Best, I guess, I liked how she was interested in everything I said.

(Laughter from group)

D: Thank you Mr. Finnegan. Now you may be George again. Let's throw the discussion open for comments from everyone. Who thinks that he would have hired Miss Brownell if he were hiring?

(Almost all hands go up)

D: On what do you base your decisions?
Eleanor: Alice didn't brag. She told the truth. She even said she learned to control her temper and that she was not always perfect.

John: I think that that is a good point. Some girls act like they thought they were dolls. She was human, even where she said she could have some social life.

Peter: I think her attentiveness, keeping her eyes on the employer's face, flattered him and made him feel important like he wanted so that he would get to like her eventually.

John: Peter hit it right on the head. Sometimes, you talk to a girl and she looks everywhere but at you and it gets under your skin.

Saul: I would have hired her because she wasn't touchy and didn't get all fussed when he called her bluff at the start and said she wasn't hired yet.

Miriam: I think she was real lady-like and nice. She was so courteous to him. When he kept getting excited, she kept calm and sympathetic and didn't let him get embarrassed by his own rudeness.

(Discussion continues)

D: Miss Browell, will you give us your comments on how you felt in applying for the job?

Miss B: I was expecting he was going to give it to me right away—and then I got the feeling he's a very earnest man, and if I don't show that I can be earnest too, he won't employ me just for shorthand. The more I listened to him, the more I admired how anybody could have so much energy and I thought it would be fun to work with a man who is so excitable and interested in how everything happens in his business.

D: Then you really would accept work with a man who showed his temperament?

Miss B: Oh yes, I wouldn't mind staying after hours sometimes for a man like him.

D: Thank you, Miss Browell. Now you can be Alice again. This brings us to the important problem that all of us face, learning our own tastes and desires well enough so that we know what temperaments we can get along with well and what temperaments we may not understand well enough to be willing to cooperate with.

Did some think differently than Alice about this employer, in the sense that you would rather not work for him?
Harold: I'd rather take less money somewhere else. He pushes you around. Things would have to be just his way, I bet.

Alice: But doesn't he have a right to have things his way? It's his business, and he is hiring you to help him the way he wants help.

Louis: I think he is a forthright man. He comes right out with what he wants. So what if he is excitable! We all have our faults. It keeps things from being monotonous. He just had worries on his mind.

Harold: I think Louis feels sympathetic like me.

Pauline: After working with him for awhile, I think he would be more relaxed. (discussion continues)

D: All of our group contributed to making one point very clear: that each of us reacts differently to the ways another person behaves. Finding the right job is more than a matter of finding a spot where shorthand and typing are skills that are needed. It is, in fact, a very big undertaking in which each of us has to hunt along two paths. One, the path of knowing what we ourselves are really like and what they want from us. Please think about these two paths further so that we can have another discussion on how we can understand each of them.

It will be noted that the Director leads discussion so as to elicit the group's feeling and thinking. She does not offer her own feeling and thinking except in drawing a major generalization from the group's work. It will be noted also that even this generalization should clearly be one that the group can recognize as logically following upon the nature of the work they have done together.

Any teacher who carries out the sequence of steps illustrated above will be impressed by her class's showing from one class meeting to the next. She will note a very rapid progress in explicit ability to deal with situations in a more and more mature manner, to which the students bring greater and greater motivation, interest, and concern. A by-product or, one might say, a concomitant effect, of this more vivid classroom life is a closer and more honest communication process between instructor and student. 98

Distributive education. In reporting classroom practices in distributive education, Brown says:

Role-playing is a device which has been used effectively to teach pupils to react quickly and correctly to various situations as they arise. A problem or situation based on the work experiences of some of the pupils is set up and class members are asked, without previous preparation, to act out the various characters involved and to attempt to reach a satisfactory conclusion. When this is done with several different persons in a given role, the different courses of action which might be taken and their probable outcomes are apparent and stimulate a great deal of thinking and discussion. Analyzing the results on the basis of actual performance enables the pupil to develop the ability to use critical self-analysis and to improve his own performance.99

In discussing pupil participation in retail selling classes, Reich suggests:

... a useful technique consists of the following: One student is appointed personnel manager. It is his job to interview candidates for a selling job, perhaps design and apply an application blank to a chosen few, set up his office and plan his approach. It is the job of his victims to prove their worth and get the position.

Trait and Manner Day is a students' day. Ten committees are suggested, each committee to develop a little trait and manners skit. The only appointed official is the producer. This student organizes the committees, whose function it is to run down the worst examples of traits and manners in the school, to satirize them, and then to show the right thing—a sort of before and after picture. No skit is to take more than five minutes; less, if possible. Traits and manners applicable to selling should be emphasized.


It is... essential to hand the job of discovering selling problems over to the students. They all go into stores. They are not, however, conscious of store selling problems until they discover for themselves the existence of such problems. Once the teacher has presented such problems for solution, in practical fashion, it might be wise to hand over the class to groups of students who will be rewarded adequately for satisfactory contributions. Here is a plan.

The call is sent out for volunteers, one batch to discover by visits to the stores some of the toughest, knottiest problems they can find, and one batch who will meet all comers. A personnel manager is in charge. On the given day the battle starts—a battle of wits.

The personnel manager asks for someone to take care of the X counter in the class; goods should be named and actually brought in by the person who presents the problem. The innocent student who volunteers to meet all comers gets behind the classroom counter... and examines his goods. He does not know the problem. The student with the problem comes up to his counter. The salesperson waits on him. Then the customer raises the problem, suddenly, without warning, without rehearsal.

One of the effective procedures for the better understanding of legislative processes is the pupil creation of the legislative body that enacts laws affecting the retailer. Thus, for example, if the Feld-Crawford Fair Trades Law is to be presented, one of the most effective presentations is the creation of the State Assembly scene for the occasion. The class is the assembly. It chooses the committee that is to present the Feld-Crawford Bill. There is an open hearing. Assemblymen, lobbyists, the public—all participate. The bill is argued through.

Pupil participation can be broadly or narrowly based. It may be interpreted as pupil participation in the planning of the classroom activities or it may be made to mean the pupil participation in every detail of his school and outside life. It may be made to mean the activities that arise from within the pupil and the activities that are stimulated by teacher planning. It may be dramatization and it may be merely a classroom recitation of a research activity carried out by the student. The function of pupil participation is not to hand over the work of the class to the pupil. It implies the functions of guidance... by the teacher...

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100Edward Reich, "Pupil Participation in Retail Selling Classes"
Office practice. In discussing the use of dramatizations by office practice students at Eastern District High School, Brooklyn, New York, Hale says:

A basic tenet of modern educational psychology is that children learn by doing. They learn by experiencing. They learn when something happens to them.

The problem, then is to employ techniques with our office, clerical, and secretarial classes... that will provide our students with a compelling concrete, meaningful background and that will result in authentic, effective learning...

Dramatization is a technique that has the advantage of being very simple to use. It requires little or no equipment for preparation. It is highly flexible and immediately available. It turns students into participants rather than spectators; for, in dramatization, students actively participate in acting out ideas and situations instead of just talking about them. For instance, why conduct a formal recitation about the job interview when actual interviews between students in the roles of employer and prospective employee can be dramatized? Why talk about the duties of a receptionist when appropriate situations can be dramatized with students playing the parts of receptionist and caller?

Dramatization provides excellent opportunities for correlating classroom and office situations. The character and personality traits required to succeed in school for example, are the same character and personality traits required to succeed in business offices. Why not, then capitalize on immediate classroom experiences?

How to Initiate a Dramatization—If I wish to stress the importance of punctuality, I do not ask my students to recite reasons why it is necessary to be on time in school or on the job. I introduce the topic by saying:

Here is an actual school situation you are all familiar with. A student has been coming late to school two or three times a week for several weeks. His teachers have talked the matter over with him many times and have pointed out how

serious excessive lateness is, especially when noted on a permanent record card; but he still keeps coming late to school.

We are now going to act out a little scene. John, you play the part of the principal; Mary, you play the part of the late student. In playing these parts, make believe that this is something that is actually happening to you. You both can say anything you want to say, anything appropriate that comes into your minds. You can even call in other members of the class to help if you so desire....

Observations and Suggestions. The same scene should be reenacted by other pairs of students. I have found that the first dramatization is usually quite short, haltingly performed, and repetitive in content because the student players do not really know what is expected of them. The spectators, however, quickly get the point, with the result that ensuing dramatizations on the same topic are generally longer and more fluent, and the content is much more pointed and intelligent, because the players now know what to say.

Where the players miss the point entirely or have no imagination, it may be necessary to discuss briefly the first dramatization, focusing the attention of the class on essentials, before proceeding to additional performances. Occasionally, the teacher may have to assume one of the roles in order to give direction and substance to the scene when students fail to do so.

The Office Scene. The next step is to correlate the classroom situation with the office situation. I introduce this step by saying:

Let's see how the classroom and office are similar. Here is an actual office situation. You have been working in an office for several weeks, during which time you have been late two or three times a week. Yesterday, you were more than a half-hour late, even though you knew you had some very important work that had to be ready early in the morning. The work was not finished on time.

Today, your employer has called you into his office and is obviously very much annoyed.

Tom, you sit at my desk and play the part of the angry employer. Jane, you enter your employer's office as the tardy employee. Remember, in playing these parts, make believe that this is something that is actually happening to you. You both can say anything you want to say, anything appropriate that
comes into your minds. You can even call in other workers in
the office to help if you so desire.

This scene should also be re-enacted once or twice.

The Results are Electrifying—I have seen listless classes sud-
denly come to life, and I have observed how students in their seats,
by identifying themselves with the players, participate in the play
almost as actively as the "actors" on the "stage." And when
the same scene is played several times, it is amazing to note the
variety and novelty of responses obtained as each student reacts
in accordance with his personality and background.

The class discussion that follows completion of the plays is an
integral part of the lesson. This discussion is now no longer in
terms of a verbal concept but in terms of a concrete, meaningful
situation that the class has seen and in which it has participated.
It is a pleasure to observe the enthusiasm with which students—
even slow learners—engage in these discussions, and the astuteness
of their criticisms and evaluations.

Suggested Topics for Dramatization—The dramatizations just de-
scribed and the following suggested dramatizations are presented
merely to illustrate the many uses to which dramatizations can be
put.

Job Interviews. School Situation—Teacher interviews a student
applying for an imaginary school job as student file clerk or stu-
dent typist in the main school office. Office Situation—Employer
interviews prospective employee applying for a job as typist or
file clerk.

Receptionist. School Situation—Student plays part of school
receptionist greeting visitor who wishes to speak to the principal
(the principal has previously given the receptionist instructions
that he does not wish to be disturbed). Office Situation—
Employer instructs his receptionist that he does not wish to be
disturbed all afternoon; a visitor insists on seeing the employer.
Additional Office Situation—If the receptionist allows the visitor
to see her employer, enact a scene between the employer and the
receptionist in which the receptionist must justify her decision.

Making Requests. School Situation—A student is dissatisfied
with a mark on his report card and requests his teacher to explain
the reasons for assigning such a grade. Office Situation—An
employee is dissatisfied at not having received a raise in pay
during the past year and requests the employer for an increase.

Following Directions. School Situation—A teacher requests a
student to go to the stockroom for certain specific books. In
addition to bringing back the requested books, the student brings back other books that he thinks might be useful to the teacher. (Was the student justified in doing this? Enact a scene in which the teacher takes the student to task for not following specific instructions.) Office Situation--An employer requests his file clerk to bring him certain specific papers from the files. In addition to bringing back the requested papers, the clerk brings back other papers that she thinks might be useful to the employer and explains why.

**Proper Dress.** School Situation--Either a teacher or a student can engage in a conversation with a student who habitually comes to school either overdressed or wearing such improper apparel as slacks or T-shirts. Office Situation--either an employer or an employee can engage in a conversation with another employee who comes to work either overdressed or improperly appareled (slacks, pin curlers in hair, etc.)

Additional Suggestions--Volunteers are preferable, especially for the first dramatization, unless there are students who the teachers knows are willing, fluent, and dependable. One must take care, however, to give every student an opportunity to participate in at least one dramatization during the term.

Some student may have to be coaxed; however, do not make an issue of a student's refusal to participate. The reasons for a refusal should be discovered in private conference with the student after class. On the other hand, do not allow extrovert students to act too frequently or to clown, for they can turn the plays into a farce.

The teacher should himself occasionally participate in a play to develop rapport with the class, to eliminate misconceptions, or to put an important point across.101

**General business.** In discussing the use of dramatizations by general business students at Aquinas Hall High School, Bronx, New York, Sister Virginia says:

Dramatize some part of each unit. The committee can obtain or prepare a short sketch bearing on a related phase of the current

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unit. In studying the telephone, for example, they may demonstrate the correct and incorrect ways of answering the phone.\textsuperscript{102}

In discussing the use of radio scripts by general business students at Langley Junior High School, Meiring says:

Have you ever racked your brain for new and better ways of introducing topics in your junior business training classes? Do you have difficulty in obtaining dramatizations suitable for ninth-grade students?

One of the best solutions to these problems lies in the classroom use of radio scripts prepared by the Educational Radio Script Exchange of the U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

After the class has decided to broadcast programs, one period should be devoted to the preliminary arrangements. A chairman who will direct the broadcasts must be chosen. If the school does not have a portable microphone, the chairman will have to select someone to make a cardboard "mike." This is not a difficult task. A victrola must also be obtained and someone should be chosen to take care of the records used on the broadcasts. The chairman should appoint a standing committee to produce the necessary sound effects for all the programs. . . .

As in all classroom activities, the teacher will want to give everyone an opportunity to participate. The class should decide upon a name for the "station" and a theme song should be chosen. . . .\textsuperscript{103}

\textbf{Consumer education}. In discussing learning activities and


instructional methods in consumer education, the National Council for Business Education says:

Few teachers make adequate use of dramatization in their classes. Student committees should prepare the materials for these dramatizations. Some suggested dramatizations include:

a. Conversation between sales clerk and customer, illustrating good selling and good shopping

b. Playlet illustrating the right and wrong way to buy

c. "Mr. Skeptic Visits a Co-op Store"

d. "Mr. Needy borrows from a Credit Union"

Business law. In describing the use of dramatizations by business law students at Franklin Lane High School, Brooklyn, New York, Rosenblum says:

ANNOUNCER: Tom's Uncle George has made an interesting agreement with him. But now they are in an argument and want to submit the question to you. The question hinges on this point, "Is there consideration present in this agreement?" Here's Tom now, asking his uncle to keep his promise.

TOM: You said, Uncle George, that if I gave up smoking, stopped staying out late, and studied every day, you would give me $100 at the end of the year.

UNCLE GEORGE: Yes, Tom, I did say I would give you $100 if you would give up smoking and staying out late and would devote time every day to study.

TOM: Well, the year is over. I kept my promise, and my marks at school went up to the 90's. I lived up to my part of the contract. Now it's time for you to keep your promise.

UNCLE GEORGE: Of course, I'm pleased at your high marks, but $100—oh, no! After all, I'm not bound by my promise.

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TOM: But, Uncle George, it's a promise. It's a contract. You can't do that!

ANNOUNCER: (To the class) Uncle George can't do that, can he?

... The dramatization presented above is one of the teaching devices that enliven the lesson in business law. The preparation and presentation of such brief sketches affords an excellent opportunity for pupil participation and enriched understanding in the study of business law. Pupils can help in planning a series of such cases for use at appropriate times during the course.

... Although the teacher must serve as the guide, the pupils themselves are capable of preparing dramatized problems in law. Almost any rule of law can be illustrated by dramatization, but some legal principles are particularly well adapted to this technique of presentation and discussion. The chief source of material for these dramatized cases is the series of legal principles studied in the course. Supplementary cases may be developed from a variety of sources.

A photograph or a cartoon may suggest a legal problem for dramatization. ...

Magazine articles may supply additional ideas. ...

Short stories too may provide ideas for dramatization. ...

Radio programs may also suggest ideas to the teacher and pupils. Students may help in selecting such programs and may accept assignments to report items of interest. ...

Motion pictures may contribute to the store of information. Pupil participation is readily obtained in the search for suitable subject matter.

To introduce the technique, the teacher may rehearse the very first skit with a selected group of pupils. The teacher will then explain the problem, designate the part for each pupil, and distribute to each a typewritten copy of the sketch.

Pupils may prepare sketches involving a legal problem. This work may be done individually or in groups.

A stimulus to imagination is created in the planning, writing and performing of sketches. One simple example may illustrate this point.
In the study of the rules governing Consideration, a group was selected to present "Domestic Discord," a problem arising from a husband's promise to pay his wife for washing the dishes. The teacher merely expected a simple, oral presentation of the problem. However, the girl directing the group seated the "tired husband" behind a newspaper at the teacher's desk. Then the girl provided an apron, a table cloth, and a few dishes for realism. Background music, "Homework," was included at the suggestion of the youthful director. Her extra effort was appreciated and complimented by the class and the teacher. One such incident affects the spirit and performance of future sketches.

Greater pupil participation, individual instruction (as in the encouragement of shy pupils), variety of method, motivation, and enriched understanding are among the benefits derived from this socialized activity. Like any other device, its effectiveness in any given classroom must be determined by each teacher for himself.

In discussing the use of voice recorders in business law classes at Franklin Lane High School, Brooklyn, New York, Rosenblum says:

There are many uses, but the one that comes spontaneously to mind is the dramatization of legal situations, with scripts prepared by students and the dramatizations discussed as a class activity.

The stories for dramatizations may be obtained from teacher and pupils, from textbooks and magazines, from cartoons and posters, from radio and motion pictures, from colleagues and parents, from former pupils and alumni.

Every teacher describes cases that may be written in a form convenient for dramatization. Instead of reading or telling the case problem to the class, the teacher prepares the case as a short, one-minute sketch and has a team of students record it on tape.

Pupils prepare scripts for problems, too, once they have heard a model. One such problem, written and dramatized by three pupils, concerned a fraudulent sale, illustrated in an amusing manner. The basis of the misrepresentation was the use of the French word "lapin" to describe rabbit skin.

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The resourceful teacher will devise his own procedure for preparing recordings. One obvious method is the direct transcription of a radio program such as a courtroom broadcast or a campaign talk on legislative policy. More common than such transcription, however, is the direct recording of scripts written by the pupils.

Creative expression is stimulated as pupils prepare "broadcasts." Individual talents of pupils are utilized in planning, writing, dramatizing, and producing recordings. In one law class for example, two students wrote a script to develop the principle that one who attempts to practice a profession without holding the required license may not recover payment for his services. The writers chose their cast; the script was recorded in class.

The playback held the audience enthralled. They ignored the bell that ended the period. The reason? They were listening to the dramatization, to the voices of their own classmates. The interest was as intense as it would have been if they had been looking at a film of their classmates.

Greater realism may be obtained through the use of appropriate sound effects. In one case, traffic noises were needed as a background to set the site. Through correspondence with a local radio station, a recording of traffic noises was borrowed. We wove it into our script by playing it on a phonograph as our speakers talked into the microphone.

In another playlet, a kitchen background was obtained by using dishes and glasses in the home economics room. The clinking and splashing of dishwashing set the scene for a domestic episode.

A musical theme was introduced for many of the sketches we prepared in our classes. Appropriate piano selections were suggested by the pupils. In one household problem, a solo and duet were used to express a transition from discord to accord.

Brief rehearsals were adequate for our purpose. Pupils became accustomed to the procedure through participation and through observation. Some groups worked together, like committees. They arranged to meet and conduct their own rehearsals. As the pupils gained experience, they became more resourceful and more proficient in the use of this new medium. Some pupils developed sufficient leadership to assume responsibility for casting, rehearsing, and directing. How dynamic this made our course!

As a project, the preparation of recordings involves planning, research, writing, speaking, and directing. These, in turn,
develop initiative, enthusiasm, responsibility, originality, cooperation, and creative expression. The pupils experience the mental and emotional satisfaction of carrying a project through to successful completion. They engage in teamwork directed toward the attainment of their own goals.

As a teaching device, the recordings present a motivating problem for discussion, review, or summary. One of the most striking effects of the proper use of recordings is the emotional tone created in the classroom. Curiosity is aroused and interest sustained as the pupils lend first their ears, and then their minds, to the "classroom broadcast." 106

In discussing the use of dramatization as a means of introducing a new unit of work, Delman says:

Pupils are well accustomed to the series of motivation problems presented by the teacher in introducing new work. Instead, for variety, . . . [students] may present little dramas illustrating a fundamental problem. Frequently these are written or devised by the pupils themselves. . . . Sometimes, it is true, the plays misfire, but often they are very ingenious. For example, duress and undue influence can be clearly presented in one-minute plays written and acted by the pupils. After each play, the chairman in charge asks: "Is the contract binding?" and conducts the discussion that follows. If necessary, the teacher joins the discussion, helps the chairman to summarize it, and the principle underlying the case is written on the blackboard.

Instead of trying to motivate a difficult topic like fraud by cases, questions and answers, it is much more stimulating and successful to have a three-minute play showing fraud being practised by a shopkeeper on a customer. The pupils enjoy participating in the writing and presentation and the class obtains a very clear picture of fraud in action. . . . 107

In discussing the use of mock trials in business law classes,


Harris says:

An excellent opportunity is afforded for significant student growth in the ability to work co-operatively with others. For best results, students should participate in planning the mock trial as well as in playing the parts. It is desirable that they exercise initiative in planning and that each student takes some responsibility for the success of the undertaking. This results in a better trial and in more meaningful learning. The quality of the learning experience is likely to be much higher when students participate actively from the beginning to the end.

While it is desirable for students to participate extensively in planning the mock trial, it is usually necessary that they be given some background of experience in order that they may comprehend the nature of the task that lies before them.

For several years I have used mimeographed copies of a mock trial for the purpose of acquainting students with courtroom procedures. By making each part brief, it was possible to make the complete play short enough to be presented in one classroom period. Members of the class are chosen for the parts in the play a day or two before it is to be presented and they are given copies of the play to study. No attempt is made to have the students memorize the parts; however, they are asked to study the script so as to become familiar with it. In the presentation of the play, the parts are read directly from the script and students are urged to read their parts as though they were broadcasting a radio play. There are enough parts for most of the members of an ordinary-sized class; the remaining students are asked to form the jury. Parts may be assigned by the teacher, or students may be allowed to nominate and to elect the participants. In my classes I have found it more effective to elect the students suitable for the various parts.

After their experiences with the mock trial, students appear to have the necessary knowledge to take the initiative in planning an original mock trial. Once the actual procedure of the trial is understood, the students have a background of experience to which innovations may be related in order to produce something new and different. A meaningful context is provided for individual interests and aptitudes.

In order to provide for maximum student growth, members of the class should be encouraged to take the initiative in planning and in assuming responsibility for it. The teacher should take as little active part as possible, doing only enough to maintain
interest and to keep the planning on a practical basis. There need be no fear that the quality of the mock trial will suffer if the teacher does not do most of the planning. Students display great ingenuity and resourcefulness in planning an original mock trial when they have had sufficient experience to provide a meaningful background. They give freely of their spare time and the quality of their preparation is high. Outside sources are frequently consulted. Initiative and imagination find abundant opportunity for expression in examination and cross-examination of witnesses, statements to the jury, and introduction of evidence. The youthful attorneys made good use of their opportunities for introducing drama and humor into the simulated courtroom situation. Those students who are selected for jurors follow the course of the mock trial with keen interest, and heated discussions often center about the issues which have been presented.

An effective way to begin planning the mock trial is to allow the members of the class to elect one student to act as prosecuting attorney. This student should be given a day or two to prepare his case and he should then be asked to give the details of an imaginary violation of the law and to accuse someone in the class of having committed the violation. The student who is accused should be allowed to choose any member of the class to act as his defense attorney. A judge should be elected and each attorney should be allowed to choose one or more assistants. Other personnel, such as the sheriff, a court reporter, detectives, policemen, or bailiffs should be elected as necessary. Attorneys should be allowed to use any other members of the class as witnesses; the witnesses chosen may appear as any imaginary personages who are needed for the success of the trial. The evidence, of course, must be manufactured by both sides. On the day of the trial, any students who are not otherwise taking part should serve on the jury.

This method of teaching the trial is effective, economical of class time, and it provides active participation for all students. The teacher takes the student at his present level of growth and assists him to plan a learning experience which will lead to a more advanced stage. A favorable learning situation is created which provides meaningful context for significant student growth. Students begin their study of the trial unit by acquiring a background of experience which provides a firm foundation for individual initiative and creative planning. Under the guidance of the teacher, they build upon this foundation to effect a coherent organization of an original mock trial. The feelings of satisfaction which result from the successful trial create a favorable attitude which provides a desirable type of motivation.
for the remaining units of the course.\textsuperscript{108}

Radio and Assembly Programs

General business. In describing a project in which general business students at John Swett Union High School, Crockett, California, planned and presented a radio program, Misak says:

Every week the John Swett Union High School of Crockett, California, presents a fifteen-minute radio program. Sometimes it is a preview of Friday night's football game; sometimes it is a musical program; sometimes it is an "inside look" into one of the classes at school.

[A] radio script was prepared by the members of a freshman junior business training class. The script was based on questions on budgets that were submitted and discussed by all the students in the class. The script writers busily recorded comments, reactions, and main ideas as the class discussed the topic of budgets.

Members of the panel for the radio program were elected by the class members. Practice on the script was scheduled during the lunch hour and after school. The program was presented to the class from time to time and further suggestions for improvement were made by members of the class. Finally, a tape recording of the script was made.

All members of the class agreed that having a radio program was fun as well as educational. The students' interest in budgets mounted and some students who had never been too interested in junior business worked zealously now. Members of the class became better acquainted with each other and everyone agreed that the entire project was worth while.\textsuperscript{109}


\textsuperscript{109}Mary Misak, "Junior Business Is on the Air!", The Balance Sheet, 34:395, May, 1953.
In describing a project in which general business students at Whittier School, Bridgeport, Connecticut, planned and presented an assembly program, Liptak says:

Junior business training, I have found over a period of years, is peculiarly adapted to projects—projects of every sort, projects adaptable to student interests, projects that scoop the student into eager participation in the subject.

The nature of your projects will reflect the natures of your students—their likes and dislikes, their vocational interests, their skills.

When our classes were first asked to prepare a junior business assembly program, the students evolved an idea that... entailed full-scale project. First they selected a topic worth presenting—the history of communications. Next they engaged in a feverish research to determine for themselves the history of communications. Then they prepared large posters, each devoted to picturizing a phase of the development of communications in this country. The whole class worked over the posters until each was a dramatic a poster as our means made possible (and incidentally, the whole class learned communications as though each member had himself prepared the whole series of posters).

For the assembly presentation, the posters were used to decorate the stage. During the program, each poster was explained by a student of the class... while class members in the orchestra provided suitable sound effects... Whenever extra dramatization could be given to any phase, this was done—like the semaphore signaling demonstration by sea scouts in uniform to dramatize flag signals...

Business law. In discussing the assembly program as an effective device for teaching of business law, Rosenblum says:

In addition to the knowledge it may impart, the program in the auditorium offers other benefits—socialization, motivation, and

development of special talents of individuals. The subject of business law is rich in material that may be used for assembly programs.

... Since there is very little written matter available, the teacher and class will probably find it necessary to plan and prepare their own program. . .

Possible programs include a quiz program, a panel or forum, a full-length play, a radio sketch, a judge-and-jury presentation, and a series of short dramatizations.

The assembly program is not a classroom lesson. It does, however, have inherent values that can be utilized by the teacher of law. Its benefits are perhaps more widespread than are those of the classroom.

The responsibility of planning and performing an assembly program may be assumed by a law class or club. Such a project has educational and social values that may be shared by the group. Individual talents may be encouraged in planning, writing, acting, setting the stage, and playing the musical accompaniment.

Class or School Paper

Typewriting. In discussing possible activities for typewriting in which the students might be interested, Pumala says:

A group might work on a class newspaper, thereby learning, among other things, to work at the duplicating machine, to assemble papers, to use a stapler efficiently. This group would be producing something real, to be read with interest in the class and school, not to be marked and tossed into a waste-paper basket. . . .

Shorthand. In discussing a project in which students at Roosevelt


High School, Chicago, Illinois, prepared a class paper in shorthand, Marshall says:

One project in self-expression that students enjoy is the writing of a class paper in shorthand. In this undertaking, the members of a committee work together to produce interesting articles, personal items, and anything else they wish to write. The committee is changed every two weeks. Such a project provides a social setting that gives an opportunity of working harmoniously with others—a most important characteristic for insuring future success.113

As a result of a conversation before the class period of a shorthand class at Central Commercial High School, New York, New York, the students began keeping diaries in shorthand. Sandry, the teacher, suggested that perhaps the students would be interested in pooling their experiences into one diary or magazine, devoted to topics of mutual school interest.

The girls were receptive to the idea of a class magazine, but wondered how they would be able to read each other’s contributions. ... At first it was suggested that everyone write her article in shorthand. However, this presented a dilemma because, although many students write beautiful Pitman notes, others' notes are unfortunately decipherable only by themselves. Moreover, it was necessary to have at least thirty copies for each of the members of the class. Even the students who write clear, legible shorthand might become somewhat fatigued by the time they had copied the last draft.

In considering the use of stencils, there arose such problems as obtaining the proper stylus for Pitman shorthand, arranging for use of the illuminated drawing board, and having several members of the class excused from other duties to run off the stencils. ... .

Then a student asked why it might not be a good idea to have each member read her particular contribution, while the other

students wrote it in shorthand. This suggestion proved acceptable to the class, provided that the girls did not dictate too rapidly.

Since thirty contributions were to be dictated, a considerable amount of time was to be taken out of the shorthand class. It was decided to use the time during the last two weeks of the course, after the final examinations were completed.

As there were thirty articles to be dictated, it was decided to have at least five read each day, on the assumption that the average article would take about six minutes to dictate.

Each girl examined her article, prior to dictating it, and selected the words that might prove difficult for the class to write in shorthand. These words were placed on the blackboard as a preview, prior to the dictation.

After each girl read her article, she waited to see if there were any questions about shorthand outlines or about her ideas.

Since the transcription period followed the shorthand dictation period each day, the girls transcribed the articles which had been dictated by their fellow students the preceding period. This provided each student with a typewritten as well as a stenographic copy of the magazine. The master copy, to be kept in the office of the chairman of the secretarial studies department, was bound carefully, and a picture on the outside cover was drawn by the class "artist."

The class enjoyed these final weeks not only because there was a change in their regular activity, but because they were conscious of the values which their participation entailed.

Several girls felt that they had developed a greater insight into people's characters and actions. They also mentioned the development of a greater tolerance towards others, and appreciation of such desirable traits as courtesy, considerateness and a sense of humor.

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Office practice. In describing a class magazine project conducted by office practice students at Abraham Lincoln High School, Brooklyn, New York, Epstein says:

Teachers of secretarial practice classes have splendid opportunities for guidance by following a program of pupil participation. In encouraging my classes to adopt the class magazine as a stimulating and challenging project, I have worked out a definite classroom procedure, or technique, which is here outlined. . .

The technique, based on the fundamental principle of pupil participation quite naturally follows the project method. Consequently, the guiding steps in the teaching procedure correspond with the psychological essentials of a good project formulated by William H. Kilpatrick in his book "How We Learn," namely:

(1) Purposing
(2) Planning
(3) Executing
(4) Evaluating

The activities in which pupils and teacher participate during the production of the class magazine are concisely described under each of Kilpatrick's basic steps:

Purposing:

1. The entire scope and purpose of the class magazine is fully explained to the pupils. Several class periods, perhaps three or four, should be devoted to this step, a purposing or orientation process, in the teaching technique.

2. Self-motivation is secured by means of a thorough class discussion of the project, so directed and guided that the pupils accept it as their own worthwhile, specific, and desirable enterprise.

Planning:

1. Pupils submit various topics of their own choice in areas of greatest interest to them, on which they wish to work.

2. Personal attention must be given to pupils in order to help them choose subjects that are vital, original, meaningful, significant, and as far as possible related to their interests and experiences. Here, the teacher must exercise good
judgment in guiding pupils in their suitable selection of topics, keeping in mind their individual differences, needs, and abilities.

3. A cumulative list of well-chosen topics, used by previous classes, together with many suggested new ones each term, is kept on file and made available for use by all pupils.

4. Topics are usually selected which pertain to business, social problems, careers, secretarial work and office procedure, present day economic issues, travel, art, science, poetry, humor, sports, specialized bibliographies, crossword puzzles, book reviews, and the like.

5. Illustrative topics which may be used for magazine editorials or general articles are indicated merely for the purpose of serving as suggestive examples:

(a) Opportunities of a Secretary
(b) How to Find a Job
(c) Character Traits I Admire
(d) Our Industrial Society
(e) The Art of Good Letter Writing
(f) Duplicating—Methods and Machines
(g) Women in Industry
(h) Arranging an Itinerary
(i) Good Speech in Business
(j) Visiting the World's Fair

6. Library references are given to pupils who need more information before they can get started.

7. Pupils participate in the election of a magazine staff and proper committees, such as:

(a) The Editor-in-Chief
(b) Assistant Editor (and reporting squad)
(c) Art Editor (and staff artists)
(d) Stencil Squad (assistant typists and stencil writers)
(e) The Mimeo Squad
(f) The Binding Squad
(g) A Business Manager (if warranted)

8. Responsibility is placed on pupils to be ready with their completed material at specified times, and where pupils work together in committees, such responsibility rests upon the committee chairman.

Executing:
1. Pupils work largely on their own initiative, drive, "punch," and enthusiasms, during this state of the procedure.

2. The teacher offers only occasional direction and guidance if the editors, committee chairmen, or individual pupil asks for special help in solving particular difficulties.

6. As articles are submitted, the editors proof-read and correct them; samples of completed pages are typed, checked for accuracy, drawings prepared and attractively arranged; and finally the first completed copy is submitted for supervisory approval of the teacher who merely checks for compliance with expected standards and eliminates any indiscretions which may have escaped the editors.

7. Stencils are then carefully prepared.

9. The stencils are then mimeographed.

10. Assembling of copies is accomplished.

11. Stapling follows and the magazine is completed and distributed.

Evaluating:

1. Pupils are given an opportunity to discuss and judge their own work.

2. Some "best" contributions are analyzed and appraised; "poor" ones do not escape notice.

3. Points of excellence and places for improvement are summarized.

4. Thoughtful discussion of the magazine offers every pupil an opportunity to state his gains in terms of new experiences.

Wisely and ably conducted, pupil participation through a secretarial practice class magazine can be made a vehicle for "effectual intelligence" through a combination of the mastery of tools, skills, and techniques, directed toward a satisfying personal and social end. Learning becomes a meaningful process of growth through experience in life-like situations.

Abraham Epstein, "Techniques for Producing a Magazine in the
In describing a class magazine project conducted by office practice students at Susan Miller Dorsey High School, Los Angeles, California, Scott says:

This project offers an opportunity for the student to display his particular skill in the performance of some of the many clerical or secretarial processes necessary in the production of the finished product. The skill varies, of course, from a mere acquaintance with certain processes and operations to a considerable degree of proficiency in doing others. It offers an experience in working as a part of a unified group toward a common goal. It demands teamwork. It offers a strong climax to those sections of the course which deal with organization and system of management. It stresses the ability to cooperate and get along with all members of the office staff.

... Every class is composed of students who possess abilities in varying degrees, and individual differences become a real asset in this type of project. It is important to keep in mind that the development of proper habits, attitudes, and skills may be just as valuable as technical knowledge or general information. Students are inspired to read and to search for ideas which might develop into something of value for our book.

After a period of a few weeks, discussion is resumed and the class is then ready to choose the editor and assistant editor. This has been very successful each semester primarily because the location of maximum interest is quite evident and the class has been able to choose wisely.

After the interest and enthusiasm have been created, the project is organized on a business basis. At this point, the editor takes charge and the following questions are discussed:

What shall the theme be?

When do we plan to distribute it?

What is the financial plan?

What colors shall we use in both paper and ink?

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Who, in the class, has artistic ability?

What do we wish to use for the cover?

Who are the best shorthand penmanship students?

Who will be in charge of duplicating?

Who is interested in getting experience in the use of the stylus and the illuminated drawing board?

Finally, we come to the preparation of the list of pages we wish to include in our paper. Susan Miller Dorsey High School classes have had six issues of the Secretarial Highway with improvement and added interest in each succeeding one. There are certain things included in each issue such as: editorial page, shorthand and typing speeds attained by various students throughout the department, fashions in business, alumni, and a closing page. The remainder of the book varies according to the interests of those doing the work.

In order to be specific, a description of the last issue follows. . . . we chose committees to handle distribution and mailing. . . . All committees became actively engaged in preparing units of work that gave each student an opportunity to develop his own interests. . . .

The work of the teacher is that of carefully preparing the background so that the students' initiative and enthusiasm will carry them through. Carrying on a project of this kind helps the teacher to understand students as individuals, their interests, their learning abilities, and their difficulties. It brings out differences in attitudes, points of view, emotional stability, qualities of leadership, drive and endurance, capacity for growth and further development, and many other characteristics.

Each Secretarial Highway has revealed interests, ambitions, and other important factors that might never have been found out in the regular routine of classroom work.116

Business law. In suggesting the class newspaper as a project

for a business law class, Satlow says:

In an age characterized by a preponderance of educational discussion, both oral and written, and devoted to the vitalization of instruction, it is rather surprising that so little attention has been directed to the significance of so simple a device as the class newspaper. The present article is the result of a happy experience with this type of project in connection with the teaching of commercial law.

After the students in each of my two commercial law classes had had an opportunity to develop some degree of group consciousness, I suggested the publication of a mimeographed class newspaper. The discussion which followed indicated that the suggestion had met with the hearty approval of the students.

Various names for the paper were offered in each class. These were voted upon in regular parliamentary fashion, one class choosing to call its paper, "Our Law Chronicle," the other "Lex." Election of editorial staffs followed. Each staff met after school hours, reported its plan to its respective class and set a deadline for contributions.

A healthful competitive spirit soon manifested itself, one class endeavoring to outdo the other. Neither class would countenance the recommendation that both groups combine and issue one paper: each wanted its own medium of expression. . . .

The eagerness and keen interest with which the students look forward to any issue of the class paper attest to the significant place it occupies in the life of the class. That this interest is sustained is evidenced by the inquiries of students for copies distributed to the class on the day of their absence. The genuineness of this feeling is borne out by the fact that students of former terms regularly ask for copies of current issues.117

In making an appeal for classroom atmosphere which will facilitate pupil participation, Rosenblum says:

The development of initiative and resourcefulness is stirred by the challenge of ideas suggested by pupils and teacher.

For example, the idea of a class newspaper leads to the selection of appropriate items from newspapers, books, and magazines;

the preparation of colorful blackboard drawings; the search for legal oddities and humor; the selection of a design for the masthead; and the appointment of editors to supervise the program.118

Business English. In describing a project in which business English students at the Senior High School, LaPorte, Indiana, produced a mimeographed school paper, Beesley says:

The first of the benefits is derived by the student, whose interest is aroused, not only for his work, but for all school affairs. A noticeable responsibility, which every student enjoys, develops when a specific assignment is given to him as his particular staff duty. At the same time there is an opportunity for self-expression in analyzing, interpreting, forming decisions, and expressing opinions. Is it not true that business training should seek to develop such initiative? No better exercise can be given for the application of textbook principles than in the business and editorial work of the paper. The socializing element must not be overlooked. The formal class becomes a staff work shop comparable to our organized business office. . . .119

Scrapbooks for Exchange with Students in Other Schools

General business. In describing a project in which general business students at Ponca City High School, Ponca City, Oklahoma, prepared a scrapbook for exchange with students in a foreign land, Wells says:

At the Ponca City High School, the general business class—which was also the homeroom of the teacher—selected a service project for the year. According to the teacher, "The project selected was the preparation of a scrapbook about our town to be exchanged for a scrapbook by students in a foreign land. The students decided that the emphasis should be on the business life of the community. The local Red Cross was contacted and specifications for the scrapbook were obtained.


"The first step was co-operative planning concerning what should be included in the scrapbook. A committee visited the offices of the Chamber of Commerce, talked with the secretary, and brought back literature and pamphlets. Another committee visited the local newspaper and discussed with the editor what should be included in the scrapbook. Of course, the result of the second visit was publicity in the local paper. Such publicity made business men only too willing to co-operate in the project.

"After co-operative planning of areas of business life to be included in the project, business men were invited to the classroom to describe banking, dairying, retailing, insurance, and many other phases of the business life of the city. After a visit by a business man, the class often wanted to visit his firm or institution to observe its operation. When the class returned from such a trip, a member was appointed to summarize the trip in writing, and this description, together with the pictures and literature collected, became a part of the scrapbook. Students who worked after school often brought complete descriptions of their firms to class, first presented orally, then written for the scrapbook. When pictures were not available, students took photographs for the scrapbook. Countless business forms were collected to be included with descriptions of banks, post offices, insurance firms, and others. At the close of the semester, an attractive cover was made and the scrapbook was mailed to a school in Italy."120

Economic geography. In describing a project in which economic geography students at Long Branch Senior High School, Long Branch, New Jersey, carried on correspondence with pupils in other schools, Schreiber says:

There is nothing new in the idea of having pupils carry on correspondence with pupils in schools in distant parts of the country or the world. . . .

Last year some of the pupils in my commercial geography classes seemed interested in such a project. When the proposition was put before the several geography classes, a considerable number of the other pupils also became interested and the project was soon under way.

While efforts were being made to contact the various schools, all the pupils in the several classes in commercial geography were kept busy collecting facts about their own state and immediate community. A list of topics to write about was prepared.

One of these topics was assigned at a time. The entire class worked on that one topic for several days. One member of each class was chosen to act as chairman. The topic was discussed in class and each member contributed the information he had been able to gather. The chairman made notes of the discussion and then collected the written reports of all the members. From these data he prepared a final report. After this report was corrected, it was placed on the blackboard and many copies were made with pen and ink to be filed for use when the correspondence would actually get under way.

Pupils were also on the lookout for pictures, post cards, photographs, and pamphlets which would be of interest to pupils in other parts of the country or the world. One of the boys who was interested in amateur photography made extra prints from negatives brought in by members of his class.

As acceptances of our offer of correspondence began to come in, general instructions in letter writing had to be given.

All mail received from any one school was placed in a legal-size folder and labeled. Copies of letters mailed and a complete record of other material sent was kept in the same folder.

The results of the project were briefly summarized in a program presented by some of the members of the several classes before the entire school at an assembly near the close of the school year. This group gave the same program to the parents and the friends of the school on the evening of the annual school exhibit.

The main exhibit of the project was held in the classroom. It also consisted of maps mounted on large sheets of wallboard with bright ribbons running from the points on the maps from which correspondence had been received to the edges of the boards where the material received from those respective places was attractively displayed.\(^{121}\)

**Building a Resource File**

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General business. In describing the way in which students participated in building a resource file at the University School, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, Jennings says:

Pupils from the tenth grade general core approached the business teacher and said, "Mr. James, we are studying consumer problems, and we thought you might be able to help us locate some materials relating to family budgets. You helped us when we were studying the monetary system of the United States. Do you have any materials on budgeting, especially statistical information?"

Mr. James suppressed a sigh; sub-vocally he said, "I teach a full-day's schedule, I keep the school accounts, I work on faculty committees, I sponsor the Stag Club; why, oh, why do these people molest me every time they want information concerning these little phases of business? Can't they see . . ." But interest in the pupils, interest in an adequate program of general education including economics and basic business understandings and skills, won out, and Mr. James worked with the students . . .

The pupils were happy and satisfied with the help they got, but Mr. James wasn't. "If only I had more to give them; more sources of information; more books; more pamphlets . . . If only we had a central file--Well, why don't we! We shall start one immediately."

A few days later Mr. James contacted these same tenth grade pupils and asked them if they would be interested in helping build a file of resource materials in business education. The pupils agreed enthusiastically for, as they said, "Then we'll know what's here, and we can tell our core group, too." Thus, a Resource File for Basic Business was started.

From this small group of tenth graders, interest and enthusiasm spread into the other core groups. Mr. James announced to his business classes that a number of persons were working on this file and that any interested pupils who wished to join the group should meet with them during the "cut-across" period. Boys and girls came from every class. In fact, Mr. James saw that his first problem was to organize this group into smaller coordinated groups. The students agreed, and it was decided to divide the large group into four working groups.

Working Groups

First, the correspondents. This group was to work in the libraries in order to obtain information as to where to write for free and inexpensive materials for the file. These boys and girls were to
do the actual writing for the information and for the material. Mr. James selected two advanced pupils who were responsible for checking all letters to be mailed. They worked closely with the instructor to be sure that the letters requesting materials were "mailable." Needless to say, this group had a real experience in letter writing.

Second, the catalogue group. It was their duty to catalogue material which was available but which would not be placed in the files, such as books found in the library. Outstanding materials relative to basic business were found in the school library, in the University libraries, in the public library, and in some of the branch libraries. A card file was made of the books, papers, pamphlets, and the like, which would make available the interesting materials in the surrounding libraries. . . .

Third, the visiting group. This group proved to be very active. It was their responsibility to go to the business firms to collect desired materials. These pupils contacted among others, banks, insurance companies, department stores, the telephone company, law firms, advertising agencies, office machine corporations, manufacturing concerns, and transportation offices. An amazing amount of good material was brought in for the file. Several meetings were held in order to plan for their work. Certain firms and establishments were assigned to individuals, and a chart was made of firms that had been visited so that calls would not be repeated. It was decided that appointments should be made by telephone before calling on the firms. This was done in the majority of cases. A pamphlet on telephone technique was placed on the tables, and it was suggested that each one check this booklet before making the telephone calls.

Fourth, the filing group. This final group carried the most important responsibility. They were to check all the material and do the actual filing. The materials were to be filed in such a way that they would be available to all students and to all teachers. This group did much planning, studying, and work before they had a satisfactory plan and place for all the material. . . .

**Uses of the Resource File**

A great deal of time was involved in sorting, filing, and browsing through materials. Some, of course, was discarded by the pupils and that in question was placed on the desk of the instructor. In spite of the fact that this was a big job, it proved to be very enjoyable to the group. They spent hours, days, and weeks sitting by the file, sorting, reading, and browsing.

Materials continued coming in right up to the last week of school. Interest and enthusiasm continued to spread throughout the classes. . . .
This resource file originated during the latter half of the school year, and proved to be satisfactory and beneficial to all concerned. Plans are now under way for another year. A committee, consisting of two pupils from each core group who are to be elected by the groups, will carry the responsibility of the resource file. The general plan used the past year will be continued and changed if and when needed.

Pupils and teachers alike were allowed to check out the materials by placing the name of the booklet, the date, and their name on a card and leaving the card clipped on the folder. When the material was returned, the card was destroyed.

Core teachers and the core groups are anxiously looking for materials relative to their units of study and will take advantage of any good material. It seems then that it should be the responsibility of the business teacher to make available to them an abundance of general business materials; at least a card index should be set up giving information concerning what is available and where it may be obtained. 122

Bulletin Board

Business education in general. In discussing the use of bulletin boards, Logan says:

A skillfully arranged bulletin board will arouse interest and curiosity and serve as an introduction to a particular topic or problem, or as a consummation of some project.

Bulletin boards should be kept alive throughout the entire school year. The ideal plan is to have a bulletin board for each business class. However, if only one bulletin board is available for the use of several business classes, then these classes will need to take turns using it.

The preparation and arrangement of bulletin boards should be shared with the students. At the beginning of the year the teacher

and students in a class might prepare a list of the most important topics they will be studying and on which they feel bulletin boards should be prepared. Individual students may then volunteer for the responsibility of preparing a bulletin board on selected topics. In larger classes, groups of two or three students may work together in preparing bulletin boards. The teacher will need to work with the students at first, in helping them decide on what ideas to use and how to carry them out effectively. In most cases it will be found that just a little guidance is all that is needed. Students can do a surprisingly good job when allowed to use their own initiative and ingenuity.123

In describing bulletin board projects engaged in by business students at Jamesburg High School, Jamesburg, New Jersey, Smith says:

Would you like your bulletin board to be the big attraction in the school, a board that will make every teacher peek in your room? Would you like your bulletin board to back your teaching hand—yes, and get in front sometimes, too—so that what you teach is retained forever and a day?

Then all you need is a camera, some students for actors, and a little imagination.

The best value in each picture comes from planning it. For this reason, have students, whenever possible, plan the shot that is to be taken. In your class, for example, you have been talking about tardiness. Students agree, lackadaisically, that tardiness is bad.

"Tell you what," you say, "let's see if we can get, in one snapshot, a picture that presents the whole evil of tardiness as business sees it."

Interest perks up. Students make a variety of suggestions. They are seriously considering tardiness, perhaps for the first time; and eventually you and they work out a scene for the camera. Taking the picture is fun. Seeing it after it is developed is exciting. But the value is primarily in the planning. Mounting the picture on the bulletin board is just a subtle way of preserving the memory of the underlying point for a long, long time. Yes, let the students be the scenario writers and directors. You be the producer.

General Business

General business teachers can plan innumerable picture stories.

Secretarial Training. The shorthand, typing, and transcription teachers can have a field day with pictures that show how various techniques are acquired—a series on how to make a typing erasure, for example; a shot or two to illustrate the proper arrangement of working materials; and so on.

As a test of your imagination, what four pictures do you imagine would tell the story of why it is smart to clip the top left corner from carbon paper? Ask students to take that one slim idea and see what they make of it. (And you'll never have to make that corner-clipping suggestion again in that class!)

Bookkeeping. There are just as many opportunities, both in terms of attitude, character, work habits, and in terms of subject mastery in the bookkeeping class. Think how much you could do on the theme of "disorganized desks may lead to the loss of an important business paper"!

Do you ever have difficulty in getting pupils to understand adjusting entries? You use everything from books, pencils, paper, stamps, and envelopes to actual money, just to illustrate what happens; and yet there are still some students who do not understand. Well, reverse the teaching. Have a group of students plan a photo series to illustrate adjusting entries. You will find the class taking a new interest in the problem. You may obtain a good or a bad illustration, but you are sure to wind up with a class that understands adjusting entries.

It is the added effort by the pupils that supplies the finishing point to your instruction. The display on the bulletin board makes a reviewing impression.

Office Practice. The subject of office practice, with its daily ration of human-relation problems, offers the best of all opportunities for good picture stories.

Retailing and Selling. Distributive-education teachers can go even further with photography, for they have the whole field of store employment, window display, merchandise information ... and so on.

Business Law. The law class, because of the natural detective
atmosphere of case-study problems, has fine opportunities for picture-story dramatizations.

... Photographs, especially those portraying scenes carefully laid by students to tell a certain story or to explain an abstract concept, provide a vivid visual aid. In their composition, these aids help in educating the students who prepared them; in their completed form, these aids are an attraction and an educating force for all who see the displays.124

Shorthand. In describing a bulletin board project engaged in by shorthand students at Adams City High School, Adams City, Colorado, Mohr says:

Believe it or not--a bulletin board can be fun. Each week we look forward with great anticipation to seeing our bulletin board in second-year shorthand class. It happened this way:

Each week an assignment was given to two girls in second-year shorthand. They were responsible for the bulletin board for the week. They had only one guide given them--each bulletin board must have something to do with shorthand or the shorthand students in the class. The girls' enthusiasm far exceed my fondest hopes. It really stimulated interest in the entire high school.

The effective use of the bulletin board involves much work and thought. Each team of two students was given one class period during the week (usually Monday) to produce the artistic display...125

General business. In discussing the use of activities in general business subjects, Nolte says:


Bulletin boards provide an opportunity for learning if correctly handled by the teacher. The students will have little interest in it if it is a teacher task; their interest will be motivated thru letting student committees be in charge of it.126

Business law. In discussing student participation in preparing bulletin board displays, Wells quotes a report from the Reno High School, Reno, Nevada, as follows:

... "I handle the bulletin board by having two chairmen. They have access to materials that I have gleaned over the years so that they can start a bulletin board going when we undertake a new unit of study. Students bring in materials dealing with the unit, and the chairmen evaluate it and decide which items shall be posted. One day given to news articles from current periodicals helps to provide materials. If the chairmen want illustrations of forms and legal papers, they can ask the reference committee or the speaker's committee to contact the typing department, attorneys, publishing companies, or business firms to obtain such papers."127

Displays

Business education in general. In suggesting ways in which business teachers can aid students in their classes to make occupational


choices, Forrester says:

"... Knowing that high school boys and girls are indifferent to the commonplace and curious about the picturesque, the ingenious teacher will utilize displays, pictures, posters, bulletin boards, illustrations, photographs, graphs, and pictorial charts to attract their wandering attention. Strikingly graphic and vivid pictorial materials are abundantly available in periodicals, newspapers, advertising material, and exhibits which are designed to attract and inform.

Pupil activity in selecting these graphic materials and planning for their use will render more effective results.

"... Any teacher... who aims to provide a bird's-eye view of the workaday world will establish a file in which to keep pamphlets, pictures, clippings, and other loose pieces of information about occupations. Attractive, provocative, and informative as they are, however, pamphlets and pictures are too often left in their places in classroom libraries, where their usefulness is concealed behind the bland facade of steel filing cabinets.

To remedy this situation, a weekly calendar of exhibits, allowing for committees to change the pamphlet and picture displays frequently lures new patrons to the files where they may glimpse their unsuspected resources...

In arranging the pamphlet and picture display, pupils will examine what is available in the file and will supply from modern photographic advertising in current magazines additional clippings and pictures to make the display more dramatic, vivid, and attractive. When pupils are familiar with the files, circulation statistics soar most gratifyingly. Once pupils have been made aware of these sources of information they go directly to the vertical files to augment regular reading matter. Practically every individual who has at any time co-operated in a display remains the file's grateful and enthusiastic supporter.

An effective method of promoting the reading of books about vocations and of encouraging the verification and authentication of the information in them is to request groups of pupils to arrange weekly displays of printed matter in the classroom or in the library.

Committees of pupils may be asked to utilize the collection of pamphlets, pictures, and clippings and arrange occasional
Distributive education. In discussing student participation in group demonstrations in a distributive education class, Gohn and Taylor say:

Cooperative students in distributive education are often requested to arrange small displays in their selling departments. This fact pointed to a need for the development of some skills in this field. Since a course in display was not available, it was felt that the students could learn some of the principles of good display by actually planning and arranging a series of displays in the retail unit of the classroom.

The purpose, method of procedure and hoped-for results were explained to the class. Then the class was divided into committees of five students each. After due consideration, each committee selected the type of merchandise to be featured and chose a date for the display.

Let us follow one committee through the steps of planning and creation of the display. This committee desired to display girls' dresses and chose a spring date that coincided with the coming of the circus. Their obvious choice of a circus theme fitted very well with the merchandise and the season. The group drew a rough sketch for each window. Accompanying each sketch was a list of merchandise and props to be used...

Each member of the committee assumed responsibility for collecting some of the articles. Arrangements were made with a local store for the loan of merchandise. The students selected the desired pieces, met and arranged the displays. Next, an expert was summoned to view the displays and analyze them from the angle of color, balance, interest and selling appeal.

When the group demonstrated their display to the class, each member of the committee discussed a different phase of the project, including the criticisms of the expert. The student who explained the planning steps, told the class of the various ideas that had

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been considered and why some had been adopted and others discarded. Then, one of the group members rearranged the display to illustrate the stronger selling appeal of the final arrangement.129

In describing a project in which students at the Isaac C. Elston Senior High School, Michigan City, Indiana, prepared window displays in cooperation with local merchants, Relander says:

... The class elected to study and trim windows. Several days were spent in class discussing displays— their kinds, how to build, color harmony, design, importance of displays, and the problems connected with window displays in particular.

Several prominent businessmen were contacted and their consent was obtained to use their windows and merchandise to build window displays.

The next day after the project was completed the class spent the class period composing and writing a letter of appreciation and thanks to the merchants... .

Another day the class went to town in a body and later held a class discussion of each window. The students were very severe in their criticism of each others' work. Their criticisms, however, were of the bad points as well as the good; they gave praise where praise was due.130

General business. In discussing possible projects for a general business course, Douglas says:


Prepare displays. These need not be limited to bulletin boards, but may include table and other displays. Pupils will have a surprisingly large and varied list of excellent ideas. They will show initiative in soliciting and collecting materials for display ranging from pictures, pamphlets, letters, and advertising materials through actual merchandise, record forms, types of money, and insurance policies, etc. Occasionally the display will take the form of posters and charts prepared by the students themselves or prepared for them by interested and cooperative business people in the community.

Business law. In discussing the use of posters and cartoons in business law classes, Rosenblum says:

One of the most valuable, yet most neglected, tools of the trade in the teaching of business law is the poster or cartoon. Its value extends to numerous areas in the learning process.

For the pupil, posters offer opportunities for creative expression both in suggesting and in drawing cartoons. This challenge may be directed to classes, committees, or individuals.

For the pupils, posters serve to stimulate imagination in the selection of appropriate problems and the planning and preparation of the posters. Interchange of opinions among students guides them in their work.

As a class or committee project, various topics in the syllabus may be selected for investigation to seek appropriate cases for poster-problems. For example, one committee might select the topic of agreement while another chooses the subject of legality.

The value of the posters thus used in law classes may be appraised through the effect on the tangible as well as on the intangible objectives of instruction. Among the intangibles are the social values and spirit that are developed through co-operative effort and shared experiences in solving a problem of common interest.

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III. STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Business education in general. In discussing pupil participation in class routines in business education classes, LaGuardia says:

Classroom organization and management and the establishment of procedures afford excellent opportunities for self-directed, pupil-controlled activity under guidance of the teacher. These may take many forms and will vary with the resourcefulness of the pupils and teacher. The organization of the group and the order of class work should be so planned that as many pupils as possible will have the opportunity of accepting responsibility for the smooth operation of the activity of a particular learning activity. Each pupil should be able to contribute a part, no matter how apparently insignificant, to the success of the learning effort.

The routine tasks in which pupils accept responsibility enthusiastically are known to all teachers. Care of the boards, floors, checking of attendance, the writing of assignments, distribution and collection of papers and the placing of preparatory material on the board are the most common.

Typewriting. In discussing the classroom organization of typewriting classes, Harms says:

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Typing teachers should provide opportunities for experience in democratic procedures by effecting a proper classroom organization. Not only will proper organization help students to experience the meaning of democracy, but it will make the whole job easier for the teacher. Early in the term students should be given an opportunity to elect officers; a chairman, a secretary, and various assistants. The librarian should be given charge of books and typing tests to facilitate handling of papers, tests, and the like. If this becomes burdensome, the librarian can have several assistants. There should be a class statistician to check attendance, and a person whose duty it is to supervise bulletin boards. There might also be a supervisor of maintenance—a person whose special duty it is to see that classroom property is protected, that waste is cut to a minimum, and that the room is properly ventilated.

Shorthand. In discussing pupil management of the shorthand classroom, Sharp says:

The management of a shorthand classroom by the students should contribute to democratic living. For most students, assuming responsibility for classroom management is a new experience. The entire class may at first constitute a planning committee. As the capabilities of the class grow through the acceptance of responsibility, rotating committees may handle associated activities. For example, committees may be charged with the following responsibilities: collecting, filing, and returning daily work; keeping the bulletin board up to date; proofreading transcribed letters and reports; dictating to small groups; keeping the classroom in order; arranging for out-of-class activities; and planning for the welfare of the group. What environment does this type of classroom give to the students? It gives a democratic environment in which the student may participate in self-selected activities, cooperate with the group, lead as well as follow, exercise creative self-expression, persist in worthwhile tasks, and accept responsibility. In such a democratic classroom, cooperative daily living and guided growth can take place.


Bookkeeping. In discussing classroom organization of bookkeeping classes, Boynton says:

... The details of classroom organization could be handled by student groups, providing them with experience and practice toward acquiring some of the traits which businessmen require of them, and leaving the teacher free to observe and counsel the group and individuals.

The details of the work to be done in conducting the class could be listed by the class through discussion. Such duties could be classified and organized into classroom job responsibilities. Small groups, determined by interest in the job or natural choice or by a sociogram, could accept the various responsibilities of the classroom organization. Such responsibilities might be: class records, bulletin board displays, furniture arrangements, collection and dispersal of supplies, care of office machines, and so on. . . . the group initially established should move from one responsibility to another and experience all the problems of classroom management. The teacher should also be alert to the need for changes in the personnel of the groups as the relationships develop and change. These might well form the basis for classroom discussions on personnel problems as they exist within the classroom and as they might be found projected to the office situation.136

Distributive education. In discussing student participation in classroom management at Istrouma High School, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, Edgar says:


Classroom management is a routine duty of teachers, one that many teachers find easier to perform themselves than to transfer to the shoulders of their students. Some of us ask a student to help us with a task today, another student with another task tomorrow, and so on; but by and large the responsibility and initiative remains with the teacher.

But there are many values that can be achieved if the teacher does transfer these tasks to the students. Participating in classroom management is one way of learning more about and practicing democracy. It is a method also of developing a sense of responsibility; and inasmuch as students will have to assume responsibility in society and in their vocations, it seems appropriate for us to encourage the development of this sense.

Every student in Istrouma D. E. classes hold a classroom job, usually one that he selects at the outset of the course and fulfills throughout the term. Their duties? They follow these lines:

The typist prepares all the correspondence that the work of the class involves.

Bulletin board material is turned over to the student in charge of the bulletin board. She selects the materials for display and designs her own arrangements, but she must change the displays regularly—and does.

The projector operators are boys who set up, operate, and take down the visual aid equipment whenever it is used.

The purchasing agent orders and returns all films that are borrowed from state depositories or manufacturers. He also purchases any incidental material that is used by the class.

The librarian lends and keeps a record of the borrowing of all distributive education books that the students obtain from our classroom library.

The superintendent of light, heat, and ventilation takes care of those factors; and he becomes quite efficient at seeing that lights are on or off as needed, that ventilation is satisfactory, and so on.

The magazine caretaker lends our magazines to students, who read articles and make reports.

Our waxing crew, which is in charge of waxing the furniture and equipment, enjoy their job very much.
The showcase-window cleaner keeps the windows and mirrors in our display case free from smears.

Our orderlies for floor and tables check to see whether any paper, books, or other materials are left on the tables or floors.

Filing is also done by a student. Records are kept on each of the 52 students in our co-op program. Besides the student records, files are kept on merchandise information, course outlines, evening classes, reports, conference and meeting agenda and programs, forms and blanks, and miscellaneous other things.

The photographer takes pictures of all the D, E, activities.

The reporter prepares articles and collects pictures from the photographer. These he places in the school paper.

We are hearing a great deal these days about the democratic way of life. We are trying to teach the democratic way in all classrooms. The extent to which democratic procedures can be used in conducting a high school is a question for supervisors and teachers to resolve; but there is little doubt that one method of practicing democracy—and building a sense of obligation for performing one's duties—is to encourage student participation in classroom management.

Office practice. In discussing student participation in classroom management in office practice classes, Collins says:

One effective plan is that of designating the teacher as general manager of a fictitious company. The general manager appoints his assistant manager, who then may select other helpers—secretary, file clerk, receptionist, storekeepers, and general clerks. The employees could then assume responsibility, under the supervision of the general manager, for the following:

1. Distributing materials.
2. Collecting materials.
4. Making requisitions for additional supplies.
5. Establishing desirable standards for neatness and orderliness.

6. Filing finished assignments.
7. Keeping records of work progress.
9. Serving as timekeeper.
10. Receiving visitors and answering inquiries.

An individual student may be responsible for more than one of the jobs. . . . Positions may rotate or they may be permanently assigned. Positions may be awarded on the basis of merit, on the basis of need for a certain type of experience, or on the basis of random choice or election. However the positions may be handled, the need for the appointment of alternatives and for the preparation of detailed instructions is apparent. Instructions may be prepared in advance by the teacher or may be drawn up by student committees.138

**General business.** In discussing classroom organization in general business classes, Zelliot says:

Some form of student class organization, with officers and committees that function, is highly desireble. Once established, this arrangement may relieve the teacher of certain details and give him more time for other phases of teaching; more important, however, is the opportunity that it affords for student training in cooperative management of classroom activities. While the plan is desireble in most subjects, the content and activities of junior business training lend themselves particularly well to some form of student participation in classroom control.139

**Business law.** In discussing ways for improving the teaching of business law, Jacobs says:

. . . teachers of law can have their classes elect students or committees to be responsible for many of the routine phases

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of the class period. Why not have committees for the bulletin board, the files, sanitation and supplies, attendance, and clerical work? The students generally will do just as well and many times better than the teacher. Give them responsibility and they usually rise to the situation. These committees must be changed as soon as they no longer have educational value. . . . The teacher will be disappointed at times by the pupils' failures, but it is only because students with latent aptitudes and powers lack knowledge and skill that teachers are needed.140

ILLUSTRATIVE RESOURCE UNITS FOR BUSINESS EDUCATION CLASSES

The greatest need in business education, other than the acceptance by teachers of the philosophy on which teacher-pupil planning is founded, is the construction of resource units. Only two sources of resource units were found in the literature of business education. Because of the importance of the development of resource units, if business education is to move in the direction of teacher-pupil planning, selected resource units from these two sources are placed in this appendix.

The resource units in this appendix are organized according to subject matter areas within business education. Reference is made to these resource units in the summary and evaluation following the division, "Teacher Pre-Planning Activities," in Chapter VIII.

I. TYPEWRITING

In A Guide for Instruction in Business Education, the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota includes a number of illustrative resource units such as they suggest teachers will want to construct for problems of concern to the students in their classes. The following resource unit is one of the illustrative resource units which might be developed for a personal-use typewriting course:

**PROBLEM: HOW CAN I TYPE A THEME WITH FOOTNOTES?**

One of the earliest applications of typing skill to a problem will be made possible in the student's own themes and especially
in longer themes which require footnotes. This procedure permits a correlation of knowledge of English and typewriting.

1. The Objectives of This Unit

The purpose of this unit is to provide experiences which will enable the student to:

Type from his own notes an outline for a theme
Type the theme with footnotes from the outline and supplementary notes
Type a bibliography for the theme
Type a title page for the theme

2. Suggested Activities for Students

a. Organize notes for a theme and type an outline from the notes.

b. Study sample themes prepared in longhand in order to understand the material included in footnotes and a bibliography. Note how emphasis is obtained in longhand, but how it will have to be secured in some other way in typing.

c. Study sample themes which have been prepared as models in the typewriting department.

d. Observe in all textbooks how footnotes have been written.

e. Center and make an attractive arrangement of the title of the theme.

f. Determine the margins and the spacing that will make the theme easy to read and attractive in appearance.

h. Place correctly the numbers that refer the reader to the footnotes.

i. Arrange the footnotes (1) at the bottom of the page in a position which will set them off clearly from the body of the theme, (2) in correct order for a book--author's name, title of the book, place of publication, publisher, year of publication, and the page reference, (3) in correct order for a periodical--author's name, title of the article, name of the magazine, month and year of publication, and the page reference.
j. Number the pages correctly.

k. Examine bibliographies in some textbooks of recent publication, noting the arrangement of the material, the form in which it is set up, and how the items differ from the footnotes.

l. Type a bibliography for the theme, using the correct form.

m. Type a title page for the theme including the title of the theme, the author's name, and the date of writing. Arrange the items artistically.

3. Evaluation Procedures

The quality of work done on themes typed for English or other classes may be appraised by students and teacher.

4. Suggestions for the Teacher

It will be well for the typewriting teacher to confer and cooperate with the English department of the school on the form of outline, footnotes, bibliography, and other features of theme writing. There are different styles for manuscripts and sometimes different views among teachers as to correct form. If the typewriting teacher recommends the same styles as those recommended by the English department, confusion on this matter will be avoided.

5. References


Gregg. Applied secretarial practice. Gregg, 1947

Hutchinson. Suggestions to authors on the preparation of manuscripts. (A pamphlet). Gregg, 1946


Lessenberry & Crawford. 20th century typewriting; 5th ed. South-Western pub., 1947

Lloyd. Personal typing. Gregg, 1947
The following is an illustrative resource unit for a vocational typewriting course which was constructed by the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota as a suggestion of the type of materials teachers will want to construct for problems of concern to the students in their classes:

**PROBLEM: HOW CAN I COMPOSE AT THE TYPEWRITER?**

The ability to compose at the typewriter is a great convenience and timesaver. A person's business and social letters can be prepared for mailing with a better appearance and greater speed than when they are pen written. Themes and reports can be prepared more rapidly at the typewriter. How can the ability to compose at the typewriter be acquired?

1. The Objectives of This Unit

The purpose of this unit is to provide experiences for the student which will enable him to:

- Master the devices necessary for efficient composition at the machine, such as the use of outlines, rough-draft arrangement, and memorandums

- Feel confident of his ability to type a letter, report, theme, or other material at the typewriter, while at the same time composing the subject matter in his mind

- Apply his originality to the arrangement of the materials which seem to require it, such as programs and circulars

- Acquire the trait of self-confidence in his ability to create and arrange material skillfully, or at least satisfactorily

- Estimate the probably length of the material and develop the ability to judge the correct placement on the paper

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2. Suggested Activities for Students

a. Answer by typing a short phrase or sentence such suggestions made by the teacher as the following:

Describe the weather or the weather forecast for the area for the day

Describe an event which has happened recently; for example, something you saw on the way to school—persons met, cars passed, or anything you saw of particular interest—or describe why you enjoyed a recent school game or some other school activity.

b. Type a short personal note to a friend. Explain why you cannot meet him for lunch today as previously planned, explain today's assignment in some subject if he was absent yesterday, or choose another subject on which you wish to write. Before starting to type discuss as a group:

The necessity for organizing your statements in your mind before starting to type

The importance of trying to see the other person's viewpoint when he receives the message, whether, for instance, the message sounds friendly, interested, or sorry to cause disappointment

The problems which might arise here, such as the size of paper to be used, the letter form, and how to estimate the length of the lines.

c. Write a letter to your mother, father, or some other member of your family, or a friend, describing the events of the last few days.

d. Type a brief business letter to accompany or follow merchandise returned for credit. Proofread the letter, make corrections, and if necessary retype.

e. Type a brief business letter ordering a few items from some business organization. Discuss with other members of the class a few of the important points to keep in mind, such as:

A description of the items ordered or the catalog numbers

The method of shipment

The method of payment
When and where the goods are to be sent

How the paragraph aids in presenting ideas

f. Type a letter of thanks for information received, expressing sincere appreciation in simple English. Discuss together the importance of brevity, sincerity, simplicity, and clearness in a business letter.

g. Type a letter of acknowledgment for an order received by your company. Ask the teacher to read a copy of the order, or refer to a copy of an invoice. Before typing, discuss important points to be included in the letter such as the following:

Thanks for the order

A brief restatement of the order

Information for the customer as to how and when the goods will be shipped

h. Type a brief letter acknowledging receipt of merchandise from a friend or business organization. You had previously reported the merchandise lost, since you had not received it.

i. Type a letter of inquiry, asking for information about:

An order which has come in but did not give complete information

The price or availability of a pamphlet, a book, or merchandise you would like to obtain

j. Type the answer to a letter, which has been read in class, asking for information about the school or for some other information you are qualified to give. Be sure to answer accurately the questions asked.

k. Prepare a book report, using the following suggestions:

As a guide in the preparation of the report, compose a brief outline at the typewriter for the summary of a book you have read recently.

Type the book report, following the outline guide.

Read and retype the report if corrections are necessary.

l. Prepare an outline for a report which you expect to use for
English, history, or some other class and type the report from the outline. Read, correct, and retype if necessary.

m. Type a letter of application. In order to make the situation more real, bring in an advertisement asking for the services of a particular type of worker. Discuss some of the following points together before typing the letter:

Whether all the information asked for is available

What assets you have which might be of interest to the employer

The most advantageous way to present the information

n. Type a personal data sheet which can be sent as an enclosure with a letter of application. Before typing it, study some examples of data sheets and discuss together the merits of the different plans; then decide which form you will use. A committee might make the study and report its findings.

o. Bring in material which you wish to prepare for some other class or for some hobby on which you are working.

p. On the typewriter compose an outline of an imaginary or real story which could be used in the school paper or for an English assignment; type the story from the outline. Read, correct, and retype if necessary.

q. Make plans for typing a class newspaper or news sheet. Have each class member compose an article, poem, or story which can be used. Use the following suggestions as a help:

Arrange a dummy and plan for the use of cartoons or drawings, if they are desired.

If there is a mimeograph available for your use, cut a stencil of the material for the paper and make mimeographed copies from it.

r. Type the program leaflet for a club or some other school activity; include a title page, menu, and program. Discuss together such problems as the centering on various sizes of paper, the use of guide lines, and artistic arrangement.

s. Plan an advertisement for a school play to be run in the school paper or used as a circular. How can large letters be made on the typewriter? Would a border contribute to the effectiveness of the layout?
t. Type the minutes of a club or class meeting, revise the copy, and make the necessary corrections.

u. Take part in a personal letter-writing day. Type letters to friends or members of your family, address the envelopes, and mail the letters.

3. Evaluation Procedures

a. Discuss how you can determine whether you have made any progress in composing at the typewriter. Use the following questions as criteria:

How often can you use the first copy of the material which you have composed at the machine? Is the retyping necessary because of placement, typographical errors, sentence structure, or omissions?

How long does it take to produce a usable copy? Can you complete a usable copy more quickly at the typewriter than by longhand?

b. Test your ability to compose at the typewriter as follows:

From information supplied you, answer a short business letter read to you by the teacher.

Write a letter of inquiry about a new book which has been published recently or some article of merchandise which you are interested in obtaining.

In your own words summarize briefly a short story you have read.

c. Discuss with the class how your typing ability may be put to use outside of school. If you have already had some experience, describe what you have done. Evaluate your experiences in terms of actual learning acquired.

4. Suggestions for the Teacher

The activities given with this unit are merely suggestions which may be used if the students do not respond with enough suggestions. As the work of the unit progresses, they will probably become more and more interested and will have many ideas of their own about activities.

One of the first steps in learning to compose at the typewriter is to learn how to organize thoughts while typing. This
takes considerable practice. Such projects as those listed in Activities a, b, and c of this unit are simple and will enable students to develop that ability.

This is a unit in which the students may do better work if they feel that they are not going to be marked on their product, at least in the beginning. A few of the letters may be read by the teacher or student and then discussed as to merits of style, clearness to the recipient, use of English, and paragraphing.

Intermittent practice throughout the school year after the unit has been presented is very important in order to continue improvement in this skill. Proofreading and evaluation of the product should be continuous.

As problems arise there should be discussion of the forms to be used for letters, themes, and other typed material. Suggestions as to how to improve forms which have been used should be called for and the students should be encouraged to bring in business letters they think are attractive in form.

The value and use of an outline, the rough draft, a few notes, catalogs, a dictionary, a thesaurus, and reference books should be discussed. Questions as to how to indicate footnotes and direct quotations should be asked.

Types of business phrases which have become stereotyped and should therefore be avoided should be discussed. Revisions of the business letters read which contain those expressions should be suggested.

5. References

Allen. How to write good business letters. World bk., 1943

Aurner. Effective business correspondence. South-Western pub., 1949

Conant. Letter writing in business. Gregg, 1945


Hower. Successful letter writing. Doubleday, 1938

Leighton. Secretary's handbook and office manual. Doubleday, 1940

Lessenberry & Crawford. 20th century typewriting; 5th ed. South-Western pub., 1947
II. TRANSCRIPTION

The following is an illustrative resource unit for a transcription course which was constructed by the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota as a suggestion of the type of materials teachers will want to construct for problems of concern to the students in their classes:

PROBLEM: HOW CAN I TRANSCRIBE LETTERS EFFECTIVELY?

People who transcribe letters from shorthand notes or machines are usually expected to receive, transcribe, and mail the letters.

1. The Objectives of This Unit

The purpose of this unit is to provide experiences for the student which will enable him to:

Transcribe business letters neatly and accurately in various styles

Use stationery of various sizes

Adjust the position on the page in the various lengths of letters

Type the simplified style of letter (the NOMA letter)

Use correctly the heading, inside address, salutation, attention line and subject line, body, closing phrase,

initials, enclosures, carbon copies to others, post-script, and related parts of the letter

Make neat erasures

Make several carbon copies of a letter

Crowd or spread the letters within a word

Fold letters for small, large, and window envelopes

Type neatly and accurately envelopes of various sizes

Seal envelopes in an efficient manner

Know when the envelope should not be sealed

Critically evaluate his own work

Keep the typewriter, typewriter cover, desk, and chair clean and orderly

Change ribbons on the various typewriters

Develop desirable personality traits

2. Suggested Activities for Students

a. Report on the simplified letter. A small committee may make this report.

b. Report on a model letter, with rules for transcribing. The model letter is especially useful for studying the details of the business letter. After discussion, post the letter for further reference.

c. Two or three of you interview stenographers concerning types of letters and envelopes used, style used, arrangement, punctuation, metered postage and hand sealing or machine sealing. You should make a report to the class on the interview.

d. Visit a modern office, or visit two or three small offices. Inquire about:

Using the various styles and sizes of letters and envelopes

Receiving and opening incoming letters
Stamping, sorting, and routing letters for distribution

Answering letters.

Transcribing letters

Arranging the parts of the letter and envelope

Sealing and stamping letters, by hand and by machine

Sending the letters

e. Gather letters and envelopes from various businesses. Examine them carefully for style, arrangement, and other characteristics.

f. Discuss and find ways of making neater letters by having fewer erasures, better arrangement, and even stroking.

g. Write letters for a business man, parents, teachers, or others. Make as many carbon copies as the job requires. After checking for errors, discuss ways in which the letters and carbon copies may be improved in form, style, and neatness of typing.

h. Evaluate the business letters as found in a good letter-writing manual. Look for the different forms of business letters and the suggestions on how to avoid overworked expressions.

i. Refer to the business letter in a good typing text. Look especially for the various envelope styles and letter styles. Compare with other typing texts.

j. In a modern secretarial text refer to the subject of transcribing and look for letter placement, carbon copies, margins, erasing, systematizing work, neatness, submitting for signature, and enclosures. Two of you prepare a report in the form of questions and answers. Others participate in discussing points that are not clear.

k. Take from dictation and transcribe a business letter of moderate length, approximately 140-150 words, without any previous practice. Put in attention notice, carbon copy to others, enclosure, and postscript.

l. Transcribe three letters and address envelopes for them. Use a different sized paper for each, such as one-half, three-fourths, and full length. Divide the room in groups of three or four students to offer suggestions for improving the letters.
m. Ask the teacher to demonstrate how envelopes may be sealed more rapidly by placing them in such a way that all the flaps can be moistened in one or two operations. Practice the method. If it is not possible to use real envelopes, fold old papers to approximately the size of the envelope.

n. Practice addressing quantities of envelopes by chain feeding from the front and the back of the roller. Stress the placement of the envelopes both before inserting them into the typewriter and after the typing operation. Although the return address is usually printed, practice typing it on some envelopes.

o. Type the simplified letter as sponsored by NOMA (National Office Management Association). (See Activity a.) Divide into committees, exchange letters, and pick out the good features of the letters such as typing with even touch, neat appearance, and no wrinkles in the paper. Pick out the weak points of the letter such as poor erasures, poor arrangement, and improper paragraphs.

p. Practice erasing until you are satisfied that it is difficult to detect where the erasure was made.

q. Write several lines with at least ten words suitable for practicing crowding letters and spreading letters. Practice until reasonable skill is attained.

r. After having had a good deal of experience with letter writing, have a committee gather information on your special problems. The committee may work on the problems with the teacher and then present suggestions to the class. Plan ways to overcome such difficulties as remembering enclosures, handling the notation—carbon copies to others, and judging the arrangement of the letter.

s. Decide what traits of personality are important in an office and list them. Make up a chart with the traits listed, leaving room for your own checking at various times during the year. Ask your teacher to check the list also.

t. Clean the typewriter, desk, and chair periodically and put the cover on the typewriter when it is not being used. Check the placement of the chair and desk and arrange neatly other objects often moved out of place, such as papers, magazines, books, and office machines.

u. Practice folding letters for small-size, large-size, and window envelopes.
v. Write letters of various lengths, including two-page letters.

w. Change ribbons on the typewriters when needed. On machines that do not need a change of ribbon, take the ribbon and both spools off, wind the ribbon once or twice around one spool, then place the ribbon in the typewriter in the correct position and have your teacher check it. Repeat several times during the year, using a different typewriter each time.

x. Watch a thorough demonstration of transcription from a voice-recording machine. Ask questions about any part of the demonstration you do not understand.

y. Transcribe as many letters from the voice-recording machine as time and the number of machines will permit. After the first or second attempt at a letter, strive to get all letters written in such a way that they do not have to be rewritten.

3. Evaluation Procedures

a. It is suggested that the mailable letter be used as a standard in judging letters. Although some insist on a word-for-word transcript, minor variations when the sense of the letter has not been destroyed may be considered correct. Most business men will accept this practice.

b. The envelopes should be checked for correctness as to typing, style, and general appearance, according to the standards that were set up by the students and teacher at the beginning of the unit.

c. A well-prepared true-false or multiple-choice test may be useful in testing the details of the letter. See The Balance Sheet, December, 1946.

d. Because of the difficulties involved in setting up the test, it is probably best to check the actual letters for the following points: erasing, placement of the letter or envelope, and crowding or spreading of letters within a word.

e. Students should check themselves periodically by the chart suggested in Activity 5. The teacher may check the chart as suggested.

f. After the students have written several letters in the simplified style, they should write one under testing conditions. Additional letters should be written by those who need special practice.
g. Probably one of the better ways of having the student evaluate his work is to have him evaluate the work of other students under careful supervision by the teacher. He should keep a record of his own careless mistakes, indicating their kind and frequency. The teacher should call attention often to the need for improvement. This practice gives a student a chance to better his own record.

h. Students should keep charts on typing speed and accuracy, on the number of mailable letters produced, and on the transcription rate.

Note: In the case of mailable letters, it is easy to construct the chart in such a way that each student can compare his own record over each marking period as well as with the record of other students. See Suggestions for the Teacher.

i. Timed tests on typing envelopes and letters should be given until the students reach an acceptable business standard.

j. Students should type three letters of varied difficulty from the voice-recording machine. The performance may be timed.

k. Each student should take the responsibility of checking the entire room for a week, or some other period of time, and reporting on the cleanliness, order, and neatness of the group.

l. Suggestions for the Teacher

Through the use of the materials presented here the teacher and students together may work out experience units which will enable the student to transcribe business letters neatly and accurately.

When the students make their suggested trip to a modern office, have each one jot down brief notes about those things which make that office seem different from other offices they have seen and also about the things which do not seem entirely clear to them. By following this suggestion, they will have materials for an interesting class discussion after the trip. First stress the good things about that office and then bring out weaknesses, if any.

To develop better work on the part of the students, charts such as those mentioned under Evaluation Procedures should be used. A chart showing the results of the number of envelopes addressed in a five-to-ten-minute period will be very helpful in improving rates. Paper (8 1/2 x 11) may be divided into four
parts for the small-size and two parts for the large-size envelope.

To encourage the production of well-written letters, display examples of good work done by the students. Change the letters frequently so that many students may have an opportunity to have their work displayed. Displaying copies of well-written letters gathered in various offices will also help the student determine what styles of letters are most frequently used.

5. References


Films

The secretary's day. 16 mm. 10 min. sd. 65 East South Water st., Chicago 1: Coronet instructional film co. (Very good)

The secretary takes dictation. 16 mm. 10 min. sd. Coronet instructional film co.

The secretary transcribes. 16 mm. 10 min. sd. Coronet instructional film co.

Eight parts to a business letter. 12 min. sd. 25 West 45th st., New York 19: Library films

Machine transcription and machine operation. 15 min. sd. Russ bldg., San Francisco 4: Castle films

Machine transcription technique. 22 min. sd. Russ bldg., San Francisco 4: Castle films
III. BOOKKEEPING

In *A Guide for Instruction in Business Education*, the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota includes a number of illustrative resource units such as they suggest teachers will want to construct for problems of concern to the students in their classes. The following resource unit is one of the illustrative resource units which might be developed for a bookkeeping course. In this resource unit, the multiple-column journal is used as a basis for introducing record keeping "because this type of journal is being used more and more by small businesses, because it gives the student an opportunity to study bookkeeping in the way in which he is likely to use it, and because it makes possible the study of the range of bookkeeping activities in a comparatively brief time, thus freeing the student during the remainder of the time to gain proficiency in the many other tasks which he may be called upon to perform on his first record-keeping or clerical job."  

**PROBLEM: HOW DO I KEEP RECORDS FOR A SMALL BUSINESS USING A COLUMNAR JOURNAL?**

The student who goes into record-keeping work, starting in a small business, will usually find that he will have to make a record of the daily transactions, will have to keep a simple...
ledger, and will have to check the accuracy of his work. This student will want to learn these simple skills in the form used by the small business. He will also want to be able to interpret his records so that his work will be meaningful.

1. The Objectives of This Unit

The purpose of this unit is to provide experiences for the learner which will enable him to:

- Understand the principle of debits and credits in record keeping
- Record the transactions of a small business in a columnar journal
- Interpret and use common business forms as a basis for recording business transactions
- Operate a cash register and interpret and use cash-register reports
- Interpret the effect of transactions upon business
- Understand the purposes of accounts and know what accounts are needed in a small business
- Open and arrange accounts in the correct order in a ledger and transfer the entries from the journal to the ledger
- Prove the accuracy of posting by taking a trial balance from ledger accounts
- Rule accounts
- Prepare a simple profit and loss statement and a simple balance sheet
- Use inventory figures in these statements
- Read and interpret financial statements of all businesses
- Improve his writing and computation ability
- Develop an attitude toward business and work that will lead to ethical and desirable practices

2. Suggested Activities for Students
a. Interview the owners of several small local businesses to get preliminary information about their bookkeeping systems, such as:

- How much time is spent in keeping records
- How much training the person doing this work has
- What types of records are kept
- What the source of the income of the business is
- How the cash of the business is spent
- What financial statements are made and how often
- What business papers are used as a basis of transactions
- What business papers are filed in connection with these records

If the local business man is willing, choose a committee of your class members to look over the records to get a general idea of the setup. Summaries of these interviews should be presented and discussed in class.

b. Study income-tax forms used for businesses and point out types of records needed to fill in those forms.

c. Invite a local income-tax expert or local banker to visit the class to discuss the value of business records for income-tax purposes and for the owner of the business.

d. Set up a columnar journal for a small retail business such as a grocery, writing in the headings necessary. Practice making entries in this journal based on double-entry bookkeeping. The small business will probably handle most transactions on a cash basis. Typical transactions that should be recorded would be:

- Cash receipts for the day
- Payment of wages
- Payments for merchandise
- Payments of light, telephone, and water bills
- Deposits in the bank
Withdrawals by the proprietor for personal use

Payments for advertising

Payments of taxes

e. Make a collection of business forms that are used as a basis for daily transactions, such as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sales slips</th>
<th>Check stubs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Standard invoices</td>
<td>Bills of lading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bills</td>
<td>Bankbook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statements</td>
<td>Deposit slips</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checks</td>
<td>Social-security forms</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Practice reading and making out these business forms by hand and on the typewriter. Check the quality of your handwriting. Are the forms you write accurate and easy to read?

f. Study the operation of a cash register. If possible, have one brought to class for demonstration purposes and for practice in ringing up sales, counting cash, and giving change.

g. Practice taking the daily readings from the register and making out daily cash reports. Learn how to handle both cash over and cash short.

h. Discuss the value of the information taken from the cash-register reports. Show how this information is used as a basis for daily cash entries in the journal. Practice reading a number of cash-register reports and recording journal entries from them.

i. Discuss the effect of business transactions upon the net worth of the business. Explain the effect of these transactions on the assets, liabilities, and proprietorship of the business.

j. Discuss the purpose of ledger accounts and the need for them as a follow-up to a journal. Show how a journal does not summarize the information needed.

k. Discuss the importance of an order for ledger accounts. Study the order of accounts accepted by authorities—assets, liabilities, proprietorship, income, and expenses.

l. Set up a ledger that can be used with a journal already made; post the totals from the journal to the ledger. Practice a systematic method of posting and using the ledger and journal.
reference pages. The handwriting should always be neat and legible.

m. Practice totaling these ledger accounts, making the pencil footings and figuring the balances.

n. Practice writing figures in columns on lined bookkeeping paper. Practice the addition of these columns for accuracy and speed.

o. Make a trial balance from this ledger and discuss the purpose of a trial balance. Study the kinds of errors detected in a trial balance and how those errors can be found and corrected.

p. Study the rulings used in different types of accounts. Practice ruling accounts in the ledger.

q. Show filmstrips on journalizing and posting. Filmstrips can be purchased for a nominal fee from Business Education Visual Aids, New York 23, N. Y.

r. Practice making profit-and-loss statements, using inventory figures. Make out a profit-and-loss statement and a balance sheet, using the trial-balance figures from o above. After the statement is made, discuss why it is made, who uses it, and what it shows with respect to:

   The relation of the expenses to the profit on the statement
   The necessity of taking and using inventory figures in showing the true picture of the account

s. Make a collection of profit-and-loss statements and balance sheets published in national magazines in the advertisement sections. If there are any statements of local businesses available to the public, get copies of them. Discuss the meaning of the terms and figures used in those statements.

t. Good handwriting should be practiced and should be emphasized through all the discussions and written work. The writing should be neat and plain without flourishes and the figures should be small but plain. Daily practice is necessary in both handwriting and computation problems to improve both of these skills.

3. Evaluation Procedures

   Evaluation procedures should enable the group to ascertain
whether or not the objectives of the unit have been reached. 
Below are some procedures that might be used for this unit.

a. Divide into groups of four or five students and work out a 
set of transactions for one month for different types of 
small businesses typical of the community, such as a small 
retail store, a dry-cleaning establishment, a dentist's 
office, or a filling station. Each group should type all 
necessary business forms used as a basis for the trans-
actions. Then each group should present to all the other 
students its set of transactions and have them record the 
transactions in a columnar journal. This will give each 
student practice in handling the transactions for several 
types of local businesses. After the journal is made, the 
students should post these transactions to a ledger, take a 
trial balance, and make the statements.

b. As a group, discuss the effect of each transaction on the 
et worth of the business involved.

c. Make a list of the bookkeeping terms needed to handle a 
simple set of records. The list would probably include the 
following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Debit</th>
<th>Sales</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Credit</td>
<td>Accounts receivable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>Accounts payable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expense</td>
<td>Ledger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assets</td>
<td>Posting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liabilities</td>
<td>Trial balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proprietorship</td>
<td>Folio column</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalizing</td>
<td>Pencil footings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columns</td>
<td>Balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merchandise</td>
<td>In balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchases</td>
<td>Balancing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d. Take short tests in making out daily cash reports and cash-
over and short reports from cash-register tapes.

e. Compare bookkeeping records made at the end of the unit with 
some made at the beginning of the unit for improvement in 
handwriting and in writing figures.

f. Take short tests in addition, subtraction, and multiplication 
to check on the improvements in those skills.

h. Suggestions for the Teacher

This unit will enable the student to get a complete picture 
of how the records are kept in a small business. Instead of
presenting a number of different journals, all the journalizing is introduced at one time in a columnar journal. The columnar journal is being used more and more by small businesses. A student can learn the principles of debit and credit with a journal of this type in less time than it will take him to learn several different types of journals.

In this unit the student will learn by actual performance rather than by studying rules. New transactions and other new material should be worked out by the teacher and the student together until the student is familiar with the work. Practice exercises on any one phase of the work should be used if necessary, such as in journalizing certain types of entries. Bookkeeping techniques should be explained to the student, such as methods of writing amounts of money, dates, size of figures, and use of lines.

It is not necessary to follow the formal organization of textbooks to introduce this unit. Many good ideas and suggestions can be found in textbooks, but it is not necessary to spend as much time working through the system of records as is suggested in most texts. The transactions and accounts used should be typical of the small local business in your community.

Many types of transactions presented in most textbooks are omitted from this unit, such as interest, discounts, depreciation, deferred items, and accruals. Most of these accounts are handled by the accountant who is called in once a year rather than by the average bookkeeper. Many small businesses even eliminate accounts receivable and accounts payable and make entries only at the time cash is received or paid out. If the student wants to bring these accounts in, it is very easy to add extra columns in the columnar journal. Surveys of the record keeping done on beginning jobs indicate that the most important functions the school can perform in preparing students for record-keeping work are to help them to understand the basic idea of debit and credit, to make entries in a journal, to post to a ledger, to make a trial balance, to compute accurately and quickly, and to write legibly. The emphasis should be on developing a high degree of skill in these operations.

Most beginning workers will not make out profit and loss statements and balance sheets; but they are easy forms to make, and carrying the transactions from the journal to the ledger to the statements will make the work much more meaningful to the students. From this work the student should be able to read and understand published financial statements of other businesses.
After a student has finished this unit he should be able to enter a business office and handle the records in a small business. This method of presenting record keeping, through the columnar journal, should cut the length of time necessary to learn the basic bookkeeping principles. The student will then have more time to develop other business skills. More advanced bookkeeping studies can be offered through evening classes.

5. References

Brude. Bookkeeping for today. 3002 Twenty-seventh Ave., So., Minneapolis 6; A. C. Brude, 1947

Carlson & others. 20th century bookkeeping and accounting; 19th ed. South-Western pub., 1947


Elwell & others. Business record-keeping. Ginn, 1944

Freeman & others. Practical bookkeeping. Gregg, 1943


Special Bookkeeping Practice Sets


Record-keeping for small businesses. A260. South-Western pub.

Spencer retail hardware set. Bl23. South-Western pub. 5

IV. DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION

The following is an illustrative resource unit for a cooperative distributive education course which was constructed by the Committee on

Business Education of Minnesota as a suggestion of the type of materials teachers will want to construct for problems of concern to the students in their classes:

**PROBLEM:** HOW CAN I ASSIST THE CUSTOMER IN SELECTING MERCHANDISE?

This is a pre-employment unit. Retail stores, wholesale houses, factories, and producers of raw materials are in the final analysis influenced by the way in which the retail salesperson sells the products each produces or handles. If he does a good job of helping the customer select merchandise, the customer and everyone who makes or handles the product benefit. Serving the customer is the basic function around which all positions in the retail store, both selling and nonselling, are centered. Whether or not a person is engaged in sales work he should have a basic understanding of how to help the customer with his buying problems.

1. The Objectives of This Unit

The purpose of this unit is to provide experiences for the student which will enable him to:

- Approach the customer promptly
- Greet the customer properly
- Determine the customer's wants and needs effectively and tactfully
- Present the customer with information essential in making a decision concerning his buying problem
- Aid the customer in making a decision
- Treat the customer in such a manner that he will wish to return to the store to satisfy new wants

2. Suggested Activities for Students

a. Discuss the subject of salespeople with your parents. Ask them who they believe is the most satisfactory retail salesperson they know. Get them to tell you the qualities they like about those salespeople and the things they do which impress them.

Make a list of those traits and actions and bring them to class, where a master list of desirable traits and actions of salespeople may be formed.
b. Accompany one or both of your parents or an adult friend on a shopping trip. Make mental notes about the salespeople who serve them. Immediately after leaving the store, write down the desirable and undesirable traits and actions of the salespeople, but do not reveal their names.

Bring your notes to class where a master list of desirable traits of salespeople and a list of negative ones may be formed.

c. Plan a shopping trip on which you intend to make a purchase. Shop in at least three stores before you make the purchase. Buy the article you think best for your circumstances. Immediately after leaving the store, make written notes on the positive and negative qualities of the salesperson.

Bring the notes to class to be a part of a master list of desirable and undesirable traits of salespeople.

d. As a class select a single article of merchandise which is used by both men and women; e.g., an automobile. The article should be one for which there are many buying motives. Each of you independently make a list of things you consider most important in purchasing the article, going into detail in regard to your preferences as to style, color, mechanical features, workmanship, and use and telling why you like those qualities.

Using the information on the lists submitted, make on the blackboard a master list of the qualities people seek in the article with the reasons why.

When making the master list, keep the items suggested by the boys separate from those suggested by the girls. Discuss the differences in the preference of men and women. Decide what effect those differences have on good salesmanship and discuss their effect on the production of goods and the cost of distribution.

e. Plan a shopping trip for a branded article which is sold in several stores. As soon as you leave the store make written notes of the things the salesperson said about the article and rate the various points.

Compare your notes with those of your classmates who shopped for the same article. Discuss the reasons why the notes do not coincide exactly.

f. Observe several salespeople as they approach customers. Make mental notes on what they say and do and write them down as
soon as you leave the store. Also observe the amount of time which elapsed before the salespeople approached the customers.

Discuss with your parents the matter of being greeted by a salesperson and find out how they like to be greeted.

Discuss in class the purpose of the approach. Basing your thinking on the facts gathered from the sources mentioned above, set up the criteria for a good approach, including some good opening sentences for use by a salesperson. Discuss the reasons why the approach depends upon the situation at hand and which opening statements fit various situations.

g. Let one member of the class act as a salesperson, another as a customer. Have the first appear to be busy with stock work while the second waits to be served. Have a third person signal to the salesperson to make the approach exactly one minute after the customer appears. Let the class members guess at the amount of time that elapsed between the appearance of the customer and the approach of the salesperson.

h. Several of you plan a shopping trip on which each intends to purchase a different article. Do not buy until you have shopped in at least three stores. Immediately after leaving the store, list the number of articles shown and the prices of each; also list as many of the selling points as you can remember for each article. Rank the points in order of their importance to you. Decide why those points made an impression and how the salesperson conveyed the ideas.

Discuss the relative merits of showing and telling in selling. Discuss the amount of merchandise the salesperson should show the customer.

i. Let each class member make a list of the advantages and disadvantages of buying through vending machines, self-service stores, and retail salespeople. Contrast buying through salespeople with buying from vending machines and with self-service. Discuss the types of merchandise that can best be sold through each method.

Discuss the services the salesperson must give the customer if he is to maintain his position in distribution. Discuss the effect of the vending machine and self-service on the status of the salesperson in the future.

j. Send for an appropriate sound-slide film or moving picture on salesmanship and arrange for its showing. Ask your instructor for a list of visual aids on retail selling and for suggestions
on how to make the best use of them. Three suggestions on films of interest to beginners are:

- **Along main street.** Sound slide film. 30 min. 431 East 165th st., New York: Coca Cola co. Free

- **The human touch.** Sound slide film. 30 min. 431 East 165th st., New York: Coca Cola co. Free

- **The face in the mirror.** 28 min. 2821 East Grand blvd., Detroit 11: Jam Handy organization. For rent or purchase

After showing the film, make a list on the blackboard of the things the salespeople said and did which would make the customer want to return to the store the next time he wishes to make a purchase.

k. Cooperatively plan a study of how people make up their minds. Analyze the sale of a suit or dress to determine the customer's decisions when making a purchase. You will find that the following are the basic decisions:

- Whether or not she needs a dress. (Need)
- The kind of dress she wants. (Thing to fill the need)
- The place to get it. (Source)
- The price she will pay. (Price)
- The time she will buy it. (Time)

Analyze several more sales to determine whether the same decisions are present. You will find that no sale is made in which the customer does not make these decisions, although they may not be made in the order given or may not be made while the customer is in the store.

Discuss the things that the salesperson may do to help the customer in making each decision and in coming to a conclusion when buying. Contrast the use of these decisions on selling convenience goods, shopping goods, and specialty goods.

l. Secure an outside speaker who will talk on what good retail selling is. In carrying out this activity it will be wise to follow the suggestions given below:

Select a person who is a good salesman, is able to speak
well, and is interested in the distributive education program.

Make a list of the questions you want him to answer in the course of his talk.

Choose a committee to make an appointment with the speaker to engage him.

Explain the purpose of the talk.

Give him a list of the questions you would like to have him answer and secure his approval.

Instruct him in regard to the time and place of the meeting, the length of the talk, and the amount of time to be devoted to questions.

Introduce the speaker.

Provide for a question and answer period.

Treat the speaker as a guest.

Sometime after the speaker's departure, discuss your reactions to him and his conception of what good, retail selling is.

m. Conduct in the classroom demonstration sales in which you bring out the points you are studying; e.g., the approach, finding the customer's wants and needs, showing the merchandise, answering questions, and helping the customer make up his mind. In planning the demonstrations you should decide on the following points:

The purpose of the demonstration

The necessary materials and equipment

The order in which class members will give demonstrations

The points which class members will look for during the demonstration

The way in which the discussion will be handled; for example:

One of the demonstrators may act as chairman.
The demonstrators should be allowed to criticize themselves first.

Criticism should be constructive.

Notes on techniques should be given to the demonstrators.

A repeat performance may be in order at a later time.

Demonstration sales are an opportunity for learning which may never be available again and should be regarded as a privilege. It is not expected that early demonstrations will be perfect.

n. In late October ask your instructor for suggestions in regard to applying for part-time sales work during the holiday season. Make a plan for securing work and carry out the plan.

3. Evaluation Procedures

Evaluation procedures should enable the group to ascertain whether or not the objectives of the unit have been reached. Below are listed some procedures that might be used for this unit.

a. Collectively, make a check list for evaluating a retail sale. Try out the list during final sales demonstrations. Revise it until it is suitable to your needs in the classroom; then try it out on a good salesperson downtown.

b. Using the evaluation sheet in the activity above, apply it to a demonstration by each member of the class. Give the completed form to the demonstrator with suggestions for improvement.

c. Make a self-analysis of your abilities as a salesperson. List your positive and negative points and opposite each point enter your plan of action for the item listed. Check the list with your instructor and get his suggestions.

d. Make a self-analysis of your sales ability, weighting the different qualities from zero to five. List the qualities on the board without the weightings and get the class weightings. Compare these weightings with your own.

e. Plan a skit which shows the parts of a sale as you have studied them. Show how the inexperienced and the
experienced salesperson handles the situation which you set up.

f. If you have worked part time since entering this course, arrange for a conference with the person immediately over you. Ask him to evaluate your work. Make a list of its good and poor features and formulate a plan of action for improvement.

g. Conduct several panel discussions evaluating this unit on assisting the customer in selecting merchandise. Use each goal set by the class at the beginning of the unit as a separate topic. In commenting on the points made, do not repeat criticisms made by other class members, since that results in a waste of time.

4. Suggestions for the Teacher

This unit provides the student's first experience with salesmanship. It will influence his attitude toward the occupation, and, since the impressions created may last throughout his lifetime, care should be taken to make sure they are favorable.

The activities chosen should be carefully guided, because at this age the students may not exercise the best judgment. The instructor should make certain that the group, in selecting activities, understands the attitude of those in the business world. He should carefully instruct the students in regard to their observations downtown and, through his advisory committee, let the merchants know what is being done and get suggestions from them. Those who operate effectively will welcome the opportunity of contributing to the vocational education of future employees. An attitude of policing should be avoided at all costs.

Do not allow students to mention the names of salespeople observed or shopped, particularly if the criticisms are adverse. Your relationship with the people in the stores is important and should not be jeopardized by gossip.

In introducing the demonstration sale the teacher may find it advisable to act as the customer for the first few times. Later, class members may be used and finally outsiders such as students from classes in consumer education and home economics. Orientation of this learning technique will determine its effectiveness. Students should be made to feel successful and yet understand that there is a need for practice. A serious but friendly atmosphere should prevail. When students are
accustomed to demonstration sales, they will want to experiment with ideas about selling techniques and get class reactions. The number of demonstration sales should be limited during this preparatory course. This teaching device will be more important during the cooperative part-time program.

5. References


Maynard & others. Retail marketing and merchandising. Ginn, 1938. pp. 32-52


Walters & others. Retail merchandising. South-Western pub., 1943. pp. 137-199


V. OFFICE PRACTICE

The following is an illustrative resource unit for an office practice course which was constructed by the Committee on Business

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Education of Minnesota as a suggestion of the type of materials teachers will want to construct for problems of concern to the students in their classes:

PROBLEM: HOW CAN I FILE IMPORTANT PAPERS SO THAT THEY CAN BE LOCATED EASILY AND QUICKLY WHEN NEEDED?

Those who work in offices find it necessary to preserve correspondence and other similar materials such as invoices and purchase orders. This is done through the use of the filing system best suited to the type of office and the kind of material to be filed. Most filing systems, however, have as their foundation the alphabetic system. Therefore, the ability to file alphabetically is basic.

1. The Objectives of This Unit

The purpose of this unit is to provide experiences which will enable the student to:

Understand the necessity for the individual or business to preserve certain types of correspondence.

Distinguish between directory order and filing order

Use the basic rules for alphabetizing

Handle files correctly

Arrange the materials in the folder for easy and quick reference

Understand the relationship of alphabetic filing to other common forms of filing such as the subject, geographic, and numeric

Make and use cross-reference sheets

Understand why one system of filing is better than another for a particular business

Use various types of filing equipment

Become acquainted with newer developments in filing such as the use of microfilm and recorded dictation

Develop the personal qualities necessary for a file clerk
2. Suggested Activities for Students

   a. Have some copies of the telephone directory in class and some
      mimeographed sheets containing a section of the names in the
      directory arranged in filing order. Compare them and point
      out the differences.

   b. Prepare a set of cards which can be used for practice in filing.
      First arrange them in directory order and then rearrange
      them in filing order, giving the reason for each change. Prac-
      tice filing cards until you can do it accurately and quickly.

   c. Select a set of letters, of which there are several on the
      market, to be used for instructional purposes. Read the
      letters in the set and discuss the reasons why those letters
      should be kept on file and not discarded.

   d. Index and code the above-mentioned letters for alphabetic
      filing. In a good text on filing look up the rules for
      indexing.

   e. Select some letters from the pack and explain why they might
      be filed in more than one place. Discuss the use of the cross
      file.

   f. File the set of letters.

   g. Discuss what to do when material has been withdrawn from the
      file. Find answers to such questions as:

      Who should be responsible for material taken from the
      file?

      What are some of the methods used to safeguard records?

      What is meant by charge-outs?

   h. Prepare some labels for file guides and miscellaneous folders
      by inserting a perforated strip of labels into the typewriter
      and typing each notation with an initial capital letter and
      subsequent lower-case letters. Type these in exactly the
      same position on each label one-half space below the crease
      in the label. Then be sure that the label is placed uniformly
      on all tabs.

   i. When the folders and guides are ready, place the letters which
      have been coded in the folders in proper order. Discuss what
      to do when several letters from the same correspondent are
      encountered.
j. When a series of letters has been filed, transfer all letters dated on or before a given date to the transfer file. Place all materials dated after that date in the current file.

k. Find out under what circumstances old filed materials may sometimes be discarded.

l. Ask the teacher to give you a list of the names of persons and firms which represent some of the more difficult filing problems to arrange in filing order.

m. Arrange a trip to several types of business places to observe their filing systems and determine why one type of system is more suitable than another for a particular business. If possible, include one place that has a large, separate filing department. On the visit find out the following:

Arrangement of material in the file
How to handle the file folders
Kinds of filing equipment

n. Interview either personally or by letter some file clerks and find out what personal qualities one must have to do that type of work. Also refer to several good texts on filing and compare the qualities listed. Analyze your own personal qualities and plan ways of improving any of those in which you may be deficient for file work.

o. Write to firms such as the Microfilm Corporation and the International Business Machines Corporation to discover some newer trends in filing and what types of offices are using them.

p. Discuss the various kinds of files and file cases and their comparative merits.

q. Offer to aid some civic project involving filing, such as the Community Chest drive or the Civic Music Association.

r. Make a dictionary of filing terms.

s. Name several ways in which a knowledge of alphabetizing principles may be useful to a secretary.

t. Prepare a report comparing the advantages and disadvantages of the various filing records.
u. Watch newspapers and other periodicals for items and articles which refer to filing or filing systems and report them to the class.

v. Look up the history of the Dewey Decimal System used in libraries and report on the kind of system it is and on its advantages.

3. Evaluation Procedures

a. Take a test on filing, such as the Remington Rand test.

b. Arrange a list of names in filing order.

c. Write a paper or make oral reports on some of the following topics:

   Kinds of filing equipment and their uses

   Advantages of the various filing methods, such as the subject, numeric, and others

   What to do if a piece of correspondence cannot be found in its proper place

d. Scan a set of letters quickly and mark for filing within a specified time limit.

e. Test your ability to locate and remove letters from the file. Ask the teacher to call for certain letters which have been filed. Can you find them quickly? If not, review the filing rules and practice further.

4. Equipment

a. Each student should be provided with the following:

   A good text

   A set of 3x5 card index boxes equipped with alphabetic guides

   A set of 3x5 filing cards—about 200 per student

   A practice outfit equipped with alphabetic guides and miscellaneous and individual folders

   A set of letters representing actual correspondence—incoming letters, carbon copies of outgoing letters, copies of telegrams, invoices, and bills of lading
A few cross-reference sheets

b. With other equipment for demonstration purposes there should be:

Visible index trays
A sorter compartment
File guides and file folders for each system of filing to be demonstrated

5. Suggestions for the Teacher

Filing may be taught as a single unit or may be extended to a full semester course of 80 periods. It may be taught in the general typing room or the office-practice room so that students will have access to typewriters.

The teacher should understand that basic filing rules vary with systems and are often subject to exception because of the nature of the organization for which the filing is to be done and because of the kind and number of calls which may arise for each item. Alphabetic filing is an essential part of all secretarial and clerical practice courses, because this system is used in approximately 80 per cent of all filing installations. Furthermore, alphabetic rules are used with numeric, geographic, Soundex, and other filing systems.

If a sufficient amount of practice is given, the student will find that he has memorized the basic rules for alphabetic filing without knowing it. Certain rules of filing are more difficult for students to understand than others; consequently, the student should have more practice filing papers which illustrate those rules. The filing of government, municipal, and state correspondence presents some difficulty, as well as the handling of hyphenated names.

To save expense, cards may be used over a period of several years if they have been carefully handled by the students. A stock list of cards can be prepared with typed headings and reassembled after each group has finished using them. Some supplementary cards may be typed by the individual student for his own practice and for additional illustration of rules needing emphasis. Both sides of the cards may be used. The practice set of letters may be handled similarly.

Bring to class a set of business letters which illustrate some of the more technical of the indexing rules. These letters
will demonstrate the necessity of specific information as to which of several names under consideration should be chosen for indexing. Should a letter from a bank be indexed under the name of the bank, city, state, or official of the bank?

The teacher should emphasize correct filing practices and lead the student to take pride in well-kept files. Teachers should stress the fact that letters are placed in folders with the top of the letter toward the operator's left hand and that when two names are identical the latest date is placed on top. Material should never be filed without folders.

Students should be taught to use judgment in determining the items to be cross-referenced. If too few cross references are made, it might be difficult to find the material; if too many are used, it is time and space consuming. The file clerk must learn to anticipate the title which may be used when the material is called for. The file cabinets in current use in offices throughout the school building will provide good demonstration material.

After the student has developed some skill in filing, the skill may be used in other office-practice units. Carbon copies of the letters the student transcribes may be sent to the filing department for indexing. A wide variety of names may be used in the inside addresses of these letters. Some of the material required for the filing course can be prepared by the duplicating department on any of the various kinds of duplicating machines.

The Training of a Secretary (see Bibliography) has some fine case studies which may be used either for evaluation or class problems.

Be sure the students get some practice in the use of the entire alphabet. Many practice sets use only a part of the alphabet and thus deprive the student of activities involving all the letters.

6. References


Bassett & Agnew. Business filing. South-Western pub., 1943

Chicago filing association. Filing bulletin. 25 East Jackson blvd., Chicago 4: The association

Eastern commercial teachers association. Fifteenth yearbook; Unit planning in business education. East Orange, N. J., The association, 1942

Gregg. Private secretary. Gregg, 1944

Hittler. Laboratory manual in filing technique. Univ. of Iowa, 1943


Loso & Agnew. Secretarial office practice. South-Western pub., 1949

MacDonald. Office management. Prentice-Hall, 1947

Neuner & Haynes. Office management and practices. South-Western pub., 1947


Weeks. How to file and index. Ronald press, 1947

Wilkdall & others. Training of a secretary. American bk., 1938

The following is an illustrative resource unit for an office practice course which was constructed by the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota as a suggestion of the type of materials teachers will want to construct for problems of concern to the students in their classes:

PROBLEM: HOW CAN I USE DUPLICATING MACHINES EFFECTIVELY?

People who work in business occupations involving communication are often required to use duplicating machines of the stencil, gelatin, or direct-process types.

1. The Objectives of This Unit

The purpose of this unit is to provide experiences which will enable the student to:

- Prepare a stencil or a master copy for the duplicating machine to be used—mimeograph, ditto machine, hectograph, direct-process duplicator
- Choose the correct type of paper
- Make corrections properly
- Operate the different duplicating machines efficiently and be able to adjust and care for the machine
- Use the mimeoscope when drawing designs or letters on stencils with the use of the stylus and use the lettering guides correctly
- Plan and produce special jobs such as postal-card work, four-page folders, and jobs involving color combinations.

2. Suggested Activities for Students

The suggested activities listed below may be used with any duplicating process.

a. Prepare one set of instructions for typing a master copy or stencil. Discuss the instructions together. Ask one of your class to demonstrate the making of a master copy or a stencil. Run off enough copies for each student in the class.

b. Prepare a stencil or master copy of the vocabulary identified with the process being used.

c. Make a stencil or master copy of a typing exercise that can be used for typewriting classes and run off enough copies for the entire class.

d. Set up a letter to be sent to a group such as the members of the junior class or the PTA, informing them of some pending activity. Sign the stencil or master copy.
e. Prepare and run off post-card announcements of some event.

f. Make a poster or handbill advertising some school activity. Combine drawing, lettering, and typing on this project.

g. Prepare and run off a folder. It may be a program for a school play, a dance, or other school function. Practice slip-sheeting with this project.

h. Work out a problem using two or more colors, perhaps a greeting card for some occasion.

i. Duplicate a program to be sold at basketball games.

j. Prepare a mimeographed cover for athletic programs which can be used for several occasions. Clean and file this stencil.

k. Prepare a master copy of a program or handbill, using carbon, ink, pencil, and a hectograph typewriter ribbon on the same sheet. Run off several copies and compare the effect of each of these mediums.

l. Visit or contact in some other way various places of business which use duplicating machines, in order to determine:

   The extent to which the various types are used

   Who has charge of the work

   The type of material duplicated

   The quality of the work produced

m. Select small committees to get information and report to the class on the following topics:

   Kinds and weights of paper suitable for different kinds of duplicating jobs

   Different types of stencils available for mimeograph work

   The cost of producing copies by the various duplicating processes

n. Ask a representative of the company which manufactures the various machines to call and give a demonstration, or go as a class to the retail office for such a demonstration.

3. Evaluation Procedures
Each project should be evaluated individually both as to technique and finished product. The class should discuss the merits of the different duplicating processes and devise a check list whereby copies made by each method may be judged.

4. Suggestions for the Teacher

Detailed instructions for the cutting of stencils, the making of master copies, and the making of corrections are given in the instruction sheets which come with the machine. Also the directions for cutting stencils are given in detail on the back of each package of stencils. Students should be taught to consult these directions.

Although the major part of the learning will be done as the student works on a definite job, the teacher will find it profitable to take some time to demonstrate proper techniques. The learning process should be aided in three ways—by reading the directions thoroughly, by seeing the process demonstrated, and by working on the machine.

For practice work it is not necessary for each student to use a whole stencil. Each of several students may type a short paragraph on one stencil, adding his name to the paragraph typed. When the stencil is run off, the students can compare the paragraphs. The same thing may be done for master copies on other types of duplicating machines.

The class may be responsible for the duplication of the school paper. If so, a different group of students should be responsible each time.

Since this unit can be adapted to any type of duplicating machine, the teacher should keep in mind the fact that it is necessary to use only the part of the unit which pertains to the equipment provided by his school.

If an electric typewriter is used for cutting stencils, the machine should be placed on a low desk.

In making corrections on the master copy for the direct-process duplicator, advise students not to try to correct the error immediately but to proceed to the end of the page and then remove the master copy from the typewriter, placing it carbon side up on a smooth surface. Rub the error thoroughly with the correcting pencil or eraser and then insert the copy in the typewriter again. Align the typing position so that the new letter will appear in exactly the right spot. A small piece of tissue paper inserted in between the typewriter ribbon and the
copy can be of help in checking position while aligning the correction if there is no carbon paper in the machine. When the work is adjusted to the proper line of writing, drop a small piece of unused carbon face up between the platen and the master copy. Then type the correction, using a comparatively hard stroke.

In working with gelatin duplicators students should be warned to work quickly, as the image will gradually recede into the gelatin surface. Students should also be cautioned against digging holes in the gelatin surface with fingernails or sharp instruments.

If the typewriter platen is rough, better copies will be obtained if a celluloid backing sheet is used.

It will be well for the teacher to check with the manufacturers of the machines owned by the school to find out what services are made available to schools by the manufacturers.

5. References


Alexander. How to use duplication machines. Gregg


Barnhart. Ditto, its use and operation. Harrison at Oakley blvd., Chicago: Ditto, inc.

Eastern commercial teachers association. Fifteenth yearbook; Unit planning in business education. East Orange, N. J., The association, 1942

Neuner & Haynes. Office management and practices. South-Western pub., 1948

VI. GENERAL BUSINESS

In *A Guide for Instruction in Business Education*, the Committee on Business Education of Minnesota includes a number of illustrative resource units such as they suggest teachers will want to construct for problems of concern to the students in their classes. The following resource unit is one of the illustrative resource units dealing with business problems of daily living considered important by most high-school students which was used to illustrate the nature of a resource unit which might be developed for a common-learnings core, when such a curriculum organization was available, or which might be developed for a general business course, where the school is organized on a subject basis:

**Problem: How Can I Save and Invest My Money**

A well-planned budget makes provision for saving, but the money saved should not be left idle. It should be invested in such a way as to give some return, be easy to get if needed, and be safe. Everyone should be able to get information and help in finding safe places for the investment of money, and everyone should be able to evaluate investment opportunities.

1. The Objectives of This Unit

The purpose of this unit is to provide experiences for the learner which will enable him to:

- Appreciate the advantages of saving money
- Make sound investments of savings by avoiding unnecessary risks
- Evaluate the quality of his investments
- Compare the costs which must be considered in choosing between the several kinds of investments
Use the various ways and means of obtaining investment information

Read critically advertisements and information concerning investment and saving opportunities

Compare the rate of return on money invested in several ways

Work arithmetic computations involving investment operations

Appreciate the possibilities of investing in himself

2. Suggested Activities for Students

a. From the classified section of the local telephone directory list the places:
   - Where you could open a savings account
   - Where you could receive information on investing money
   - Where you could invest money

b. Have one or two members of your class visit a local bank, ask for information about savings accounts in accordance with a list of questions prepared before hand, and report the answers to the class. The list should include such questions as:
   - What rate of interest is paid on savings?
   - When and how often during the year is the interest paid?
   - Is there a limit to the amount any one person can deposit on savings?
   - How does one open a savings account?
   - How long does the money have to be in the bank before it begins drawing interest?
   - How much notice must be given before the money can be withdrawn?
   - What is the procedure for withdrawing money from a savings account?
What is the difference between a time and a demand deposit?

Does the bank offer any savings-club services?

c. Procure a United States savings bond to show to the class or visit your local bank or post office and ask to see a savings bond. Find out if they have any tables showing the increase in value as the bonds accumulate interest or information concerning those bonds which will tell the following facts:

The number which can be purchased each year
The amount of interest earned each year
The length of time the bonds must be held before they can be sold
The way the interest is added to the original investment

d. Choose one or two students to visit the local post office and ask how to open a postal-savings account. Ask them to report the following facts:

The amount which can be deposited by any one individual
The amount of interest paid yearly and the time of payment
The smallest amount which can be deposited at any one time
The form in which the account is kept

e. Collect newspaper and magazine articles and statistics on family budgeting and from the information obtained:

Figure the percentages for each kind of family expenditure for family-income groups likely to be represented by members of your class.

List the suggestions, if any, given for the kinds of investments to make.

f. Tell of an experience you have had in saving for some future purchase or need.

g. Make up and keep your own personal budget. Check your plan so that you will:
Estimate your future income.

Provide for your needs as well as for the things which you would like to get.

Plan to apportion your income to needs and then to wants.

Keep a complete and accurate record of your expenditures.

Review your budget plans and evaluate them frequently to determine if you are reaching your objectives.

h. Practice working problems involving the use of percentage.

i. List some ways in which you can invest in yourself and suggest some plans or means of saving to make those investments.

j. Choose several students to form a committee to secure information about the various types of banks such as commercial banks, savings banks, trust companies, and investment banks. They may report their information as a panel, making comparisons between the different types of banks. Some points of comparison may be brought out by the following questions:

- Is there a limitation on the amount that can be deposited? Why?
- What is the attitude of the various banks toward investment accounts? Why?
- Which bank encourages permanent accounts?
- Which one invests its funds in long-term securities?
- Why is it more favorable for a bank to make short-term loans rather than long-term loans?
- What regulations are imposed on withdrawals?
- Which bank's assets may be more substantial? Why?
- How does the FDIC affect the commercial bank?
- Why must a bank be careful of its investments?
- Is there any limitation on the amount of money a bank may lend?

k. From your local paper cut out a statement of a local bank's standing and check the following points:
The securities in which the bank has invested its money

The total bank resources as compared to the total liabilities and why they must equal each other

1. Ask a representative of a savings and loan association to talk to the class. Give him a list of questions which you would like to have him answer about the operation of his company.

   In what do you invest your money?
   How is your company organized and chartered?
   To what extent does the Government regulate your company?
   How does one become a member?
   What is the difference between investment shares, optional saving shares, and full-paid income shares?
   How can a stockholder borrow money from the association?
   How and to what extent are funds insured?

m. Collect, from newspapers and current magazines, advertisements of leading insurance companies. List the advantages which they give for buying insurance and list the various kinds of insurance which they offer for sale.

n. Invite a local insurance agent to talk to the class, but before he comes ask him for some literature on the insurance he sells as well as some sample policies. As you read through the literature and policies, list words which you do not understand and questions about the problems involved in choosing insurance. Your questions may include the following:

   How are premiums figured on different kinds of insurance?
   What is the best way to treat dividends?
   How are payments made?
   What are the special features of each type of insurance?
   What are the advantages of each kind of insurance?
   Which kinds of insurance have the greatest value as an investment?
Which kinds of insurance have the greatest value as a saving?

How are mortality tables compiled and how are the rates for them determined?

What is the difference between an actuary and a beneficiary under the provisions of an insurance policy?

Why is an annuity policy of benefit to the insured?

o. Secure information from reference books and make a glossary of terms for the following types of insurance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industrial</th>
<th>Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ordinary--whole life and limited payment</td>
<td>Endowment Group</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p. You have decided to invest $1,000 in insurance. Using the information and tables obtained from the insurance agent who spoke to your class, compute the cost to you for the following: a 20-year endowment, a 20-payment limited life, and an ordinary life. Assume that you are 30 years old with a normal life expectancy.

How many years must you pay on each?

What will your annual payments on each be?

What are the total payments on each?

When will the company pay the face of each policy?

Compute the difference between the face of each policy and the aggregate premiums paid.

Under what conditions would each policy be favored for purchase?

What type of company would you choose?

How would each policy be favored in the event that you needed to use the policy as security for a loan?

q. Interview several adults concerning their budget habits. You might ask them to tell you:

Why a budget is advantageous to them.
How they have used a budget to provide a plan of saving which has helped them to get capital to begin their own businesses or get additional training for their positions.

r. Select a committee to report on the following types of securities and investment terms:

Stocks—preferred, cumulative preferred, common, participating common

Bonds—convertible, refunding, coupon, registered, mortgage, debenture, State, municipal, United States savings bonds, and other Government issues

Par-value stock

Book-value stock

Market-value stock

Lambs on the market; bulls on the market; bears on the market

Buying long; buying short

Listed stocks; unlisted stocks

Business cycle

Stock exchange

Marginal buying

Blue-sky laws

Investment trusts

Real-estate mortgages

Broker

Commission

Security exchange commission

s. Discuss the meaning of the following statements:

Save through wise investment spending.
Before you invest investigate.

Money is safest when put away or hidden.

You can be penny-wise and pound-foolish in your saving plan.

Don't put all your eggs in one basket.

Visit your school or community library and ask if any of the books listed below are on the shelves. Examine any of the books available and list several items of information from them which would be of value to an investor.

- Fitch's Bond Book
- White and Kemble Atlas and Digest of Railroad Mortgages
- Mines Handbook
- Standard Statistics
- Babson's Bonds and Stocks
- Moody's Manual
- Poor's Manual
- Other investment books.

Check the magazine section of the library. Report the sections in various current magazines which give resumes or predictions of business trends. Point out why it would be profitable to read and follow these writings if you are planning for an investment.

Look in the classified section of the newspaper for the listing of houses for sale and for rent. From the listed figures determine whether it would be advisable to invest in a house if you are able to pay one third of the total price down and borrow the remainder at the current rate of interest at the bank. Compute your yearly cost for buying the house, taking into consideration such costs as commission on sale, taxes, interest payments, and principal payments as compared with the yearly expenditure for renting.

Look in the daily paper for accounts of losses which might have been or should have been covered by insurance. Suggest the best kind of insurance for each situation.
x. Ask an adult how real-estate values have fluctuated during the last twenty-five years in your community. Report his answer to the class.

y. Using the financial page of the daily paper as a source of information, answer the following questions:

What items of interest to investors are given on this page?

What information do the stock-and bond-market quotations give?

Which companies listed are familiar to you?

z. Select a company listed in the daily stock-market exchange quotations in which you would like to invest.

Collect all the information you can about this company from all available sources. Look up its financial and investment rating. Write to the company for statements and literature about its stock offerings. From this collected information, list the reasons why you believe that it would be a good company in which to invest. Do you believe that this stock would be easy to resell? Does it pay a good return on the investment? Is the company financially sound and well managed?

3. Evaluation Procedures

a. Compute the return on $1,000 if you put it in a local bank, in a building and loan association, or in postal savings. Assume that you will leave the money there for ten years. Use the current rates of interest being paid by those investment institutions. Evaluate the wisdom of using any one of the three possibilities for investing savings.

b. Make a plan for your future. List your resources and evaluate them in terms of realizing this plan. Tell of ways in which you can invest in yourself which will help to reach this goal.

c. Plan your budget for the coming month and, at the end of that time, evaluate the success of your budget. Observe the parts which had to be revised or those things which went unrealized. How could you have better provided for contingencies?

d. Arrange a pictorial display to illustrate the type of family situation which should invest in the various kinds of insurance.

e. Using Activity z as the basis for an imaginary investment venture, assume that you have sufficient savings to buy
fifty shares of that company's stock. Make the following calculations:

Compute the cost of this investment according to the current selling price as quoted. To the cost must be added the commission. For the commission rate it may be necessary to consult the bank or local brokerage.

Keep a graph of the activity of your stock so that you can observe if the value is rising, falling, or staying about the same. Consult the daily market quotations for this information.

At the end of each two-week period compute the value of your investment and record the figure.

Watch the paper for any dividend payments. When payments are made, enter them in your bimonthly record.

At the end of the school year, assume that you sell your stock. After you have computed the sale, evaluate your investment venture and report to the class.

f. As individuals or groups invest in various kinds of $1,000 stocks and bonds. Keep an account of the investments in the same manner as in Procedure e. Compare the investments and their earnings at the end of the year. Tell which student or group makes the best investment.

g. As a group analyze a problem such as this: A man has just begun to work for a company at a salary of $3,000 a year. He is married and has one child. Should he buy a house or should he rent? Compare the yearly costs of the two plans and tell which he should choose. He can pay $1,500 down on a house. For solving this problem use the current cost of renting and buying houses in the local community.

h. Evaluate the investment purchases listed below according to the following points:

  Type of investor—large or small
  Certainty of income
  Rate of losing the principal
  Ease of liquidating or using the investment as security
    Life insurance policy
    Postal savings
Debenture bonds
Government bonds
Real estate
Real estate mortgages
Preferred stock
Common stock
Municipal bonds
Bank stock
Savings account in a commercial bank
Savings account in a savings bank
Stock in a savings and loan association
Stock in a building and loan association

1. Dramatize a meeting of a board of directors having the best interest of the stockholders in mind. The problem at this time may be the declaring of a dividend. The issue is, of course, how large a one to pay.

4. Suggestions for the Teacher

This unit can easily be planned cooperatively by the teacher and the students. The financial background of the students will largely determine their interests. Their experiences in personal and family budgeting and in saving and investing will be the basis upon which they will plan further experiences. The activities selected should be in accordance with their interests, their grade level, and their previous experiences. For instance, younger students will most likely be concerned with personal budgeting, saving and planning for a personal purchase to be made in the near future, and investing their long-time savings in United States savings bonds, savings accounts, and postal savings. Students at the eleventh- and twelfth-grade levels will more likely be interested in the purchase of stocks and bonds, the dealings of the commercial world, the buying of insurance, the buying or renting of houses, and the investing in their future through education or by providing for some form of self-improvement.

Make use of the community as much as possible in pointing out the investment possibilities which will have meaning to the students. If the community has limited opportunities for observing saving and investing, encourage the students to get more information through reading and writing to business concerns for literature about the opportunities they offer for saving and investing. Whenever possible, have the students invite people from the community to speak to them about problems of investment, saving, and budgeting. Visiting local business places gives students an opportunity to observe firsthand how people are actually putting their savings to work through investment.
The visits should be carefully planned in advance to enable students to get answers to specific questions and to observe important features.

Although the student is investing only vicariously in stocks, bonds, houses, and insurance as suggested in the evaluation section of this unit, he will become interested in observing as time goes on whether he made a wise choice or not. He will be interested, too, in observing how well his fellow students invested. This activity of evaluation could very well be extended so that the student would compile all of his "experience in investing" into a scrapbook that could be displayed for pupils of other classes. At all times he should evaluate his decisions so he may know when he has exercised good judgment as well as know when he has taken unnecessary risks with his savings.

Usually it is advisable to avoid classroom discussions on the saving and investment experiences of the families of students. The teacher should suggest at the beginning of the unit that hypothetical cases be used in the classroom. Students who wish to discuss or evaluate family investment affairs may do so within the family circle, using facts and principles learned through the class activities.

It may be noted that insurance is brought into this unit as one method of investing money. It would, therefore, be the annuity policy that would be emphasized here. Other forms of insurance may be studied through another unit, which may easily be an outgrowth of this one.

5. References


Brewer & others. Introductory business training. Gin, 1944. Ch. 8

Crabbe & Salsgiver. General business. South-Western pub., 1946. Units 3 and 6

Craig. A guide to consumer buying. Little, 1943. pp. 5-10 and 61

The following is an illustrative unit on communication from the Virginia General Business Course of Study:

**Preview**

Although communication has been studied by the pupils in other classes, the purpose of this unit is to give an understanding of the importance of communication in business, to learn how to use various communication services, and to make the best choice of a means of communication to fit a specific occasion. Courtesy and ethical practices in the use of communication facilities are stressed. The various means of communication discussed in this unit include speech, letter writing, telephone, telegraph, cable,
newspapers and periodicals, radio, and television. Arithmetic problems for computing the cost of various means of communication are provided. Special materials needed for this unit include the various styles of letters, envelopes, telegraph blanks, one or two telephones, voice recording machines, newspapers, magazines, and films. The several pamphlets listed in the reference materials can be ordered beforehand. If a postal employee is asked to speak to the class, the initial contact should be made with the postmaster for necessary arrangements.

In introducing this unit it is well to begin with a study of the telephone since many children are familiar with this means of communication. The improvement of the telephone voice through the use of telephones and voice-recording machines is of great interest and benefit to all students.

It is suggested that the unit on transportation follow the unit on communication because of the communication activities in the unit on transportation.

**ECONOMIC AND BUSINESS**

**UNDERSTANDING A:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developmental Questions</th>
<th>Suggested Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.</strong> What would be some of the consequences to business if any one of the means of communication, such as the U. S. Postal System, the nationwide telephone system, telegraph services, or radio and television networks were interrupted?</td>
<td><strong>1.</strong> An understanding of the need for the various means of communication in obtaining goods and services, in disseminating information, and in conveying ideas. For example: without communications orders could not be sent, money being sent by mail would be stopped, appointments could not be made, up-to-the-minute news would be stopped, business would be slowed down, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2.</strong> Where do you find information on new tax regulations and developments, or on new goods and services?</td>
<td><strong>2.</strong> An understanding that valuable business information is disseminated by radio, television, newspapers and periodicals, telephone, mail, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Activities**
1. Small groups visit the local post office, telegraph office, radio station, and newspaper office and make reports to the class on observations.

2. Prepare a chart showing the different kinds of first-class mail, when to use each, and the respective rates.

3. Hear the local postmaster talk about the services rendered by the post office.

4. Conduct a panel discussion on "The Need for Effective Communications."

5. List the various means of communication or make a pictorial chart of the development of communication.

Suggested Result

1. An understanding of the importance of all means of communication, such as speech, letter writing, giving directions, telephone, telegraph, teletype, cable, radio, television, newspaper, magazines, etc.

2. An understanding of the importance of keeping a record of all messages so that they will be available for reference when needed.

Activities
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupil</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Conduct an &quot;Information Please&quot; program on the services rendered by various communication systems.</td>
<td>1. Direct the preparation of the questions and assist the pupils in organizing the program.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. View the film, &quot;The New Voice for Mr. X,&quot; and discuss it.</td>
<td>2. Prepare the pupils for the showing of the film and direct the discussion following the showing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Engage in telephone conversations illustrating the different types of voices— the mumbler; the high-pitched, shrieking individual; the weak-voiced, shy, retiring person; the monotonous, sing-song character; the shouting &quot;tobacco auctioneer&quot;; and the pleasing, well-modulated voice. Use these conversations to illustrate correct and incorrect telephone technique.</td>
<td>3. Secure at least two telephones and a recording device if possible. Help in the selection of the participants, and aid pupils in developing the conversations which will be used. Provide for a class discussion following the demonstrations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Participate in competitive-team tests on finding information in the telephone directory from (a) a prepared list of names and (b) a prepared list of occupations.</td>
<td>4. Prepare the list of names and occupations. Demonstrate how to use the directory and time the tests. Secure a number of telephone directories.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. A pupil gives a report on how to use a pay station.</td>
<td>5. Help the pupil gather the necessary information and prepare the report.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ECONOMIC AND BUSINESS UNDERSTANDING C:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developmental Questions</th>
<th>Suggested Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Suppose you were asked to secure a stop watch from an out-of-town company to be used in an important game a week from today. How would you decide upon the best way to order it?</td>
<td>An understanding that it is wise to consider such means of communication as the telephone, telegraph, and letters. Also, an understanding of the interrelationship of communication and transportation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Method of Communication Best Adapted to Any Particular Situation Depends on the Elements of (1) Time, (2) Safety, (3) Cost, and (4) Availability.
2. Suppose you were traveling and lost your money in a distant city, how could you get money from your family in the shortest time?

**Activities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupil</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. A committee prepares a bulletin board display showing different types of letters and envelopes and different grades of paper.</td>
<td>1. Exhibit a file of different types of letters, envelopes, and writing paper. Help the committee with the display and make sure that samples of both typewritten and handwritten letters are shown.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Each pupil writes a letter ordering a stop watch.</td>
<td>2. Assist with the writing of the letter and stress neatness and good penmanship.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Address ten envelopes using varied forms of addresses, such as block and indented styles, following official postal regulations.</td>
<td>3. Prepare a set of envelopes for pupils to see, illustrate at the blackboard, and aid individual pupils with placement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Compose a telegram similar to the one suggested by Question 2.</td>
<td>4. Use examples of well-constructed telegrams to stress the importance of clearness and conciseness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Hear the record, &quot;The Secretary at the Telephone,&quot; and discuss it. Afterwards, conduct demonstrations to show correct handling of long-distance calls.</td>
<td>5. Arrange for the playing of the record. Direct the class discussion and guide the demonstration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Figure the cost of sending a telegram by fast telegram, night letter, day letter, serial service, and money-order service.</td>
<td>6. Provide the pupils with the necessary problems using the forms and exercises in the text if desired. Be sure to emphasize the 25% tax.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ECONOMIC AND BUSINESS UNDERSTANDING D:**

The Individual Who is Able to Give and to Follow Directions Effectively Saves Time, Money, and Effort.
Developmental Questions

1. How would you direct someone from the school to the post office?

1. An understanding that the ability to give clear, concise, and courteous directions may save time and effort, and build goodwill.

2. If you were asked how to find prices of used cars in newspaper, how would you give the directions?

2. An understanding of how to give complete, clear, and concise directions for location of written information.

Activities

Pupil

1. Take turns in giving directions to others in the class and in following directions given by others.

Teacher

1. Supervise the giving and carrying out of directions in this exercise. Throughout the course, give pupils every opportunity to give directions and stress the importance of following directions carefully.

ECONOMIC AND BUSINESS UNDERSTANDING E:

Individuals as Well as Businesses Use Newspapers and Periodicals in Order to (1) Keep Informed on Current Business Happenings, (2) Note Varying Opinions on Business Topics, (3) Obtain Facts from Financial Pages, (4) Learn of Available Goods and Services, and (5) Advertise Offerings.

Developmental Questions

1. What kind of business information can be found in newspapers?

1. An understanding of the kinds of business information which can be found in the various sections of a newspaper. For example, editors' opinions on business topics may be found on the editorial page, financial reports may be found on the financial page, etc.

2. What kind of business information can you find in one of the several news magazines?

2. An understanding that there are magazines such as Life, Newsweek, World Report, and Fortune which contain valuable business news.
3. Do all newspapers and magazines present the same attitude or bias toward news items?

3. An understanding that business information may be biased or slanted in favor of a particular political philosophy.

Activities

Pupil

1. Bring newspapers to class and look up business information in them as directed by the teacher. Discuss the findings.

2. Collect clippings, pictures, ads, etc., which illustrate some means of communication for business purposes and arrange them in booklet form. Write comments under each item.

3. View the film, "Tomorrow's History," and discuss it in class.

4. Collect editorials or stories on selected subjects that seem to be "slanted."

Teacher

1. Supply extra copies of newspapers if necessary. Prepare a list of items about which pupils will seek information, demonstrate the correct method of finding the information, and direct the discussion on the findings.

2. Show the pupils how to prepare attractive booklets of appropriate materials. Set a time limit for the completion of the booklets and stress the importance of neatness in all work.

3. Secure the film, preview it, and prepare the pupils for the showing. Provide for a class discussion after the film has been shown.

4. Assist pupils in recognizing biased news editorials and feature articles in daily newspapers and magazines.

ECONOMIC AND BUSINESS UNDERSTANDING F:

Ethical Practices in the Use of All Communication Devices Demonstrate an Individual's Respect for the Rights of Other People.

Developmental Questions:

1. Why is the unauthorized opening of another person's mail illegal?

Suggested Result

1. An understanding that our American way of life is based on a respect for the rights of the individual. Therefore, laws are made to help guarantee those rights.
2. Why is it discourteous to intentionally listen to a private conversation?

3. Why does the constitution give the right of freedom of speech?

4. What are the issues involving human rights in a democracy to be considered in determining whether or not to legalize wire-tapping by the F. B. I.?

5. How are people protected from abuse of the right of freedom of speech? Give examples.

6. What government agencies enforce laws pertaining to communication?

Activities

Pupil

1. Conduct a panel discussion on ethical practices in the use of various communication devices. Follow the panel discussion with a general class discussion.

Teacher

1. Choose the members of the panel and help them prepare their talks. Select a pupil to lead the general class discussion and give any help required in answering questions that are raised.

End-of-Unit Evaluation

The following pupil activities may be evaluated throughout the unit:

1. Reports on the visits to the post office, radio station, etc.
2. Preparation of the chart showing the different kinds of first-class mail.
3. Participation in the panel discussion on "The Need for Effective Communications."
4. Participation in the "Information Please" program.
5. Participation in the demonstrations of telephone techniques.
6. Participation in the tests finding information in a telephone directory.
7. The report on how to use a pay station telephone.
8. Preparation of the bulletin board display showing different types of letters and envelopes and different grades of paper.
9. Preparation of the letters ordering a stop watch.
10. Preparation of the ten envelope addresses.
11. Composition of the suggested telegram.
12. Computations of the cost of sending the various kinds of telegrams.
13. Participation in the demonstrations of giving and following directions.
14. Participation in the exercise of locating information in a newspaper.
15. Preparation of the booklets illustrating the various means of communication.
16. Participation in the panel discussion on ethical practices in the use of communication devices.
17. Participation in all general class discussions.

Achievement Tests:

1. Pupil-teacher prepared objective tests on the understandings and appreciations which have been developed in the unit.
2. Problem-point tests to determine the students' ability to select an appropriate means of communication, locate information in newspapers and periodicals, write acceptable business letters, etc.
3. Oral demonstration tests to determine the students' ability to use the telephone properly, give directions effectively, follow directions carefully, etc.

REFERENCE MATERIALS

Textbooks

Hamilton and others, Preparing for Business, pp. 126-91.
Jones and others, Functions of Business, pp. 12; 46; 425; 136.

Mallory and others, *Commercial Arithmetic*, Chapter VI.

McMackin and others, *The Arithmetic of Business*, pp. 231-44.


Rosenberg, *Business Mathematics*.

**Pamphlets**

(Note: The number in parentheses following each pamphlet title refers to the serial number of such references at the end of the course of study where complete information as to source is given.)

Alexander Graham Bell. (29)

*Behind the RCA Radio Telegraph Towers*. (89)

*Direct to the Point*. (89)

*Facts You Should Know about Our Business System—and You*. (20)

*Have You a TWX "Teletype Machine"?* (89)

*How to Make Friends by Telephone*. (29)

*How You Can Talk in Writing with Denmark*. (89)

*Magic of Communication, The*. (29)

*Radiogram Data Book*. (89)

*RCA, What It Is—What It Does*. (89)

*Story of Western Electric, The*. (110)

*Story of Western Union, The*. (111)

*Telephone in America, The*. (29)

*Ten Essentials in Using the Telephone*. (29)

*Tex to Holland*. (89)
Winning Ways with Your Telephone. (29)

Articles

Forkner, Hamden L., "Teaching Basic Skills."

Menning, J. H., "Teaching Basic Business Letter Writing."

Price, Ray G., "Pupil Participation in Developing Basic Business Field Trips."

Reed, Jane, "Activities for a Q-SAGO Unit on Business Letter Writing."

Sasso, Enrico V., "Dramatize Good Telephone Techniques."


Smith, Jodie C., "The First Letter-Type Assignment for Business Communication."

Turille, Stephen J., "An Outline of Questions and Projects for an Activities Unit on Using the Mail."

Webb, Mary W. "Bulletin Board Displays for Use in Teaching the Business Letter."

Films

Available from State Department of Education Library:

Men and Mail.

New Voice for Mr. X.

Party Line.

Telephone Courtesy.

Tomorrow's History.10

EVALUATION OF THE "Q-SAGO" PATTERN FOR THE
TEACHING OF GENERAL BUSINESS

The "Q-SAGO" pattern for the teaching of general business has received considerable attention in the literature of business education. This pattern has certain implications for the implementation of the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning for business education, and, therefore, attention is given to it in this appendix. Reference is made to the "Q-SAGO" units in the summary and evaluation following the division, "Teacher Pre-Planning Activities," in Chapter VIII.

The "Q-SAGO" pattern was suggested by Alan C. Lloyd. Lloyd describes this pattern as follows:

It must be twelve years, now, since I was introduced to Miss Hornel and, a few minutes later, to her strangely named way of teaching elementary business training. . . .

Miss Hornel and I stood chatting as her afternoon class in Business I came hurrying into the room. I pointed to a large bulletin-board display of many, many kinds of checks.

"I thought you were just starting the unit on checking services," I commented.

"Oh, we are," she replied. "Our bulletinboard committee, you see, always works one step ahead of the rest of the class."

Miss Hornel continued, "So now the stage is set. The class will begin its new unit by talking about the display and then go on from there to follow through in the regular Q-SAGO pattern."

"Queue-say-go?" I echoed.

find the answers. "A" is for activities by which they express or practice the answers. "G" is for unit goals, and "O" stands for the objectives of our course. Q-S-A-G-O. And they match.

Miss Hornell had, in the best mystery-story technique, provided the clue to easy and pleasant teaching of elementary business training when she said, "Q, S, A, G, and O."

She had not, however, told the whole story as I discovered when I first tried my hand at a course in this subject. It was not hard to prompt the students to ask questions, I found, nor was it difficult to get them to undertake activities; but I had immediate trouble in maintaining coherence. My class seemed to have too many questions and interests that had nothing to do with elementary business training! How could I control the minds and interests of the students?

The first three steps—the Q, the S, and the A—were obvious. Their importance was verified not only by my own teaching but also by what I read. Every enthusiastic teacher who wrote of his experiences in teaching social studies and social-business studies attributed his success to the same formula I had seen at work in Miss Hornell's class: Get the students to ask their own questions, to seek their own answers, and to demonstrate their answers. In this way, learning is real and permanent because it is personal, because it is direct, because it is tied in with the students' life interests.

But, in trying to use the Q-SAGO pattern, I kept stumbling over that problem of controlling the direction in which the class followed its interests. After all, where did I want to get to with my class? Obviously, the "Q" and the "O" had something to do with it.

Then, one day midway in the term I recalled another clue.

"And they match," Miss Hornell had said.

As I pondered that phrase, I nearly shouted, for those three words were the secret to controlling the class, the secret to coherence.

What matched? Not merely the letter "Q" to the word Question, and letter "G" to the word Goals, and so on, as I had at first thought. Rather, the questions and subject matter and activities and goals and objectives matched one another!

In other words, the questions were not, after all, simply any interesting questions that arose from the students' business
interests. They were the right questions—the ones that Miss Hornel knew would start the students in the desired direction.

And what was the "desired direction"? Ah, that was where the "G" and the "O" came in! They determined the direction. Miss Hornel was leading her class to certain goals, as steppingstones to certain objectives. The questions "that we ought to learn the answers to," and which had been written on the blackboard in the class I had observed, were all leading questions. She had adroitly encouraged the right questions, the ones whose answers would bring the students to the planned unit goals. She used the same questions, or at least the same type of question, in every unit, because the goals and the questions matched.

It would take a long time to report how I gradually reconstructed the details of Miss Hornel's Q-SAGO technique; but it is easy in retrospect to explain how it works.

We sit back in our chairs and ask ourselves, "What do we want our students to learn through a study of the business activities that affect their lives?" The answers to this question, we list as our objectives, our "O's."

Then we ask ourselves, "How can we make every topic, every unit, contribute to those "O's"? The answer, of course, is teacher direction, teacher leadership, that draws together the activities of the students so that those activities focus direct attention on every one of those "O's." The "O's," expressed in terms of the immediate topic, are the Goals, the "G's."

How can we "focus attention"? By the right leading questions.

Thus the full cycle of a unit is completed:

(1) The teacher leads the students to ask the right question;
(2) the students seek the answers in the topic subject matter;
(3) they express the answers through direct-learning activities;
(4) because the activities are direct-learning ones, the students reach the goals, the topic version of the objectives; (5) by repetition in unit after unit, the goals accumulatively make a permanent impression in the learners' minds, so that the objectives are reached.

The right questions are learning threads that bring coherence to the unit; they lead to the goals, and they therefore match the goals; and repeated achievement of the goals in unit after unit makes the permanent impressions that are actually our course
objectives. Each objective, then, must have a matching goal; and each goal must have a matching set of standard questions.

Once this principle is understood (and a study of the sample Q-SAGO unit that accompanies this article will clarify the matter), the teaching of elementary business training becomes easy. I found it so during the terms I subsequently taught the course. And why should it not be so? After all, once the mechanics of setting up standard questions, standard goals, and the course objectives are completed, the teacher need only steer a committee of students to list page references (for study materials) and to suggest expressive projects (for pupil activities). Three-fifths of the teacher's planning is done from the outset, and the students will do the other two-fifths!

What are the standard three-fifths—the questions, goals, and objectives that are permanent for every unit?

The ones shown in the accompanying "Q-SAGO Outline for a Unit on Checking Services" are the ones that the writer evolved in his own classes—ones that work. Note how the questions do match the goals, and how the goals do match the objectives.

Once the structure of the three standard parts of the teacher's master plan is established, in preparing a new unit he need only (note the italicized portions of the sample unit plan):

1. Add to or modify the questions in view of the topic of the unit. Obviously, a unit on household budgeting will have questions that are phrased differently to those for a unit on telephoning, even though the purpose of the question (to lead to the goal) is the same. . . .

2. Prepare a list of reference materials (or, better still, have a committee of students do so), some of which are required "background reading" for all. Include in this list all sources of learning materials, such as films, pamphlets, and articles.

3. Prepare a list of possible projects (or have a committee of students do so), being sure to have at least two alternative activities in each goal area.

For the teacher's own plan book, one easy shortcut is to duplicate a form designed like the model unit. The part of the model

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1 The sample unit which accompanies this article appears on pp. 725-27 of this Appendix.
that is shown in roman type—the column headings, all the entries in columns 4 and 5, and many of the questions in column 1—would be duplicated right into the planning form. In preparing for a specific unit, then, the teacher need only write in the new and additional questions, the subject-matter references, and a tentative list of activities—a matter of perhaps ten minutes' work! At the completion of a unit, underscore the questions, references, and activities that served best and cross out those that served least; there, your plan for redeveloping the unit the next term is ready!

Of the foregoing duties, the only one that may make us hesitate is the selection of projects by which the pupils demonstrate or express or practice their answers. Not every student will participate directly in every activity, but every student should participate in some project in every unit.

It should be clear that no project is "busy work." Each project must contribute to the goal in the related area. In each unit there should be at least one project dedicated to each goal.

From the foregoing, it seems that teaching elementary business training by the use of the Q-SAGO teaching plan can be easy for the teacher, can be fun for both the teacher and the learners, and can be tremendously fruitful. The formula is simple: Lead students to ask the right questions, to look up the answers in the related subject-matter topic, to express their answers (or to practice them) in activities of their own selection, and so to reach the goals of all units: understanding the fundamental business concepts. Through repetition of the goals, the concepts are made permanent, and so the objectives of the course are attained.

Although the Q-SAGO pattern contains certain elements which point toward student participation in the learning situation, it is not basically in conformity with the philosophy of teacher-pupil planning as expressed in this study.

In the main, the Q-SAGO pattern conceives that the answer to the inadequacies of traditional ways of conducting general business classes

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is to secure activity on the part of students. It is not clear as to just what activates the individual, but apparently the individual is considered to be activated by asking questions. These questions are not just any questions which might arise out of the interests of the students, but are the questions that the teacher knows will start the students in the direction desired by the teacher. The student is activated to search for answers to questions in subject matter references and to express or practice the answers in certain project activities. The activity engaged in by the student is so channeled by the teacher that goals will be achieved by the student which have been set up by the teacher. By continual repetition of activities in many units of work which are all channeled by the teacher to reach goals which are the same for all the units, the students eventually reach the end objectives which have also been unilaterally set by the teacher.

In the Q-SAGO pattern, the questions, goals, and objectives are teacher determined. There is some chance for student participation in the selecting of subject matter references and in suggesting project activities.

The role of the teacher which is conceived by the Q-SAGO pattern might be described as that of a benevolent autocrat. He "adroitly" leads students to think that they want to do what he wants them to do.

The Q-SAGO pattern is an attempt to improve on the formalized daily-ground-to-be-covered recitation method of teaching general business, which is easy for students and teachers to use, by presenting a formalized pattern for securing some pupil activity, which is also easy for
students and teachers to use.

Attention has been given to the Q-SAGO pattern for two reasons. First of all, attention has been given because of the extensiveness of the attention given in the literature to this pattern, which contains certain elements that point toward student participation in the learning situation. More importantly for this study, however, numerous Q-SAGO units have been prepared that are based on the pattern suggested by Lloyd. These Q-SAGO units could be utilized by teachers in the

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pre-planning which they do for the teacher-pupil-planning learning situation. The Q-SAGO units are not extensive enough to be used as resource units, but they contain information which could be used in building resource units. Of particular value would be the source materials and student activities listed for particular units of work. The questions, goals, and objectives might also be useful in the efforts of a resource builder to set forth possible goals, objectives, and problems which students might have.

### A Q-SAGO OUTLINE ON: CHECKING SERVICES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUESTIONS -- whose answers lead students to grasp concepts</th>
<th>SUBJECT matter -- references for finding desired answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. What should consumers know? How should we fill out checks? What safeguards? How do we know that our money is safe?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. What vocations are involved? Who works at them? What do they do? What would a bank clerk have to watch for? A pay-roll employee?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. What personal skills are needed? Do we have them? What is the importance of: Arithmetic? Penmanship? Spelling? Which is most important? At which are we best?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. What personal traits are needed? Do we have them? What is the importance of: Accuracy? Honesty? Carefulness?</td>
<td>(Note: Required background reading will be in whichever text is basic in the course.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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1 Lloyd, op. cit., pp. 98-99. (The remainder of this unit appears on pp. 726-27 of this study.)

5 Underlined portions illustrate what the teacher writes into his Q-SAGO outline in preparing a unit. The portions not underlined do not change.
**A S-SAG Outline on: Checking Services**

**Activities** — through which students find, develop, practice, emphasize, etc., the answers. Each activity focuses attention on related goal.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Poster</td>
<td>Huge check with each part identified. Display. Variety of checks and checkbooks used locally.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Diagram</td>
<td>Circulation of a check. Skit. &quot;If we had no checks with which to pay our bills!&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Drama</td>
<td>Contrast a neat, effective bank teller with a poor one who discourages patrons. Panel. Which of Us Are Particularly Eligible for a Job Handling Money, with Checks, etc.? Visitor. Importance of accuracy in my job; in bookkeeping.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## A Q-SAGO OUTLINE ON: CHECKING SERVICES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GOALS -- basic concepts to be emphasized in every unit</th>
<th>OBJECTIVES -- basic business concepts made permanent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To be successful, any business must fulfill satisfactorily a needed service.</td>
<td>1. Understanding the nature of business enterprise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Our community is better for having the services of its firms.</td>
<td>2. Understanding of the place of business in community life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. We are all producers, distributors, and consumers.</td>
<td>3. Understanding of the extent to which we are all dependent upon one another's services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. To make wise and efficient use of business goods and services, we must be informed consumers.</td>
<td>4. Understanding of the advantages and disadvantages of the consumer's position.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. A business worker must know where his job fits into the structure of business.</td>
<td>5. Comprehension of the enormous number of vocations in business, and knowledge of the principal duties and functions of the outstanding ones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Personal skills (penmanship, arithmetic, spelling, vocabulary, English usages, business techniques, etc.) are essential in getting and advancing in a position and in effectively using the services of business.</td>
<td>6. Improvement in the personal skills (tools demanded of all business users and workers).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Proper personal traits (manners, willingness to work, grooming, adjustment to and participation in group activity, etc.) are essential in getting and advancing in a position.</td>
<td>7. Development of the desirable attitudes and characteristics demanded of all business workers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX D

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF BUSINESS EDUCATION LITERATURE SEARCHED

A. BOOKS


B. YEARBOOKS

1. Eastern Commercial Teachers Association Yearbooks

First Yearbook, Foundation of Commercial Education, 1928.


Third Yearbook, Administration and Supervision of Business Education, 1930.
Fourth Yearbook, Modern Methods of Teaching Business Subjects, 1931.
Sixth Yearbook, Teaching Devices and Classroom Equipment, 1933.
Tenth Yearbook, Measuring for Vocational Ability in the Field of Business Education, 1937.
Thirteenth Yearbook, The Contribution of Business Education to Youth Adjustment, 1940.
Fourteenth Yearbook, Business Education for Tomorrow, 1941.
Fifteenth Yearbook, Unit Planning in Business Education, 1942.

2. National Business Teachers Association Yearbooks

Second Yearbook, Lesson Plans and Teaching Techniques, 1936.
Third Yearbook, Tested Teaching Procedures, 1937.
Fourth Yearbook, Factors of Learning and Teaching Techniques in Business Education Subjects, 1938.
Fifth Yearbook, Indices of Good Teaching, 1939.

The First through the Sixth Yearbooks appear as publications of the National Commercial Teachers Federation.
Sixth Yearbook, The Business Curriculum, 1940.
Seventh Yearbook, Problems and Issues in Business Education, 1941.
Ninth Yearbook, Effective Business Education, 1943.

3. American Business Education Yearbooks

4. Commercial Education Association of the City of New York and Vicinity Yearbooks

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2 Joint publications of the National Business Teachers Association and Eastern Business Teachers Association.


C. PERIODICALS

The Balance Sheet, Vols. III to XXXIV, December, 1921, to May, 1953.
(Unavailable: Vols. I and II, and the September, October, and November issues of Vol. III.)

Business Education Digest, Vols. I to VIII, March, 1937, to May, 1944.3
(Unavailable: November, 1939.)


Business Education World, Vols. XIV to XXXIII, September, 1933, to June, 1953.4

Business Teacher, Vol. XXVII to XXIX, September-October, 1949, to May-June, 1953.5


Dictaphone Educational Forum, November-December, 1943, to April-May, 1953.


The National Association of Business Teacher-Training Institutions
Bulletins, Nos. 1 to 54, February, 28, 1930, to June, 1951.7

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3Beginning with the October, 1944, issue, this periodical appears under the name, American Business Education Digest. This was shortened to American Business Education beginning with the October, 1945, issue.

4The September, 1933, issue is the first issue of Business Education World. The volume numbers are a continuation of the volume numbers of The American Shorthand Teacher, discontinued at this date.

5The September-October, 1949, issue is the first issue of Business Teacher. The volume numbers are a continuation of the volume numbers of the Gregg News Letter, discontinued at this date.


D. MONOGRAPHS AND PAMPHLETS


South-Western Publishing Company Monographs, Nos. 12 to 82. (Unavailable: Nos. 79 and 80.)

E. TEACHER'S MANUALS


8The Ninth Annual Lecture by McKee Fisk has not been published. A report of this lecture appears in The Ball State Commerce Journal, 22:14-18, February, 1951.


Korona, L. W., Clyde E. Rowe, and Jane E. Clem. **Teacher's Key and Manual to Accompany Business and Personal Typewriting.** Boston: Ginn and Company, 1940.


I, Denzel Loren Carmichael, was born in Indianapolis, Indiana, September 8, 1921. I received my secondary school education in the public schools of Muncie, Indiana. My undergraduate training was obtained at Ball State Teachers College, from which I received the degree Bachelor of Science in 1943. From Indiana University, I received the degree Master of Business Administration in 1949. During the year 1947-1948, I taught in the Department of Business Education at Broad Ripple High School, Indianapolis, Indiana. Since 1948, I have been employed as an Instructor in the Department of Business Education and Secretarial Studies at Michigan State College.