 Werrett Wallace Charters, Sr. (1875-1952): His Life, Career and Influence upon Pharmaceutical Education

John Charters Russell
Loyola University Chicago

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Vita

The author, John Charters Russell, is the son of Raymond Russell and Helen (Charters) Russell of Naperville, Illinois. He was born in Chicago, Illinois on March 30, 1943.

His elementary education was obtained at Saint Luke School, a parochial school in River Forest, Illinois. He received his secondary schooling at Marmion Military Academy, North Aurora, Illinois, where he graduated in 1962. He was honored with the Samuel Levy Award for Outstanding Leadership upon graduation.

In February, 1969 he earned a baccalaureate degree from Loyola University of Chicago with the major area of study in theology. Continuing his study in Guidance and Counseling, a masters degree was awarded to him in February, 1974 from Loyola University of Chicago. In 1976, he began study for the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major interest in the history of education.

While advancing his education, Mr. Russell has pursued a career in secondary and higher education, as a teacher and administrator. In 1970, he taught on the faculty of Saint Gregory High School, Chicago, Illinois. In 1971, he began a career as an administrator at the University of Illinois at the Medical Center as Assistant Program Director of the Chicago Illini Union. He joined the academic staff of the University of Illinois, College of Pharmacy in 1972 and presently holds an appointment as Assistant Dean. He is a member of: Kappa Psi Pharmaceutical Fraternity (Honorary membership by student vote); American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy; Illinois Pharmacists Association; Institute of Society, Ethics, and the Life Sciences; American Personnel and Guidance Association; and
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CHAPTER I

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF THE LIFE OF WERRETT WALLACE CHARTERS-
EARLY FAMILY DAYS TO AGE FORTY-FOUR

Introduction

An address presented by alumnus Werrett Wallace Charters, Sr., on Friday, December 20, 1901 on the occasion of the First Alumni Conference at McMaster University reflected a sobering destiny which for the speaker was the common lot of humankind. With sad strokes, he painted a portrait depicting the common lot thusly:

Most men eddy about - here and there; eat and drink, chatter and love and hate; are raised aloft, are hurled in the dust; striving blindly, achieving nothing; and then they die - perish - and no one asks who or what they have been more than he asks what waves, in the moonlit solitudes wild of the midmost ocean have swelled, foamed for a moment and gone. 1

While for Charters, this reflection of humankind holds true for most, he was quick to point out that graduates of McMaster University were of a unique character and were not prone to be "edied about." "I hold that this is the first of the advantages which McMaster gives her graduates." 2 As a very recent graduate of McMaster, and as a young person embarking upon a professional career in

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1 W.W. Charters, "Concerning McMaster University: For Parents, Teachers and Students (Extracts from a Paper)," 20 December 1901, Canadian Baptist Archives, Hamilton, Ontario, p.11. Immediately following this passage, Charters makes reference to the importance of Dr. Rand, the Chancellor of McMaster University, in his early student formation. He said of Dr. Rand: "And here I wish to add my tribute to the memory of one to whom I personally owe perhaps more of any moral earnestness I may possess, than to any other teacher at whose feet I have had the privilege of sitting. I refer to Dr. Rand."

2 Ibid.
education, W. W. Charters chose not to place himself in that portrait. Rather, he saw himself as being set apart and above that common lot of humankind, someone special in life and, hopefully, in death worthy of others asking "who and what they have been." In this Chapter and the following the "who and what" of the life of Werrett Wallace Charters, Sr. will be traced. Treating his life will begin by examining early family roots in Scotland.

The Charters Family

The founders of the Canadian branches of the Charters family were David Landsborough Charters and his wife, Janet Ferguson. Both migrated from Glasgow, Scotland and settled in Hartford, Ontario in 1845. Two children, John and William, survived the Atlantic crossing. Upon arriving in Hartford and finding a small farm on which to live, seven more children were born into the family. The first of the seven born in Canada was Alexander Maxwell who died shortly after birth. Another son, born on March 2, 1848, was curiously enough also named Alexander Maxwell. The other surviving progenitors of the several Canadian branches of the family Charters were Jean, James, Jessie, George and Mary.

Two daughters were also born in Glasgow, but died in infancy.

"The Charters Family of Canada," n.d., unpublished paper. Charters Family Collection, Columbus, Ohio. This paper outlines the genealogy of the Charters' clan and according to Margaret Charters Lyon, W. W. Charters' oldest daughter, is the work of her father who enjoyed such research as a hobby - a hobby which once brought Charters to Scotland in search of the ancestral acres. In this study, the family roots are brought back to the Fourteenth Century to Sir Thomas de Longueville Charters, a reformed pirate, who joined forces with King Robert Bruce. Nisbets' System of Heraldry, 1804 states: "An account of the family of the name of Charters of Amisfield", and after quoting at length from records of land grants and charters it concludes, "By the writs above deduced it appears evidently that the family of Amisfield has continued in the name of Charteris from King Robert Bruce to this day." To push the family roots deeper in time, The Baronage of Scotland, 1798 is cited, "The surname of Charteris is of great antiquity in Scotland; and it is the opinion of some antiquaries that they are of French
On December 23, 1874, Alexander Maxwell Charters married Mary Ann Mealley of Scotch-Irish stock from Northern Ireland. The early years of their married life were spent on a small rented farm in Hartford. It was there in a rural Canadian setting that a first son, born on October 24, 1875, was christened Werrett Wallace. After farming for two years, the family moved to Hagersville in Haldimand County. The move to Hagersville meant for Alexander a change in occupation in that he became a well driller. He is described in family records as: "... known in Haldimand and neighboring counties, not only as a reliable business man but also because of his fine personality." Along with his public reputation, Alexander was long active in the Hagersville Baptist Church, serving as its treasurer. Mary Ann spent her days at homemaking and mothering several additions to the family -- Maxwell Minor was born in 1875, Alexander Allen was born in 1881, Clifford Duane was born in 1889 and Margaret Bell was born in 1891.

In 1907 Alexander, then sixty-five years old, moved his family to Alberta to homestead the rich farm land in the Red Deer River region. Their son, Werrett Wallace, had left the family home several years earlier for university study and was just beginning his professional career in the United States. And so with two grown sons and a daughter, Alexander and Mary Ann headed westward with a fear of the unknown and a great hope for a better life. When the family arrived, they homesteaded a small section of land and began farming wheat and other grains.

extraction. That William, a son of the earl of Charteris in France, came to England with William the Conqueror (1066); that a son or grandson of his came to Scotland with King David I (1124) and was progenitor of all of the surname of Charteris in this kingdom; and certain it is that they began to make a figure in the south of Scotland soon after that era."

5 Ibid. 6 Maxwell Minor died in 1880.
The move proved an economic success, so that when Alexander retired at age eighty, he owned several wheat farms which were described as being "extensive." As the three remaining children came of age and were ready to marry, each left the farm. Of these children, Alexander Allen settled in New Westminster, British Columbia and became a railroad foreman; Clifford Duane who was described by a family member as having various jobs, moved to Tranquille, British Columbia; and Magaret married a school teacher who taught in the local school in Drumheller, Alberta. After retiring from the farm, Alexander and Mary Ann built a home in Drumheller close to their farms. Their retirement almost saw a golden wedding anniversary but Mary Ann died a year earlier on September 25, 1925. Alexander lived until age eighty-nine and died on October 10, 1937.

Childhood in Canada

W. W. Charters was raised in a family having simple and basic tastes. The Charters' family held to true nineteenth century values of hard work and rugged individualism founded on a puritan Christian ethic. These values were modeled by his parents in their ambitious economic success in the Alberta farming ventures and their participation in the Canadian Baptist Church. Charters was proud of his parents and let it be known in later life that he was the son of a "well digger." As a child, Charters was very much an extrovert and able to establish good relationships. Several of his boyhood friendships were kept through life. The

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7 Margaret Charters Lyon, "Information Concerning W. W. Charters: In Reply to Questions Formulated by John Charters Russell," September 1979, Personal Files of John Charters Russell, Chicago. Much of the information on W. W. Charters' childhood in Canada was supplied by his oldest daughter, Margaret, in extensive mail correspondence. In this correspondence it was learned that Werrett Wallace was referred to as Wallace by family.
importance of religious value in the Charters' household is exemplified in an anecdotal story Werrett Wallace once told about himself. A "Holiness" family had moved to Hagersville and one son was a schoolmate of Charters. One day Wallace came home and excitedly told his mother, "all you have to do is be holy one day at a time. I want to be holy -- I started to practice today." His mother asked, "Well, where did you get those nails in your pocket?" Young Charters responded, "I just took them when Mr. James wasn't looking." This innocent little story is interesting in that it reflects a childhood struggle with theory and practice which became for Charters a conscience struggle in latter life in matters of educational theory and practices. While religion was important to young Charters, he placed it within the normal ranges of human experience as represented in another story he told of his early years. Though the family belonged to the Baptist Church, in the summer Wallace and his brothers would attend services in all three churches in town so that they could be invited to the church picnics. Charters in latter life never lost his enterprising abilities.

His early schooling was at the village school in Hagersville. Records of his earliest academic achievement have been lost through the passage of time. Some evidence of an achievement and the earliest sign of Charters as an author was a "book" which he referred to as his first. This literary effort was accomplished when he was in the fifth grade and was a brief history of Indian mound builders. While this childish attempt at scholarship was just that, still it did precurse Charters' long and prolific career as a scholar. Of all Alexander and Mary Ann's children, only Werrett Wallace aspired to study at the university. His interests after secondary school lie in areas of education and specifically in teaching. Let us now examine Charters' early career and education at the post-secondary level.
Early Career and University Streaming

Completing his secondary education at the Hagersville Public School, W. W. Charters tried his hand at teaching in a rural school. He was particularly interested in the process of learning and the relationship of the student and teacher in that process. He was not interested in accepting the educational status quo unless it was subjected to critical investigation. For Charters, tradition or "always having done something in a certain way" was not enough to answer the questions raised by educators or the general public about current educational practices. An article written about W. W. Charters in 1945 describes his early concern for education:

From the time of his first humble strivings as a rural school teacher in 1894 he has been interested in the processes and methods of education. Not content with keeping the machinery of instruction well oiled, his abiding concern has been to pull the machine apart to see what makes it run, and to understand more fully the psychological mechanism by which the student at all levels of learning absorbs and utilizes subject matter and adjusts himself to his social and economic environment.

Charters' desire to focus his inquisitive mind and establish academic credibility moved him from those humble beginnings at Rockford to Hamilton, Ontario and McMaster University. McMaster, a small Baptist liberal arts university, was in competition with the larger provincial university. Charters enrolled in the three year curriculum and earned an A. B. degree in 1898. His tenure at McMaster was described as no less than academically "brilliant". He impressed his peers and the faculty as having exceptional qualities of mind and personality. Upon graduation, he was considered by himself and others to be a special son of McMaster and his

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affiliation and loyalty continued throughout his life. No less supportive of this unique relationship of McMaster with this young undergraduate was an article in *The Toronto Star Weekly* which reports:

When the nineteenth century was just preparing to fade into the twentieth, professors of McMaster University, Toronto, were grappling with a veritable avalanche of questions from one of the most inquisitive students they had ever encountered. His thirst for knowledge was unquenchable. He absorbed facts in an orderly and business-like way and analyzed the problems of ancient history and present-day trigonometry with an exceedingly keen mind ... This student of the late '90's was Werrett Wallace Charters ... W. W. Charters arrived in Toronto with his eyes and ears wide open and avowed intention of becoming a teacher. His career at McMaster was brilliant ...

Charters' loyalty to McMaster and the importance it played in his life is apparent as he argues the need for small private liberal arts institutions versus the large public Provincial University. In speaking as a young alumnus of the grown status of McMaster, Charters pointed out:

"To alleviate this unsatisfactory state of affairs three agencies are at work: first, the element of time, which compiles affection when the object to be loved possesses worthy qualities; second, the intrinsic superiority of her course of education over that of competing universities as, I believe, can be shown; and third, a most intense loyalty of McMaster graduates of their Alma Mater - a loyalty surpassed by that of the graduates of no University of which I know."

Forty-two years after his graduation, at age sixty-five, Charters wrote of his memories of himself, McMaster, and the world just prior to the turn of the century. He offers what he describes as a "necklace of memories" and goes on to say:

A country boy choosing between Toronto and McMaster is being impressed by the fact that if he honors in mathematics at Toronto he will study little else, while at McMaster he will secure a broader education; so selects McMaster ... Chancellor Rand, statesman and minor poet in his own right,

9"He Repairs the Injured Intellect and is Doctor of Sick Businesses," *The Toronto Star Weekly*, 6 December 1924, Canadian Baptist Archives, Hamilton, Ontario.

10Charters, "Concerning McMaster University," p.9.
transmitting beauty as a thrilling thing to young collegians ... Perturbation in the faculty over heretical ideas brought by speakers from the States and vigorous lectures by the faculty in rebuttal to keep the boys from going wrong ... A new kind of instrument, called the telephone, installed under the stairway, but not used very much ... Good old fundamentalism not yet challenged by the liberals though atheists and universities know and frowned upon ... Exhibiting at the Y the very latest scientific discovery, called the x-ray, and hearing the amazed comments of people who for the first time could see through their friends. 1

Upon completing his study at McMaster in 1898, W. W. Charters took his degree and accumulated honors to the Ontario Normal College for one year of intense teacher training. He then enrolled at Toronto University where he earned a Bachelor of Pedagogy degree in 1901. The period from 1899 through December 1901 was also the beginning of Charters' administrative career in that he accepted a position as principal of the Model School at Hamilton. In 1901, Charters, buoyed by his academic successes in Canada and desiring even greater achievements, looked southward to the land of greatest opportunity, the United States. The decision to cross the boarder was naturally difficult in that family ties and Canadian roots were deep and important to Charters. To lend a sense of continuity to the difficult move, Charters selected a Baptist institution to continue his study, the University of Chicago. Some reflection of feeling on that move and its importance were made by Charters to the Ontario Educational Association in 1926.

Dr. Wallace (sic) W. Charters, who was received with applause said: ... this is my twenty-fifth anniversary. It was twenty-five years ago next 31st of December since I left Toronto and went across the line to the University of Chicago. I left with many misgivings. I had always felt I wanted to get the best education I could possibly get, and it seemed to me as though with my particular line, that I was interested in, that the University of Chicago would be a good place. In due course of time I graduated and then began to look for a position, and naturally my eyes turned back to Ontario, Canada, but there were not many positions in colleges of education and in our

normal schools that were vacant at that particular time, and so I had to take up my sojourn with the President across the border and as time has gone on I have become fitted into that structure, but always with the greatest pleasure and interest I watch all things Canadian, and whenever I get an opportunity I drop practically everything else to come back and mingle with the friends that I had so many years ago, and feel as though I am among my own folk.  

Charters then recalled the importance of his Canadian education and was politically skillful in not offending the Canadian or American educational system when comparing them.  

I think it is true ... that it is better for a boy to have been born in Canada if he wants to get ahead in the United States. In the last analysis he has to make good, but I believe that he has an easier opportunity getting a foothold if he is a Canadian than he has if he is an American. ... From time to time I have had an opportunity to describe a number of the things in Canada that I have thought were better than they were in the United States. Nothing is ever absolutely better. There are things that are neither blacks nor whites in the world but greys. I have given a great deal of thought to the question of central final examinations. I do not believe in them in a great many ways. In other respects you have to believe in them from the point of view of thoroughness. The school superintendent that has a new idea in the United States has all the right in the world to go ahead and experiment with it ... Therefore the high school principal and his teachers can do anything that they want to do provided they have good teachers, and that allows a great opportunity for experimentation, but I do think that it affects in many cases the thoroughness with which the work is done.  

Arriving at the University of Chicago in 1901, Charters took residence in Chicago's Hyde Park district. He was initially admitted into a Master of Philosophy program in Education and earned that degree in 1903. His masters thesis was entitled "The Psychology of History in Its Relation to Education." One year later he was awarded a Doctor of Philosophy in Education by the University faculty. The title of his dissertation study was "Method in History Teaching: As

12 W. W. Charters, Minutes, Ontario Educational Association, 1926, p. 34.  
13 Ibid.
Influenced by the Functional Phase of Subject Matter." Charters' academic record at Chicago, unlike his Canadian academic achievements, was rather average. His transcript reveals that of the twenty six courses in which he was enrolled he earned: seven "A" grades, eight "B" grades, one "D" grade, eight "Pass" grades and two "Incompletes." The "D" grade was recorded for "Phil. mj 28 - Theory of Logic and Phil mj 35 - Theory of Logic." W. W. Charters did not talk about his graduate work at Chicago nor did he distinguish himself academically.

He was reported to have enjoyed membership in the social fraternity, Sigma Alpha Epsilon, and was said to "have had a good time with both men and women." The distinguished educator and philosopher, Professor John Dewey, was Charters' graduate advisor and thus influenced Charters thought to some extent. The degree of that influence and its significance is unclear. Margaret, Charters' oldest daughter, indicated that her father had one or more courses with Dr. Dewey, accepted his philosophy as self-evident, but did not idolize him. Joseph Kirschner reported that much of Charters' scholarship was attempting to interpret Dewey and make his complex philosophy more easily understood. Dewey's influence on Charters is also held by Mary Louise Sequel. But she claims that

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14 W.W. Charters, (unpublished manuscript for Ph.D. dissertation, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1904), in Charters' Papers (Ohio State University Libraries, Columbus, Ohio). Charters' master or doctoral work are not held in University of Chicago Library. However, titles appeared on official transcripts.


16 Ibid. 17 Ibid.

influence was shaped less by Dewey and more by Dewey's student, Junius L. Meriam, who established the University Elementary School in 1904 in Missouri.\(^\text{19}\) Charters did not experience that important Meriam laboratory school until several years after studying under Dewey. W. E. Andrum also points out the influence of Meriam on Charters' developing educational philosophy with lesser reference to Dewey's influence on him.\(^\text{20}\)

Shortly after beginning his study at Chicago, Charters met Jessie Allen whom he courted during his days as a student and for several years thereafter. Miss Allen was a doctoral student reading psychology at the time of their meeting. She was described as an outstanding student who had close relations with Professor John Dewey and was said to be the "pet of Professor J. R. Angell"\(^\text{21}\) who was to become President of Yale University some years later.

A review of Jessie Allen's life prior to meeting W. W. Charters reveals a woman of unique ability and talent who was able to develop under extreme hardship. Her parents lived in Texas when she was born. They boasted of preachers, educators and landowners in their ancestry. It was said of her uncles that they "preached in hardtimes and sold real estate in good times."\(^\text{22}\) Her father died when Jessie was four, leaving her mother and two other children. The family


\(^{22}\)Ibid.
Allen Family, Spring of 1894. Jessie Allen is on the left with her mother Evangeline Beck Allen (center) with brother Riley and Ella. Photograph courtesy of Charters Family.
moved to Kentucky for a few years and then migrated to Seattle, Washington where her mother taught school and ran a boarding house. "Jessie Allen was reared to work hard, with a strong feeling of being poverty-stricken."23 Her early education was taken with her mother who taught her Greek, Latin, higher mathematics and all the subjects taught in advanced high schools. At age fourteen she was enrolled in the University of Washington and graduated four years later. After earning her degree, Jessie Allen taught in a country school for several years. Leaving the country school, she was accepted at the University of Chicago where she established a distinguished academic record. A review of her official transcript reveals that Jessie Allen graduated on June 14, 1904, magna cum laude. Her thesis was entitled "The Psychology of the Guinea Pig." At age twenty-three, she had the distinction of being the youngest person at that time to be awarded the Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology in the United States. She was recalled as having a remarkable memory and high reasoning ability and was said to have an I. Q. that tested to be higher than 180.24 After completing her work at Chicago, Jessie Allen began her teaching career by accepting a position at the Los Angeles Normal School. Although she was separated from W. W. Charters, their relationship, though sometimes difficult, continued over the miles. Charters at this time was also finishing his degree at Chicago and was seeking professional employment.

24 Ibid.
Although Charters had some desire to return to Canada after receiving his doctorate, the best position offered to him was made by school in Winona, Minnesota. Charters, then twenty-nine, accepted the position as Principal of Elementary School and Supervisor of Practice Teaching at the State Normal School at Winona. Teacher education was the major preoccupation for Charters while at Winona. He also began to ready his thoughts for his first book (in adult life) which was entitled Methods of Teaching. The thesis of this work was a call for the school curriculum to be built on a functional basis. That functional perspective would give purpose, meaning and direction to the structure of the curriculum. The Methods of Teaching, published in 1909, was used widely in teacher education classes. Charters felt that his career as an educator hinged on this work. A personal note was written on the fly-leaf of Methods of Teaching, Third Edition, 1912 which read:

Requiescat in Pace - on May 12, Row, Peterson and Company wrote me: "The sales of this book have dropped to almost nothing" and advised that they were about to dispose of what copies remained for old paper. Which carries me back thirty years or more. The corpus was conceived in Winona and born in Missouri on 1909. Its face was lifted in 1912. The records show that 19,754 copies were sold --- the royalties amounted to $4,232. It was the first book to attack instruction and the curriculum from the functional point of view and as such attracted attention among the "liberals". It won my qualifying race to admit me to the sports of national education.

This bit of reminiscing was dated May 27, 1939 and signed Werrett Wallace Charters. Charters' professional career was launched at Winona as was an important event in his personal life. That being, after several vacillating periods, he proposed formally to Jessie B. Allen. Upon her acceptance, they both resigned their respective employment to marry and for Werrett Wallace to accept his first major university position.

University of Missouri

The marriage took place on December 21, 1907 in Kansas City, Missouri, a distance away from where Jessie and Werrett had settled. Shortly thereafter, Charters began his new position at the University of Missouri. At Columbia, Jessie Charters set up a household with her husband who was then a newly appointed acting Professor of Theory and Practice Teaching. He held that rank for one year after which, in 1908, he became Professor of Theory of Teaching and Dean of Faculty of Education. Charters' academic and administrative leadership was recognized despite his relatively young age of thirty-six. He was considered to be an extremely dedicated and hard working, more often than not bringing home a large briefcase and working late into the night. On most Saturdays he was involved in managing teacher institutes which were presented in nearby towns. These institutes and publishing efforts were gaining for Charters a national reputation.

26 This book was found in the family library of Ralph and Margaret Charters Lyon, Lexington, Alabama.

With *Methods of Teaching* well received by teachers in 1909, Charters turned to writing his second volume, *Teaching the Common Branches*\(^{28}\), which was available in 1912. The book was written as a textbook for teachers primarily in rural areas and also for those teaching in graded schools. The theme of this textbook stressed an underlining philosophy that the structure of a given school subject must follow from the functional use of the subject in the everyday world. Such a framework, it was thought, would offer a more meaningful education to the student and greater efficiency to the teacher in the learning process. Charters described this textbook as an inductive treatment of the principles of teaching. To demonstrate the structure of a curriculum and subject, Charters illustrated the functional nature of commonly taught subjects such as: spelling, penmanship, language, grammar, reading, drawing, music, handicrafts, geography, history, civics, arithmetic, hygiene and agriculture. *Teaching the Common Branches* was as popular as Charters' first book among professional educators. "Teachers all over the nation were in study groups reading his two methods books."\(^{29}\) With the popular and financial success of these books, Charters began work on a series of elementary school textbooks called *Language and Grammar*. In treating its subject, this series examined the incorrect use of language and grammar by school children. Its negative functional approach was unique at that time to Charters.

Writing, teaching and administration were the major professional activities for Charters at Missouri. But even with these responsibilities, the energetic and enterprising educator offered his time and energy to assist a troubled college in


Columbia. Stephens College, a small Baptist Women's Junior College, was experiencing financial difficulties and long-term debts which mounted to approximately $75,000. In 1911 the College was unable to pay interest and principle on these debts. Funds were urgently needed if the College was to survive. The crisis was heightened further because another church group was interested in the College property. As Crighton reported:

... David H. Harris, president of Stephens College Board of Curator, emphasized the fact that the Catholic Church, recognizing the importance of Columbia as an educational center, had been negotiating for the Stephens property. Unless the mortgage obligations were met, it was agreed, the College would pass into the control of Rome.

The task of saving Stephen's College was assumed by the Baptist Church of Missouri. On October 25, 1911, under the leadership of W. W. Charters who had been appointed a member of the Colleges' Board of Curators the previous Spring, a "Stephens College Day" was announced. Charters' plan entailed publicizing the financial crisis to all Baptist ministers, Sunday school superintendents and other church officers in the state in an effort to gain their support. "Stephens College Day" would be a special day in which Baptist Church officials would approach their individual congregations for contributions to Stephens. Charters also developed a public relations campaign, suggesting that editorials outlining "Stephens College Day" appear in two denominational papers of the state which were the "Central Baptist" and "The Word and Way." The results of Charters' fund raising activities were very successful for Stephens College. By April 4, 1912, $33,213.40 had been


31 Crighton, Stephens. This work traces the history of Stephens College and makes several important references to the contributions of W.W. Charters.
pledged to the College and by January 8, 1914, $75,000 in gifts had been realized in cash and pledges. Because of his efforts, Charters earned a lasting reputation at Stephens College.

During this period of economic difficulty, Stephens College experienced several administrative changes. The most significant was the resignation of President Quisenberry and the appointment of James M. Wood. Charters, chairman of the Board of Curators, in April of 1912, was instrumental in reshaping the job description of the Presidents' office to meet with Wood's conditions for acceptance. In describing President Wood's tenure, Crighton points out that:

Although President Wood from his first association with Stephens had in mind establishing a novel educational program for women, he was forced to make his planned changes slowly. Pressing financial and administrative problems had to be taken care of before the curriculum could be comprehensively revised. It was not until eight years had passed that President Wood felt that he had achieved a stable economic foundation at Stephens. And it was not until that period that Wood felt he had established a base of loyalty among the administration and the faculty. Charters had worked closely with Wood in financial matters. When Wood began to implement his curricular changes, he naturally turned again to Charters.

The quality of professional life and reputation while at the University of Missouri increased steadily for Charters. As a professor of the Theory of Teaching and Dean of the Faculty of Education, Charters still carried a number of teaching

32 Ibid., p. 167. Chapter 5 gives an excellent detail accounting of Stephens College's becoming financially secure.

33 Ibid, p. 169.

34 Ibid, p. 167
responsibilities as illustrated by in his 1915-1916 assignments. During that academic year, he taught: Theory of Teaching, Teaching of Education, Statistical Studies in the Theory of Teaching, Seminar in Theory of Teaching, and Research in the Theory of Teaching. Ankrum reports that Charters had the distinction of offering the first course in educational statistics at the University of Missouri in 1914. Charters' teaching and administration continually stressed the theme of his scholarship and publications. The curriculum was to be a functional representation of experienced life and not an abstract manifestation of the glories of past civilizations. He also emphasized that education, particularly teacher education, could be founded on the maxims of science and its method. Charters was also an active member of the National Education Association and served on the Board of Directors of the National Society for the Study of Education. As a member of both societies, he presented numerous scholarly papers which argued the cause for a functional curriculum at the national level.

Family Life at Columbia

Although a great deal of time and energy was devoted to advancing his professional career, Charters appreciated the importance of family life. On April 30, 1909, Margaret Allen was born into the Charters' household. Two years

35 "Alumni Morgue," Series 26-4-1, University of Illinois Archives.

36 W. E. Ankrum, "The Implementation of Educational Philosophy." p. 40. Ankrum offers an excellent bibliography of Charters' works. However, a complete bibliography should also include the following unreported articles and publications: "Finding the Right Teacher," "Rural School Consolidation in Missouri," "School Improvement Agencies: Suggestions for Superintendents and Principals," "The Country School Unit", "Spelling Hospital in the High School."
later Jessie Arleen was born on July 29, 1911, and then Jean Ferguson was born on December 31, 1914. According to Margaret's early recollection, the children were raised in a family environment supportive of nineteenth century social and economic values which were shared by the parents. She recalled those values were expressed in her father by his sincere desire to become rich - "to make a million and retire by age forty." 37 Early attempts at realizing these goals were seen during graduate study at Chicago when Charters invested money in gold mines. Unfortunately, the venture was short lived and the initial investment was lost. With the responsibilities of family, investments and private ventures were more conservatively made and were limited to consulting, textbook writing and the buying of oriental rugs. These rugs graced the Columbia home and Margaret recalled that "considerable money was spent for home furnishings, with the ideas that high quality lasted longer." 38 Margaret also recalled that she and her sisters were reared to be frugal. Each of them received a small allowance at an early age and were instructed to spend it carefully.

The state of the world also entered and influenced the Charters household at Columbia. In 1914 when Margaret was only five years old, she had memories of her parents' reaction to political events leading to a world at war. On the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, Margaret still remembers vividly a "sense of impending doom in her parents' voice as they discussed it at the supper table." 39 As

38 Lyon, "Information Concerning W.W.C." Margaret speaks of herself as having a very close relationship with her father. Of this relationship she said she often accompanied her father to Saturday morning teacher institutes in Missouri before she was six.
39 Ibid., p. 6
the war advanced, the children were advised to "eat all the food on their plates because of the starving Armenians"; although continued questioning did not make it clear how clean plates would help the Armenians. 40 The issue of prohibition was also a family topic which was usually discussed in humorous conversation given that the family was a "tea and milk drinking family." 41 In summing up the predominant value characteristic of her family at Columbia and through the years, Margaret has said:

The Charters family values were part of the American Puritan acculturation process of the before-1950's World. Because both parents' had come up the hard way and were successful, the values may have been inculcated more strongly than in less success-oriented homes. 42

It is also evident in Margaret's recollections that Christian ethical values somewhat influenced their lives. The Baptist Church membership was taken for granted and yet did not "have a deep spiritual impact." 43 A quick blessing was said before meals; children went to Sunday School but did not continue as adolescents; the Bible stories were read to pre-school children, but the Bible did not serve as a guide. The Charters family in Columbia appeared to be rather typical of other American families in the first two decades of the twentieth century. They were motivated to achieve financial success and independence by the seemingly limitless opportunity available in America. The family held to enlightened religious and political belief which lent stability and meaning to life's questions, and they were enamored and somewhat fearful of the developments in science and technology. To advance himself and family in this spirit of belief, Charters sought a larger school in which to fulfill his dream.

40 Ibid. 41 Ibid. 42 Ibid., p. 7 43 Ibid.
In the Summer of 1916 Charters began to informally consider leaving the University of Missouri and join the faculty at the University of Illinois at Urbana. Initial discussions with Charters at Illinois were between W.C. Bagley, Head of the Department of Education, and Dean K.C. Babcock, Dean of the College of Arts and Science. These discussions lead to Charters' visit to the Urbana campus on two occasions in the Fall of 1916 to meet with the Department. In a letter to Babcock, Bagley recommended Charters' appointment as professor of education with a proposed annual salary of $5,000. The President of the University, Edmund J. James, had been made aware of the Department's interest in Charters in August, 1916. In a letter to President James, Dean Babcock indicated that Charters was to replace Professor Lotus D. Coffman who had left to be Dean of the College of Education at the University of Minnesota. In rather glowing terms, Babcock recommended Charters' appointment by pointing out that:

The field of Dr. Charters' is somewhat different from Dr. Coffman's, but it is one of vital importance to the development of upper reaches in our work in education. Dr. Charters is a man of sound training in College, normal school and University... My personal impression is unusually favorable. He is a large, impressive, deliberate, clear speaking man. He seems to have found himself and that on a high level. Men who know commend in high terms his quality of leadership as shown in Missouri, and the equally important quality of working cordially as a member of a team.

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44 Babcock to James, 29 November 1916, James Correspondence File.
45 Bagley to Babcock, 24 November 1916, James Correspondence File.
46 Stevenson to James, 25 August 1916, James Correspondence File. This correspondence lists all of Charters writings to date and a report taken from J.E. Roscoe's Dictionary of Educationists.
47 Babcock to James, Urbana, 29 November 1916, James Correspondence File. Lotus Delta Coffman joined Illinois in the Fall of 1911 and was responsible
Babcock recommended also that Charters receive a salary of $4,500 for the academic year with $500 additional for teaching during the Summer session. The faculty at Missouri were solicited also as to Charters' qualifications. Dr. J. D. Elliff, a professor at Missouri and high school inspector under Charters, was questioned by Professor Horace Adelbert Hollister of Illinois. Hollister reported to Babcock that Elliff "speaks of him (Charters) in a very favorable way. Among other things he says of him that he is a man entirely devoid of any spirit of jealousy. He prefers above all things to teach and write. He is a clear thinker and a good lecturer, and he knows how to cooperate, to do real teamwork." 48

A letter of a slightly different tenor was sent to Dean Babcock by David Kinley regarding Charters. Kinley in 1916 was Professor of Economics, Dean of the Graduate School and an administrative Vice President at Illinois. In his letter he simply states, given the information sent to him on Charters, that he could not make up his mind on recommending the appointment. He returned the material to Babcock and said: "... sorry that the way does not seem clear to me in this case." 49 Babcock, acting on Kinley's response, then sent him all Charters' published works held in the University library. After reviewing these works Kinley addressed another letter to Babcock with the following reaction:

I have not much patience with this kind of literature. Most of the writers on education seem to think that by borrowing some terminology of the older sciences, and using it with voguefulness, and by taking some common words and giving them a technical or semi-technical significance that few understand, they have established a science. From the scientific point of view these books, in my opinion, are vitiated by this fault. This seems to me sad stuff to be called scientific: "The function of subject matter.

48 Hollister to Babcock, 1 December 1916, James Correspondence File.
49 Kinley to Babcock, 6 December 1916, James Correspondence File.
Subject matter originates when some need occurs. It is a way of acting... its function then is to solve problems." And so on. However, I am of the opinion that these books rank high in the literature of their kind.

In spite of his criticism and coolness, Kinley finally but cautiously recommended the appointment based on the fact that "he (Charters) seems to have attained a high rank among professors of education." Kinley further requested that Babcock inquire into Charters' administrative reputation from the faculty at Missouri. Although Kinley's recommendation was half-hearted at best, Charters' appointment advanced to President James.

The Department of Education's enthusiasm to secure Charters meant a premature salary offer was made by Dean Babcock and Professor Bagley in preliminary negotiation. The salary offer of $5,000, when presented to President James, was unacceptable. James was prepared to offer Charters an annual salary of $4,000 with a $500 stipend for summer school work. News of the President's action placed Charters in a quandary as to his move to Illinois. Salary negotiations with the President occupied five months before Charters reached a decision. A strategy Charters used was to accept the appointment at $4,500 but then to request further that salary increments be carefully and concretely spelled out. President James, who did not support Charters' requests, replied:

You know something about the University of Illinois. It is a state University and subject to all the difficulties that such institutions are subject to. We make no special arrangements with individual professors which are not definitely named in the terms in appointment.

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50 Kinley to Babcock, 8 January 1917, James Correspondence File.

51 Ibid.

52 James to Charters, 22 February 1917, James Correspondence File.
James pointed out to Charters the perils of working in a state university and, without referring to the World War, implied that difficult times were at hand. In a letter to Charters he stated: "At the same time, as I suggested above, any man who goes into state university work in this country at the present time takes his life in his hands, so to speak." After considering that letter, for two weeks, Charters accepted the salary offers with some further comment:

Since the receipt of your letter I have been arguing the matter of salary in my mind and have made out a very good case in favor of the larger salary. But upon final consideration I have decided that you have done the best you can in your opinion with all the facts and conditions before you and in accordance with this decision I have decided to accept your offer and throw in my fortunes with those of your institution and rest contented in the expectation that the salary will take care of itself in the future.

Seeming uncomfortable with Charters' last words, James, in a letter with copies to Kinley and Babcock, replied:

I wish to call attention to the fact that it is not our habit at the University of Illinois to hold out any inducements to men to come here growing out of possible higher salaries in the future. Of course, we are always hoping that circumstances will enable us to make our salaries what academic salaries ought to be. But our experience has been, alas! too sad, to make us confident that we can always do what we should like to do.

What I am authorized to offer you, therefore, is a professorship with a salary of $4,000 per annum and there is no promise expressed or implied as to when or whether this salary will be increased...

I do not know what conversation you may have had with Professor Bagley or Dr. Babcock, but I am the only person authorized to say anything on this particular point and I have always declined to say anything.

In responding to James, Charters asked that his appointment be presented formally to the Board of Trustees:

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53 Ibid., p. 3.
54 Charters to James, 5 March 1917, James Correspondence File.
55 James to Charters, 15 March 1917, James Correspondence File.
I note your statement concerning the future and I am entirely in accord with the frankness of its tenor. Neither Mr. Bagley nor Mr. Babcock made any promises of any sort and I have accepted the position because it seemed to me that it offered better advantages than my present one. 26

Charters' disclaimer of previous promises is interesting when reviewing his earlier communications with Babcock in which he inquired how quickly his salary at $4,500 would increase over the years. He wrote:

I should like you to define "Very Quickly," in terms of years and amounts. I understand, of course, that it might not be possible to put this into a contract and an understanding between us would be sufficient for my purposes.

I am asking for this now because I am so constituted that I can feel much surer of myself and reach a much safer conclusion if I have all the data before me at the start. If I came to Illinois, I should want to have conditions so stipulated before hand that I would not need to have to think at all about increases in salary. 27

Babcock answered Charters by night letter and stated:

In case you are appointed here at four thousand or forty five hundred we would hope and expect that your teaching, scholarly activity and leadership would warrant advance within five years to five thousand the maximum of professors not head of department. 28

Charters realized arrangements for the future had been attempted with Babcock, and in further response to the issue raised by President James wrote Dean Babcock on the same day. The letter was begun by stating the expectation of a "very cordial" relationship at Illinois and the importance of the "frankness at the beginning often saves heartburnings along the way." Charters then went on to address the salary

56 Charters to James, 20 March 1917, James Correspondence File.
57 Charters to Babcock, 31 October 1916, James Correspondence File.
58 Babcock to Charters, 1 November 1916, James Correspondence File.
issue in terms similar to President James: "As I understand the situation, an increase in salary will come when the time arrives..."\(^{59}\) Then in an effort to balance the salary issue, Charters said:

However, while one talks a good deal about salary on accepting a position, it is not, in my case, a thing which keeps me awake of nights. What I want is a chance to do the things I like to do and to have enough friends around me to make me happy. Both of these things I expect to find in Illinois.\(^{60}\)

Through this difficult period of discussion and holding out, Charters at times felt he would not go to Illinois.\(^{61}\) However, bearing up with the struggle, he did accept and his appointment was finally approved by the Board of Trustees at $4,000 per annum with work commencing on September 1, 1917 and no promise attached!

Charters' tenure at Illinois was not limited to only faculty responsibilities and the teaching and writing which he enjoyed. Two months after the approval of Charters' appointment, Professor Bagley submitted his resignation. At that time, several other faculty members had left the Department for other positions. Charters was now the only immediate candidate to head the Department. Thus, Charters on arriving at Illinois found himself at the helm of the Department of Education at a significant and critical time. Most critical, in that the Department was in the process of becoming a College of Education, and Charters was to play an important role in moving that process along. He had left administration at Missouri only to return to it at Illinois. While the process of becoming a College was ever present, other immediate administrative concerns also fell on Charters.

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\(^{59}\) Charters to Babcock, 20 March 1917, Babcock Correspondence File.

\(^{60}\) Ibid.

\(^{61}\) Charters to Babcock, 20 March 1917, Babcock Correspondence File.
Another pressing concern of the University of Illinois was its eligibility for federal funds under the 1917 Smith-Hughes Act for vocational education. This federal legislation provided matching funds to the University for vocational education in home economics, agriculture, the trades and industries. The responsibility for developing a teacher training program to accommodate vocational education was of major importance to Charters. As pointed by Johnson and Johanningmeier, "...it fell to Charters to inaugurate at Illinois what was becoming a new era in American education ... the organization of teacher training program and coordinate these efforts with the State Board of Vocational Education ..." 62

In organizing the teacher training program, Charters sought first to build a staff that would focus on industrial education. 63 He turned then to teacher education in agriculture and the manual arts. While the central administration of the University supported Charters' work, he had to lay the initial groundwork for implementing the Smith-Hughes programs and other educational programs in which the University was involved. In a hand written letter to President James, Charters initiated that the "War" had given education the proper perspective in society and the University should accept a leadership role in extending democracy through education. Charters wrote:

62 Henry C. Johnson, Jr. and Erwin V. Johanningmeier, Teachers for the Prairie, The University of Illinois and the Schools, 1868-1945 (Chicago: University of Illinois Press, 1972), p. 214. This work represents an excellent historical treatment of the University of Illinois from the period 1868 to 1945. The authors' discussion of the University during the period of 1916 to 1920 is particularly helpful in understanding the institution Charters entered and some of the persons with whom he associated. Of particular interest are the personages of James and Kinley. In speaking of Charters, the authors refer to his tenure with the department and later College as one of a "caretaker" administration.

63 See correspondence in President Edmund J. James, "General Correspondence 1904-1919, Series 2-5-3, Box 147.
...the University of Illinois would be very wise to establish and announce as the most significant "war activity" an agency through which it would stand prepared to give (unable to read word) assistance in the reorganization development of our public schools system upon which the nation is realizing the structure of democracy must rest. 

Along with the desire to have the University in the forefront of needed educational reform and experimentation, Charters also impressed on President James the importance of the University having a comprehensive plan of vocational education. Without such a plan, vocational education could be fragmented around the state and the University would be abandoning an important leadership role -- to say nothing of losing large federal vocational funding. Charters' recommendations to the President had an impact on the following three major areas of activity: a statewide vocational educational program, the expansion of an educational research bureau at Illinois, and the establishment of the College of Education with an experimental high school.

As stated, Charters' first interest under the Smith-Hughes Act was the training of industrial teachers. In a budget request for fiscal year 1918-1919, Charters proposed a plan to train these teachers and the plan was presented to the Board of Trustees with President James's approval. In this proposal, Charters recommended establishing instructional centers in Chicago and Urbana for the training of industrial teachers at a total cost of $11,200.00. An instructor of professorial rank was to be employed as director with a salary of $3500 a year. It was hoped that the Board of Education of the City of Chicago would cooperate in this venture by providing classrooms. The role of the director was envisioned initially as one who would find part-time instructors at $5.00 a night to train...
teachers of "shop subjects, salesmanship in department stores for women and some
other course to be selected." The classes were to be held in the evenings. After
two semesters, the director would return to Urbana and another director would be
found for Chicago to continue the coordination of instruction. The director at
Urbana would train teachers "of related technical subjects." Charters reported to President James that the Chicago Center for the
Training of Industrial Teachers was well under way by November, 1918, and a
successful venture. Support from the Chicago School Board had been obtained
and evening classes were conducted at Lane Technical High School three nights
each week. The course of technical study was forty weeks, spread over a period of
two years of twenty weeks each. At the end of that period, successful completion
was awarded by granting a certificate which entitled the bearer to teach in the
schools of the City of Chicago and elsewhere. Of the first class, Charters reported
that total membership of "fifty-five machinists were formed and two instructors in
technical high schools were engaged to train these machinists to become teachers.
I visited the classes a few evenings since and was very much pleased with the type
of instruction and the quality of the students." Professor Griffith, a friend of
Charters from the University of Missouri, had accepted the Chicago Directorship

66 W.W. Charters, "Proposed Plan for the Training of Industrial Teachers
Under the Smith-Hughes Act." General Correspondence 1904-1919, Series 2-5-3,
Box 147, University of Illinois archives, Urbana.

67 Ibid.

68 Charters to James, 22 November 1918, James Correspondence.

69 Ibid.
on a part-time consulting basis because his president would not release him from his Missouri contract. Charters reported also that the trade unions were supporting the training efforts. In summary form, Charters addressed the Chicago Center venture by saying to President James:

I am delighted to be able to report such a propitious beginning for this service which the University is rendering to the City of Chicago and to the industries of the State.

With the early success of the Chicago Center, Charters wished to open similar centers in Rockford, Peoria and Moline. However, these centers would not be considered concretely until after the first class had graduated from Chicago. The success of the Chicago Center was important to Charters, who believed that it represented the University exerting educational leadership and assisting with needed educational reforms. Charters also hoped that educational research, experimentation and reforms could be conducted in an organized fashion on the Urbana campus. To accomplish this end, he sought continued support for the Bureau of Educational Research.

Charters was interested in the prospect of establishing an effective Research Bureau to explore questions which were being raised about education. In June, 1918, a budget of $9,000 was approved for this effort out of a total department budget of $81,295. This budget did not include the salary of Professor Buckingham, who was to begin as the Bureau's director on July 8, 1918. The work of the Bureau was left largely in the hands of Buckingham, who, five months after

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70 Charters to James 26 September 1918 and James to Charters 27 September 1918, James Correspondence File. James Correspondence reflected difficulty with Griffith's appointment.

71 Charters to James, 22 November 1918, James Correspondence File.
his appointment, sent an impassioned eleven pages single spaced letter to Charters outlining that "the situation of the Bureau as I write is embarrassing" and requesting more money to support the Bureau's efforts. Charters' response to Buckingham was to forward his request to President James with a short note asking him to consider the matter. The shortness of Charters' note to James may suggest a strained relationship between Charters and Buckingham. The Bureau under Charters' indirect leadership was publicized to educators throughout the state. The fact of the Bureau's existence and research potential was enthusiastically supported by educators but no concrete long range research directions were established during Charters' tenure at Illinois.

Charters continued to refine his thought and research about the functional nature of the curriculum while at Illinois. Though his administrative responsibilities were increasing, he still found time to address the perplexing problem of structuring the school curriculum so that it was functionally and directly related to real life. The refinement of his thought led Charters to conclude that the curriculum could be made functional only after the end product was examined. To build a functional curriculum, the particular job or task for which the curriculum was supposed to be preparing the student first had to be examined. Charters' research at Illinois developed around a theory of job analysis. His theory called for

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72 Buckingham to Charters, 16 December 1918, James Correspondence File. This correspondence is interesting in that Buckingham details the results of an announcement about the Bureau which was sent to school administrators and superintendents around the state. The letter is useful in helping understand concerns about education in the early twentieth century. Buckingham also conducted an interesting item analysis of topical areas brought up by the respondents on page 5 of his letter. From this letter one sees the growing popularity of such bureaus.

the curriculum designer to look first at a particular job with its task and skill requirements and then to use that information to develop a curriculum plan. The curriculum would then be structured to match the job requirements. While this development was significant to Charters' scholarship, his administrative responsibilities at Illinois demanded much of his time.

Evidence in July, 1918, of Charters' involvement with the transition of the Department of Education into the College of Education is seen in his being considered for the Deanship of the new College. Up to that time, Charters had served as Director of the Department and initial organizer of the new College. In a letter to President James, Charters spoke of responsibility of the first Dean and said:

I am quite convinced that the Dean should spend a good deal of time visiting the important institutions and cities of the state and in visiting institutions outside of the state, partly for the purpose of selecting a man, and partly to gain administrative information.

By August 8, 1918, James asked Charters to accept the Deanship of the new College for a one year period. Charters accepted the appointment, and the Board of Trustees approved an annual salary of $5,000.

Dean Charters' first responsibilities were not ones of travel but rather ones of preparing an education building for the College and the new Department of Supervision and High School Instruction. Classrooms had to be furnished and science laboratories equipped. A budget recommendation of $170,000.00 was submitted by Charters for faculty salaries and equipment needs for the education building. But this recommendation was not approved and a sum of $150,000.00 was

74 Charters to James, 13 July 1918, James Correspondence File.
earmarked. The lack of full support for the recommendation raised the possibility of a delay in opening both the College and High School. Charters, discouraged by the delay, wrote to President James and said:

I think it would be a serious mistake to delay the opening of the College of Education until the next biennium. The High School building is ready to open, the College has been established, interest in education has been stimulated by the war and this is the time to advance.

But Charters' wish did not materialize, and the new College with University High School did not open until September, 1920. Both Charters and James were unable to see first hand the fruits of their efforts. James' health was failing, and in 1919 he resigned his presidency and died shortly thereafter. David Kinley was made acting President from 1919 to 1920 and then assumed the presidency in 1920 for a ten year period. During this same time, Charters accepted a position at Carnegie Institute in Pittsburgh and tendered his resignation to Acting President Kinley effective September 1, 1919. Prior to leaving, Charters recommended that Charles Ernest Chadsey of the University of Chicago be approached by the University as his replacement. Chadsey had been offered similar positions at Michigan and Wisconsin but had turned them down. However, he did accept the Deanship at Illinois at a salary of $6,000 annually when it was offered by Kinley.

The reason for Charters' short stay at the University of Illinois is said to have been that the position at Carnegie Institute of Technology was a good one and the salary was higher. Although the move was described as a natural one "to the next level,"

Illinois had seemed to offer a variety of opportunities whether in administration, research, or teaching. Despite his successful contributions in

75 Charters to James, 4 February 1919, James Correspondence File.
organizing the new College, he did not aspire to be the permanent Dean but rather directed the search to Chadsey. His trusted friend President James had died and that a lesser supporter, Kinley, was now Acting President may have influenced Charters' decision. Educational research at Illinois, which had been an interest, was headed by Buckingham, and Charters would have had a second place in the Bureau. That may have been unacceptable to Charters. Because of his administrative duties at Illinois, Charters did not have adequate time for these significant enterprises. Of his resignation, Charters, without much self revelation, said:

...it is with the deepest regret that I do this because the connections I have had here have been so entirely congenial. If it were not for the fact that I feel that I have an unusual opportunity to do a piece of work in which I am deeply interested I should not be tempted to leave.

Some of those "Connections" Charters referred to were relationships with men such as Boyd Bode, Walter Bingham and David Craig. Bingham was now of immediate importance since he had left Illinois and was now Dean at Carnegie Institute of Technology. Indeed, he was instrumental in bringing Charters to the Institute. His friend Bode was left at Illinois but their paths crossed again in later years. The

77 Charters to James, 29 May 1919, James Correspondence File.
78 Johnson and Johanningmeier point out that Kinley was not supportive of education developing into an academic discipline in its own right. They describe Kinley's attitude towards education as "a curious blend of reluctant acceptance and obvious disaffection." If Charters' leaving Illinois was in part because of Kinley, his move was a wise move given the difficulties Kinley caused the Bureau of Educational Research and Buckingham. Buckingham left the University shortly after Charters. Buckingham resigned after Charters and later accepted the Directorship of the Bureau of Educational Research at Ohio State University. Charters' path was destined to cross again with Buckingham's.
79 Charters to Kinley, 22 July 1919, James Correspondence File.
decision made to leave, Charters then forty-four years old, gathered his family from the "Bagley House"\(^8\) at Urbana and set out to explore a new career opportunity in the industrialized East.

\(^8\)Ibid. The Charters family had rented this large home from the departing Department Director when it was learned he was leaving Illinois.
CHAPTER II

A BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF THE LIFE OF WERRETT WALLACE CHARTERS -
1919 to 1952

Introduction

This chapter will continue to trace the life of W. W. Charters. Specifically, it will look at Charters' career development as he grew in reputation in professional circles. The Chapter will also examine, on a parallel basis, Charters' family and his life with them. Concluding this chapter will be a treatment of Charters' attempts at retirement and finally the circumstance of his death.

Carnegie Institute of Technology

Charters' move to Pennsylvania was preceded by the necessary negotiating by both parties. Charters' professional reputation was well established which caused the Carnegie Institute of Technology to seek to win him to its ranks upon hearing that he intended to leave Illinois. Professor Walter Van Dyke Bingham, the primary negotiator for Carnegie, described Charters as:

An excellent administrator, well liked by everyone, but does not enjoy administration work and prefers research and writing; has positively resigned the Deanship at Illinois in order to be free from administration responsibilities. Large build, suave manner and speech, genial, sensible and shrewd. Charters would be an admirable man for educational research, provided he has a keen interest, as I suspect he has, in such problems of teaching good curriculum as we have to face here.1

1Bingham to unknown, 28 May 1919, Bingham Papers, Carnegie Mellon University. It is interesting to note the reference made to the fact that Charters did not like administrative work. This was not evident in correspondence between Kinley and Charters leading to his resignation at Illinois. Rather Charters emphasized a positive reason for his leaving which was greater opportunity to "do some work which had always interested him."
Dean Bingham's positive view of Charters resulted in a letter inviting him to join the Carnegie Institute. In that communique, Bingham, who was then Director of a pioneering Division of Applied Psychology, offered Charters a position within the division in the Research Bureau for Retail Training at an annual salary of $8,000. This Retail Bureau was one of four important components of the larger Division of Applied Psychology which Bingham had founded in 1915. The responsibilities spelled out by Bingham, although markedly different from responsibilities at Illinois, were acceptable to Charters. These areas included primary involvement in educational research directed toward retail training programs and insurance salesmanship. Although these were administrative responsibilities, they would be secondary to well financed research opportunities. Charters' starting date was to be October 1, 1919.

In response to Bingham's letter, Charters, in a fashion parallel to the difficult negotiating in which he was involved before going to Illinois, listed his requirements for accepting the position at Carnegie. First, he wanted to begin on September 1st rather than October 1st. The loss of one month's salary was unacceptable and would be a hardship. Charters also requested permanent tenure saying: "I am not prepared to leave a safe harbor provided by those institutions which grant permanent tenure of positions. . . .I expect no trouble but I want to be certain of my future." Along with tenure he asked that he be made a full professor of education and the title be coupled with the directorship of the Retail

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2 Bingham to Charters, 28 June 1919, Bingham Papers.
3 Charters to Bingham, 2 July 1919, Bingham Papers.
4 Ibid. p.2.
Finally, in matters of salary he felt $8,000 which was offered would have the same buying power in Pittsburgh as $5,000 had at Illinois. He thus requested $10,000 for salary requirements. Charters ended his letter by saying he disliked writing such letters but he "was trying to get things as nearly right as possible at the beginning". After reflecting on his letter for five days Charters sent a telegram to Bingham accepting the directorship at a salary of $8,000, provided all other requisites were met. Bingham in turn wired Charters the next day informing him that all had been approved and that he was pleased Charters had accepted Carnegie's invitation. Thus, all was set in motion for a rather hurried family departure from Illinois and a significantly different career pathway, bridging education and the educational needs of the business community.

With administrative responsibilities secondary in Charters' life at Carnegie, he returned happily to his real love which was educational research. His research continued to explore problems of the pragmatic aspects of modern teaching and curriculum development which reflected a functional application to real life. His

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5 Ibid. Charters expressed in this letter some concern about the administrative role he was to play at Carnegie. He indicated that: "My interest in the directorship is not due to administrative reasons but is due to the fact that I shall be able to work on the curriculum and methods of teaching. It appears to me that the administrative duties of director, especially with the provision that Miss Norris might take care of the details, will be rather nominal."

6 Ibid. p.3.

7 Ibid. p.4.

8 Charters to Bingham, 7 July 1919, Bingham Papers.

9 Bingham to Charters, 8 July 1919, Bingham Papers.

10 Lyon, "Information Concerning W.W.C.,” September, 1979. It was reported that Charters had a particular fondness for associating with successful business men.
research themes were held constant at Carnegie and were directed toward the traditional school environments and expanded to professional adult education.

The Division's broadest goal under Bingham was to "direct scientific psychology in the service of modern business and industry."\(^1\) Shortly after the beginning of the Division, Bingham was approached by Edward A. Woods, a successful insurance executive, and asked to study the problem of salesmanship. Woods felt that by examining the talents, aptitudes, traits, personal histories and duties of successful sales personal, a theoretical model could be developed and used in training future sales persons. This "functional" approach in developing a training program for insurance sales personnel also caught the interest of several others in the business community who promised financial support. This support took the form of a $500 annual sustaining fee to be continued for five years from Woods; H. J. Heinz, a manufacturer of food products; Norval A. Hawkins of Detroit, manager of sales for the Ford Motor Company; and other representatives from national companies such as Burroughs Adding Machine, Carnegie Steel, Armstrong Cork, American Miltigraph, Packard Automobile and several life insurance companies. With this support, various studies were conducted to establish a criteria of relative sales success which led to the development of various measuring "aids."\(^2\) These research activities of the Division were slowed by the first World War but still

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\(^1\) W.V. Bingham, "Psychology Applied," *Scientific Monthly* (February, 1923) pp. 141-159. This article describes in detail the historical beginnings of the Division of Applied Psychology at Carnegie Institute from 1915 through 1923.

\(^2\) Ibid. p.150. Bingham describes these aids to have been "a personal history blank (model application); a compact model letter of reference to former employers; a set of aids in personal interview skills, designed to focus the interviewers' attention on essential points and to quantify his judgments on those points; and a battery of mental tests with full instructions for giving and scoring."
moved forward so much that by 1923 it boasted a budget of $237,000.\textsuperscript{13} The Division also grew to include seven departments in its basic structure and organization.\textsuperscript{14}

Charters assumed the Directorship of the Research Bureau for Retail Training in 1919 only one year after its conception. The Bureau's beginnings were through the efforts of Edgar J. Kaufmann of Pittsburgh and J.B. Miner of the University of Minnesota. Kaufmann was an executive of the largest department store in Pittsburgh. He was interested in the problems of personnel and training of retail sales persons. Miner establish the Retail Bureau to address these problems and develop programs to improve retail salesmanship. Kaufmann's enthusiasm for this project led him to secure financial support from six other major Pittsburgh stores. That support provided $32,000 annually for a five year period. Miner set in motion, through the first critical year, the new Bureau's investigation of problems of employment, supervision and training in the retail fields. Charters took up this work started by Miner and continued it on a successful course while at Carnegie.

Bingham spoke of Charters and the Bureau in the following way:

Charters came from Illinois to take charge of the bureau, which, if its story were to be told with full account of its achievements would demand a volume in itself. It has applied the methods of science to the study of store personnel problems of employment, training and supervision ... This bureau has combined psychological insight, research methods and practical

\textsuperscript{13} Ibid. p. 152

\textsuperscript{14} Ibid. p. 156. It was reported that by 1923 the Division was divided into units which represented special research concerns. These areas were: the department of psychology, the department of personnel administration, the department of vocational education, the department of educational research, the bureau of personal research, the research bureau for retail training and the school of life insurance salesmanship.
business judgments to the end that the public might have an increasingly intelligent and courteous department store service. Its publications, extensively distributed, are in a small but tangible way modifying for the betterment of retail sales service of the nation.

The most immediate work of the Bureau under Charters' leadership was to develop training manuals and merchandise manuals after careful study of the retail sales setting. In these sales settings, criteria were also established for good, effective salesmanship qualities. Measuring instruments were developed and took the form of employment tests and specific procedures for correcting defects of sales personality and of supervision. The Bureau also developed retail salesmanship courses for high school use. Charters' research at the Bureau were based on the underlining hypothesis that teaching and training must have a clear functional application. He believed that the functional application could be determined only after careful analysis of the work or job activity. In an "Annual Report" to Bingham, Charters described the process of activity analysis as the primary work of the Bureau and said of it:

"This technique consists in first determining the function of contemplated improvements, analyzing it to obtain the common elements, and then building improvements so as to fulfill its function. The specific technique necessary to carry out this general plan was of three types. To improve the language of salespeople the bureau collected errors, classified them, selected the most serious and prepared leaflets to correct the specific errors."

15 W.B. Bingham, "Psychology Applied".

16 Charters to Bingham, 7 February 1921, Walter Van Dyke Bingham Papers. The research of the Bureau is detailed further in this correspondence as well as future planned research. For other activities of the Bureau, see: "Annual Report of the Division of Applied Psychology," Carnegie Institute of Technology, 1921 and "Annual Report", Division of Cooperative Research, Carnegie Institute of Technology, June 1922.
With the stimulation of these research activities, Charters began to increase his scholarly writing. Of greatest significance was a work which discussed his conclusions derived from the functional approach. This book, entitled, *How to Sell at Retail*, which appeared in 1922 was Charters' first major study since *Common Branches* in 1913. He also wrote numerous articles beginning in 1920 on retail training from a functional perspective. From June, 1922, to June, 1923, Charters published 150 articles on "Increasing Production in Retailing" which appeared in *Women's Wear*.\(^17\) Charters' publications, research, and success at the Retail Bureau enhanced his professional reputation. The net effect was that Charters was becoming increasingly popular and was called on to consult both through the Bureau and in private ventures. Educational research was fast becoming a lucrative business enterprise and Charters was proving himself to be a good businessman. Charters' professional interests were expanded greatly while living in Pittsburgh. And that relocation was described correctly as one which "moved W.W.C.'s interest into different channels."\(^18\)

**Stephens College Revisited**

A venture which proved to be important to Charters from a professional point of view as well as a successful personal endeavor was his long association with Stephens College. President James Wood, a long time friend of Charters, spent the first eight years of his presidency building a financial base for the institution. He also reorganized the administrative structure and gained broad

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\(^{17}\) "Annual Report", Division of Cooperative Research, Carnegie Institute of Technology, June 1923.

Werrett Wallace Charters, Sr.

C. 1925. Photo courtesy of Charters Family.
support from the College's faculty. With financial stability and a supportive constituency, Wood was ready to lay open the traditional curriculum to a careful examination by modern educators. Wood hoped to revolutionize Stephens' curriculum by developing a truly practical educational experience for women. This curriculum would be developed after an analysis of the problems and goals of citizenship and life facing young women. To facilitate this curricular plan, Wood invited Charters in 1920 to accept an appointment as Director of Research for Stephens College. This position was offered on a part time consultant basis at an annual salary of $10,000. A ten-year contractual commitment was also extended. Charters accepted the position. This large consultant fee evidenced the importance placed on curricular development at Stephens, Charters' national reputation and a friendship existent between the President and his new Director of Research. This relationship has been described:

Although the position of Charters was officially that of consultant to the President, his actual influence was all-pervasive ... Although at Stephens his assigned responsibility was for the construction of a curriculum, he was Wood's closest adviser on all phases of the operation of the College; he drafted guidelines for many experimental programs, evaluated faculty and administrative performance and performed other tasks delegated by President Wood. He and Wood worked together on the basis of complete equality rather than in a superior-subordinate relationship.

19 Missouri Alumnus, Vol. 8 #5, February 1920, p. 108. Charters noted in the "Annual Report," Division of Cooperative Research, June, 1923, that $5,000 was being continued to support the Stephens College reorganization. It is unclear if this is in addition to the $10,000 reported in the Missour Alumnus or if Charters gave one half the consulting fee to the Bureau. In a news report which appeared in the "McMaster Monthly" October, 1923, it was reported that "a reliable report states that he (Charters) accepts the position on a ten year contract at a salary of $10,000 a year."

Charters' first accomplishment at Stephens as Director of Research was to establish a bureau of educational research,\textsuperscript{21} which according to Charters was "the first institute of higher education to establish a research service to improve its own procedures."\textsuperscript{22} To begin curricular revision the bureau set out to answer the question "What ideal personality traits should Stephens College attempt to inculcate in its student?" These traits, arrived at by the technique of consensus, amounted to ten.\textsuperscript{23} The bureau then undertook an analysis of the activities of women in life situations through the use of questionnaire and diaries. The resulting data served as the basis on which to develop a new curriculum for women.\textsuperscript{24} Charters' curricular venture at Stephens was a long one, lasting until 1952. His consulting style was to visit Stephens College once a year for one month from 1920 to 1944. During his visit he would review faculty research projects in a "distinctly non-directive"\textsuperscript{25}

\textsuperscript{21}Ibid. p. 261.

\textsuperscript{22}Ibid. In reference of other bureaus in which Charters was involved, Crighton indicates that he "set up an educational research office at the University of Illinois." A more accurate reporting would note that Charters, as acting Dean at Illinois, supported and expanded a bureau which had been in place before his arrival at Illinois. Crighton refers also to a "similar service" which was established at Carnegie Institute of Technology. At face value this statement could be misleading, seemingly giving Charters full credit for the bureau at Carnegie. A reference to the development of the Carnegie bureau would have to see Charters in the context of fellow workers, such as Bingham, Thurstone, Whipple and Miner.

\textsuperscript{23}Ibid. p 263. The trait-listings which were accepted by students and faculty as personality goals for women were: Courtesy, Forcefulness, Health, Honesty, Self-Discipline, Love of Scholarship, Appreciation of the Beautiful, Reverence Toward the Spiritual, Service and Cheerfulness.


\textsuperscript{25}Crighton, Stephens, p. 261
manner, meet with students and administration to discuss the curriculum and make recommendations. He was well thought of by the faculty and described as having energy which was inexhaustible. It was said that:

Each year he brought to the Fall meetings a touch of the Michigan lakes and woods where he spent his vacations. To his younger colleagues at Stephens he was the "Paul Bunyan" of the educational world; the whole realm of knowledge seemed to be his province.

Charters' influence at Stephens was profound. His impact was felt because of the clarity of his intellect and the likeableness of his personality. After three years of consulting work at Stephens, Charters delineated his theory of curriculum in his fourth major study entitled Curriculum Construction. This book, which appeared in 1923 and was read widely by educators, outlined a method for building a practical curriculum on the basis of a complete analysis of activities. Charters devoted the first 166 pages to a theoretical consideration of the curriculum and the remaining 177 pages to an application of his theory to primary curriculum studies, i.e. spelling, language and grammar, mathematics, history, geography, vocational courses and miscellaneous studies. In this work Charters built a case for a curriculum derived from an analysis of activities based on ideals. This evolution of Charters' theory will be examined in Chapter Three.

26 Ibid.
27 Lyon to Rosenstock, 26 February 1978. It is reported that Charters had an affinity for Paul Bunyan in so far as he collected stories and memorabilia of the folk hero. He donated his collection to the Paul Bunyan Society of Bemiji, Minnesota.
Other Carnegie Ventures

Along with retail training, Charters and the Carnegie Bureau were also involved in an analysis of the traits and duties of secretaries. This project was begun at Carnegie and sponsored by the National Junior Personnel Service. The results of the study, published under the title Analysis of Secretarial Duties and Traits, appeared in 1924. The task of identifying secretarial duties was determined by Charters and his staff by interviewing 125 secretaries. A frequency study was then performed to establish rank order importance of duties. Traits of successful and unsuccessful secretaries were also collected and analyzed. The end result of this study was data which had been organized to serve as the basis of a secretarial school curriculum. Charters recommended that "the raw material thus obtained should be organized into a tentative curriculum for try-out in certain secretarial classes in order to determine the best pedagogical arrangement. Such a study would probably cost about $10,000 and would involve the cooperation of a few secretarial schools." Initial data collection and analysis of secretarial duties was also kept "in house" in that Charters used his own secretary to gain insights into clerical duties and traits. She was said to have been somewhat amused and at times annoyed by Dr. Charters' requests. "He had her draw a diagram of the most efficient placement of work tools on her desk. Then he asked her to record the activities required to keep the desk top neat." General surveying resulted in the


collection of 871 duties—32—from "sharpening pencils" to "de-code cablegrams," and forty-seven traits—33—from "typing rapidly" to not coming to the job too "painted, rouged or perfumed and not wearing extreme silk stockings or high-heeled shoes—she should look like a wife or sister and not like a chorus girl." The end product was a substantial study and popular consensus as to what made a good secretary. The study was used widely in the training of secretaries.

Another study which commenced at the Carnegie bureau was Charters' examination of the pharmaceutical curriculum of Colleges of Pharmacy. The study was funded by the Commonwealth Fund and appeared in 1927 as *Basic Material for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum*. This large undertaking was carried out in a like manner to the secretarial study. A substantial number of pharmacists were surveyed as to their duties and the quality of traits. These data were then organized according to frequency and area of importance in professional practice as determined by leaders of the pharmacy profession. A detailed examination of the methodology used and impact of the Commonwealth Study on pharmaceutical education will be the consideration of Chapter Four.

Retail training, a secretarial survey, a pharmacy study and Stephens College curricular reconstruction, all represented major activities of Charters while at Carnegie Institute. But apart from these, Charters was also involved in numerous other management consulting jobs of lesser importance. He was co-author of a series of textbooks on language and assisted in the development of a high school curriculum in Los Angeles. His religious interests also brought him to undertake a study of programs for religious education. His love for teaching kept

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33 Ibid. p. 149.
his interests high in teacher education. In the Summer of 1921 Charters was invited to return to his alma mater, Ontario College of Education, to lecture during the Summer session. During that visit, he agreed to lecture on the psychology of various school subjects and offer an elementary course in educational statistics. The College's enthusiasm with the prospect of Charters' return is reflected in an excerpt from a campus publication. "For the first time in the history of the Pedagogy degree a noted educationist from the United States has been invited to teach in the Summer School. Dr. W.W. Charters ... has consented to give part of the course in Educational Psychology." Charters work was diverse and did broaden the interest base of the research bureau for retail training. This broadening of original philosophy of the bureau was questioned by the Carnegie's Board of Trustees when the Bureau presented itself for sustaining funds in 1923.

As was stated, the funding of the Bureau for Retail Training had been by a grant from several Pittsburgh department stores. This grant paid $32,000 annually for a five year period. In 1923 that grant expired and had to be renewed or other sources of funding would be necessary. Fortunately for the Bureau, the grant renewal was supported and of this financial support it was said, "that these business executives are well satisfied with the soundness of their investment in research is evidenced by their wish to renew the arrangement for a second five years." Unfortunately, for the Bureau, the expanded activities into educational research had confused the original mission, i.e., a Bureau for Retail Training, in the minds of some of the trustees of the Institute. Thus continuation of a retail training Bureau

34 "Annual Report", Division of Cooperative Research, June 1923.
35 Extract from "The Summer School in Education," 4 July, 1921.
in its state of evolution under Charters' leadership was questioned, even with the promise of funding from the Pittsburgh business community. As was pointed out:

"It is, however, the judgement of our trustees that a cooperative business and educational research undertaking of this type is more in keeping with the ideals and organization of a broad university, consisting in part of a group of graduate and professional schools, than is with the ideals and organization of Carnegie Institute of Technology."  

Charters, desiring to continue in the area of broad educational research similar to his work at Carnegie, began searching for another institution. By the Spring of 1923, Charters had negotiated a similar position at New York University. The family was preparing the move to New York when the University of Pittsburgh made him an offer which would allow him to transplant his Carnegie staff to that University. Charters was also asked surprisingly to lead the Graduate School as its Dean. Charters accepted and hurried events of that Spring were recorded thusly:

"In 1923 W.W.C. was offered a position at New York University ... The family gave up their Pittsburgh home (houses were generally rented, not bought, in those days) and packed to move to New York. In the late Summer, the University of Pittsburgh made a job offer that outweighed the New York University one, and the family simply moved furniture to another location of Pittsburgh."  

University of Pittsburgh

The choice to remain in Pittsburgh and affiliate with the University of Pittsburgh is interesting from two perspectives; first, Charters' re-entry into administration, after his negative Illinois experience and second, atypical of

37 Ibid.  38 Ibid.

39 Lyon, "Concerning W.W.C." September, 1979. While these events were reported as taking place in the "late summer," sources found in the Bingham papers indicated Charters knew of the move to Pittsburgh in June of 1923 if not earlier.
Charters' usual salary negotiating, he accepted the appointment at Pittsburgh in the range of $6,000 for a twelve month contract.\textsuperscript{40} An important difference was that the retail training staff at Carnegie which was comprised of seven persons would transfer with him. Also, the research activities would not be limited to the service effort toward retail training but would also include academic "researches into problems of higher education, both vocational and general."\textsuperscript{41} Also significant in the acceptance was the commitment of $15,000 annually awarded by various foundations to the Pittsburgh Bureau. Thus Charters' personal life can be seen as shifting slightly with this change. His professional accomplishments also advanced at an inexhaustable pace.

The new research Bureau for Retail Training with Dean Charters as its Director followed three aims: "pure research in building an intelligent attitude toward retail merchandising; the training of graduate students for research and department store administration; and co-operation with department stores through the Retail Institute, a series of evening courses offered to employees of department stores that are members of the bureau."\textsuperscript{42} Although there appears to be great similarity in comparing these aims to those of the Carnegie Bureau, the difference was in the degrees of freedom Charters was given at Pittsburgh for academic research opposed to Carnegie's limited scope of service research. At Pittsburgh the bureau was described as "an example of modern business turning to a

\textsuperscript{40} S.B. Linhart to Charters, 14 May 1924, Papers of the Secretary of the University, University of Pittsburgh. This appointment notice was for fiscal 1924/25 and represents the only record of Charters' salary history at Pittsburgh.

\textsuperscript{41} "Annual Report", June, 1923.

\textsuperscript{42} Agnes Lynch Starrett, Through One Hundred and Fifty Years: The University of Pittsburgh (Pittsburgh: University Press, 1937), p. 498.
University for educational help in the solving of merchandising problems." With this statement of mission, the University offered the breadth and depth to Charters' research that the Institute could not. The new research Bureau at Pittsburgh was also more stable; given the five years of experimental existence at Carnegie, it was considered a "permanent institution" at Pittsburgh. The major research efforts in Pharmacy and secretarial studies were also continued at Pittsburgh, along with many retail training endeavors and, of course, the work at Stephens. Charters' reputation continued to increase and he was called to lecture at Ontario for a second Summer term. In a lengthy article on Charters, a Canadian newspaper described him as a:

"doctor of sick businesses"...he began to psycho-analyze not only education but also business, and, as was inevitable, people. Now he is a consultant educationist who advises institutions just what changes are advisable in their methods of operation. ... He has repaired sick businesses and delved into salesmanship methods. He has applied practical business methods to education and done a bit of educating in so far as business is concerned ... Large firms send him executives in their employ to be analyzed. Noted business men consult him as they would a dentist and ask him to locate the cavities in their characters and tell them how to fill them.

During this period at Pittsburgh, Charters found great acceptance among academic colleagues as well as the business community. His job analysis of secretaries, pharmacy and other adult professions was continued. Retail and salesmanship educational projects were also many and growing. In reporting on those days,

43 Ibid.
44 Ibid.
45 It should be recalled that although a $2,000 salary cut was incurred, Stephens College's $10,000 consultant fee was substantial in 1924.
46 "W.W. Charters, He Repairs the Injured Intellect and is Doctor of Sick Businesses," The Toronto Star, 6 December 1924.
Margaret Charters Lyons recalled: "Those years were the hey days of W.W.C. job analysis projects." While Charters' professional stature grew so did his family. The impact of family responsibilities was to have a significant effect on further career direction.

Family Life in Pittsburgh

Life for the Charters' family while in Pittsburgh was comfortable. The family lived in a large rented house which was tastefully furnished and had the modern conveniences of the day. Charters had reached a salary level which allowed the family considerable economic freedom. Of the style of living, a family member recalled:

There was no family conversation about having a large income, and no show of wealth. Comfort was taken for granted; extravagance was not. Jessie Allan Charters set this tone for the family.

During this period a fourth child, Werrett Wallace Charters Jr., was born into these comfortable surroundings. He came to be called "Sandy" by family members. The other children at this time attended the public elementary school and grew in typical ways. Margaret Charters Lyon recalled her father as being a "family man" who enjoyed spending leisure time with the family. When the children were small he would lay on the floor and play gentle rough-house. During the school years, the family played work games after supper every night. In the summer months, Sundays meant picnics and car rides on warm evenings. Charters' paternal relationship continued with the children as they grew and became independent. This relationship was exemplified in a fact reported by his daughter:

47 Lyon, "Information Concerning W.W.C.", p. 3.

After the children were grown and away from home W.W.C. wrote weekly letters in quadruplicate, with the clearest copy going to the keeper of the family archives. These, he called 'twig letter' which were branches of the family tree.

When it was time for older children to attend secondary school, a private school was chosen for reasons of safety and protection. Jessie Allen Charters was uncomfortable with the high rate of pregnancies among girls in the public high school. In describing her mother's feeling about this issue, Margaret recalled: "J.A.C. was undoubtedly alarmed by the raggedly democratic student body in the Pittsburgh steel town." Jessie Allen Charters, perhaps wanting to stay close to her daughters in their high school days, was employed as the school psychologist at the Winchester School for Girls. Of those days, Margaret recalled her mother as being overly protective of her children:

Our family was sheltered by an over-protective mother. In Pittsburgh we knew a "foreign" cleaning woman and a black cleaning woman, but we did not know a cross-section of people. We were never a real part of Pittsburgh.

Summers were looked forward to by the family. An extended three month vacation was taken each summer during these times at a rustic holiday resort near Grand Rapids, Michigan. This resort was described as having "accomodations which were somewhat primitive." This primitive setting was chosen to expose the children to the kind of life both parents experienced while growing up in Canada and the Pacific Northwest. Some of the memories of the resort recalled by Margaret were:

Water was carried in a bucket up the hill from a pump; the outhouse was a three holier up the trail; kerosene lamp chimneys must be cleaned every day.

49 Ibid. 50 Lyon, Section VI, page 5.
51 Ibid. Section VI, page 6. 52 Ibid. 53 Ibid.
In retrospect the Charters children recalled these summer experiences as "valuable education legacy."\(^{54}\) Of this yearly migration, Margaret has said:

Each summer Jessie Allen Charters took the children to a cooler climate for three months (in the manner of the aristocracy of an earlier generation). W.W.C. would join them for many weekends and during the month of his university vacation, when he was not traveling.\(^{55}\)

Leisure time not spent with the family in Pittsburgh often found Charters, an avid swimmer, utilizing the facilities of a local athletic club in which he held membership. While in Pittsburgh, a daily noon-time swim at The Athletic Club was a ritual for him.

Charters also found time to look for "sure investment deals." Although he was financially successful in his professional career and had a comfortable degree of security, he still looked for investments to increase his holdings. In the early 1920's he went into a large farming venture in Arkansas which promptly lost on a grand scale. The earlier loss of gold mines as a graduate student and the loss of the farming "sure deal," turned Charters to more conservative money speculation. These investment took the form of stocks and bonds. Fortunately, these stock investments were made after the world depression.

Reviewing the six years at Pittsburgh, one sees a family with close ties and comfortable means. Nineteenth Century values of hard work and rugged individualism had allowed the Charters family to better itself and move up the social ladder. The family was secure and an ever improving future was being realized. Charters' professional life was at its highest, with reputation and salary on the increase. The problems encountered at Carnegie Institute of Technology were

\(^{54}\) Ibid.

\(^{55}\) Ibid.
resolved by an easy move to the University of Pittsburgh. However, the stay at the University was short lived, lasting only one year. The decision to leave that Steel town was made in 1925. That decision was made by Charters but conceived and facilitated by his wife.

It has been said that Jessie Allen Charters never adjusted to life in Pittsburgh. She feared for her daughters well being and found adjusting to the twentieth century industrialized East to be a difficult task. More importantly she had concerns about the direction of her husband's career while living in Pittsburgh. That career placed emphasis on the pragmatic aspects of education and practical curricular building vis-a-vis on the job analysis techniques. His techniques were widely accepted and sought after by the business community as an answer to increased efficiency and profit in the market place. Charters' involvement with the business community necessarily meant his academic relationships were lessened as evidenced from reduced teaching responsibilities at both Carnegie and Pittsburgh. The result of this career shift away from the academic community and toward the business community and professional in-service training greatly disturbed Jessie Allen Charters. Margaret Lyon described her mother's feelings:

As the years went on, she felt that W.W.C. was taking on some of the harsher characteristics of the successful business men, and was moving on to a less rewarding professional path. She influenced him to accept a different type of position...

Because of these promptings on the part of his wife, Charters, then fifty years old, began looking for another institution and a career pathway differing from his present course.

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57 Ibid.
In the summer of 1925 Charters accepted a position as Professor of Education at his alma mater, The University of Chicago. He was accepted by the Trustees on the recommendation of President Mason, Dean W.S. Gray and Charles H. Judd, Director of the School of Education. The Charters family departed for Chicago in mid-summer and took residence at 1428 East 57th Street, a familiar neighborhood filled with graduate school memories. Jessie Allen Charters' wish that her husband's career take a different direction came true at Chicago. While the Pharmacy Study and the Stephens College work were continued at Chicago, most retail training projects were completed and left in the East. Charters' responsibilities at Chicago were redirected toward teaching and graduate student advising. Of the changed career direction of her father, Margaret recalled the following:

The academic work at Chicago was a change from previous activities, in that he had a full teaching load. He prepared regularly for classes and began to advise more graduate students than was his custom.

Course responsibilities assigned to Charters in his first year at Chicago were:

- Ed. 371 - Methods of Teaching Ideals
- Ed. 385 - The Training Function in Business
- Ed. 448 - Technique of Curriculum Construction I
- Ed. 449 - Technique of Curriculum Construction II

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58 A policy of the University of Chicago prohibits the examination of appointment papers of faculty. Thus, appointment negotiating and salary arrangements are not reported.


60 "Annual Register of the University of Chicago, 1924-1925," The University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
These courses were taught throughout his tenure at Chicago,61 with the exception of Ed. 385, a holdover from Pittsburgh, which was dropped after the first year.62 Charters' educational research interests at Chicago were teacher training and the teaching of ideals in the classroom.

The result of his teacher training research was a collaborative work which was published in 1929 and entitled The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study. Charters' co-investigator was Douglas Waples, Professor of Educational Method at Chicago. This study had been discussed between Judd and Charters prior to Charters' coming to Chicago.63 This 666-page study represented a collection of teacher trait activity data which was thought to serve as a basis for a curriculum for teacher training education. This vast study empirically analyzed the teaching profession as it existed in the late 1920's and arrived at 1001 activities or traits common to all teachers based on a sampling of teachers. A large number of questionnaires used were published in the study, as were 161 pages of summary tables. The study lasted three years and earned Charters and Waples wide acclaim for bringing the methods of science to what had been conceived of as the art of teaching.64

61 "Annual Register, 1927-1928."
62 "Annual Register 1925-1926."
63 Charters to Judd, July 24, 1925, Judd Papers, Regenstein Library, The University of Chicago.
64 W. W. Charters, and Douglas Waples, The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1929) Margaret Lyon described this study and placed it in a present day situation in the following way: "Of the past -in 1929 Charters and Waples summarized a scientific analysis of the activities of teachers in the Commonwealth Teacher Training Study. A check list was prepared from examination of all educational literature which described
The other research interest of Charters' at Chicago related to the teaching of ideals in the classroom. Such an interest seems unusual given Charters' pre-occupation with programmatic and in-service retail education a short time earlier at Pittsburgh. As will be pointed out in Chapter Three, the shift from job analysis to consideration of ideals as the basis for developing a functional curriculum was significant for Charters. Careful not to take full credit for this interest, Charters said of it in the preface of *The Teaching of Ideals*:

"A collection of the methods of teaching ideals presented in this book was begun by Mrs. Charters when she was teaching in Los Angeles. During the intervening years we have both worked on the material; and in the later years the direct attack and the selection of ideals, situations, and the trait actions have been developed. In more than a formal manner I therefore wish to acknowledge Mrs. Charters' contribution to this work."

This interesting work in its opening made use of a case study approach. Then five principles were outlined which were thought to be fundamental factors in character education. The principles are markedly Deweyean in philosophy and relay a basic notion of his reconstructionist theory. Charters developed these principles in the following order: 1. the situation, 2. creating desire for the ideal, 3. developing a plan of action, 4. making the ideal desire operational and 5. integration of the teacher duties. Then 2,231 teachers completed a rating of the frequency with which they performed each activity. The importance of each activity and the need for including it in a teacher education curriculum were evaluated by 650 specialists. From this carefully prepared listing, a functional curriculum for teaching teachers could be developed." And of the present -- "knowledge of this study was in my mind as I was introduced to a 'new' concept, discovered in the late 1960's, competency based teacher education. The Livingston State College education faculty was selected to demonstrate development of a final product through setting objectives for each course. Our first step was to depict a 'competent teacher'. That we did by sitting in committee and brainstorming. With no review of literature, based only on our combined experience, we assembled a list of the activities that should be included in a teacher education program. Progress?"

ideal into the personality. With the process outlined for character education, Charters then turned to the more difficult question of defining the ideal or ideals. To this end, he recommended that teachers use pre-existing codes of ideals such as: "The Hutchins Code," "The Colliers Code," "The Scout Law" or the "Denver List," along with an analysis of activities. Charters felt that an analysis of activities founded on determined ideals was an objective way of determining the functional curriculum. Charters' interest and work in value education brought him acclaim which led to his appointment to the University of Chicago Committee on Religious Publication, where he succeeded Ernest De Witt Burton. As a member of that editorial board, Charters reviewed books on principles and methods in religious education. A final educational research project while at Chicago was Charters' involvement with the American Library Associates in developing a curriculum in library science based on functional analysis of ideals and activities. The goal of that project was to develop a textbook which could be used in library school. These projects along with his work at Stephens represented the new direction Charters' professional life took at Chicago. The move to Chicago also had an interesting effect on the career of his wife.

Jessie Allen Charters had successfully changed the direction of her husband's career by encouraging the move to Chicago. In that encouragement, she also may have been expressing a desire to develop her own career. Prior to coming to the University of Chicago, Jessie Allen's time was spent primarily as wife, mother and homemaker. But along with her dedication to family there existed a strong ambition for a successful career. In her early married life she vigorously undertook community reforms against the limited notion of women's roles in the home and community. She was not comfortable with being just a homemaker. Her
daughter, referring to her mother as being born fifty years too soon, recalled how she refused to conform to social amenities such as "calling with hat and gloves or leaving a calling card in the tray at the end of twenty minutes." Jessie Allen could be described as a educated maverick. Her academic credentials did allow her to take on some research activities at Carnegie Institute as a fellow in psychology from 1920 to 1921. She had worked as a consulting psychologist at the Winchester School in Pittsburg from 1922-1924 and worked on projects at Stephens College as a research assistant in psychology. While these endeavors show evidence of a desire for a professional career, they were endeavors placed secondary to the needs of her husband and growing family. In describing her parents, Margaret recalled:

... any professional interests that she (JAC) had were sublimated to fit in with her husband's career. W.W.C. was extremely proud of his wife, but he had the attitude typical of his time, now labelled male chauvinist. He considered her to be a fine mother, homemaker, entertainer. They talked through his professional affairs together and she helped him develop ideas, but he did not consciously acknowledge the extent of her helpfulness. He did not look on her as a professional partner.

While this description may have been true before the move to Chicago, events would indicate a change in their relationship. Charters left Pittsburgh because of his wife's prompting. He acknowledged her in his Teaching of Ideals and

67 Ibid.
68 Ibid. Section VI, p. 2.
importantly Jessie Allen Charters was appointed an Instructor in Education, working in the University Extension Home-Study Division for Adult Education. Her dream of a career had begun and would continue at the University until a better opportunity came along in 1928.

While W.W. Charters' return to the classroom was acceptable to him, his work at Chicago as an educational researcher was less acceptable. Funding support from the University was less than he had hoped for and this frustrated him. Educational researchers were forced to approach large foundations and private groups to support their research and Charters objected to that method because of its "red tape." Of his 1926-1927 research projects, Charters reported that his teacher training research was funded by the Commonwealth Fund at $15,000, the library science curriculum was funded by the American Library Associates at $15,000, and Stephens College was funding the curriculum reorganization at $3500.69 Because the University failed to increase support for centralized educational research, Charters began looking for an institution which would offer substantial financial support for educational research in curricular areas. In 1928 Charters sent a note to Judd and indicated his intention to resign:

I have decided to go to Ohio State. I am sorry that events have conspired to shatter my hope of staying here till the end. But they raised the inducements too high to make a refusal sensible, $6000 a year will be added to the present budget for curriculum research. So, no necessity to depend upon the largess of foundations.70

69 Charters to Judd, 18 April 1927, Charles Hubbard Judd Papers. Regenstein Library, University of Chicago.

70 Charters to Judd, 27 April 1928, Judd Papers.
Charters, who saw his resignation from Chicago as a protest, sought advice from Judd as to ways of making that resignation beneficial to the College of Education. He wrote:

I am attaching the enclosed resignation. If you would like me to stress more emphatically to the Board the need for better support in the work of the College of Education than there has been, I wish you would tell me what to say and I shall incorporate it into my letter of resignation if you think it is worthwhile.\footnote{Charters to Judd, 18 May 1928, Judd Papers.}

Judd in cool fashion, not wanting to make a case for more money to the College over Charters' protest resignation, wrote him:

I am forwarding to Mr. Woodward the formal resignation which I have just received. I too regret ample funds for research work are not at this time available.\footnote{Judd to Charters, date, Judd Papers.}

Thus Charters and family left Chicago and headed towards Columbus, Ohio.

Ohio State University

The decision to leave Chicago and the consideration to accept an appointment at Ohio State University was begun in 1927. That decision making process was more complex than ever before, since Jessie Allen Charters' career had to be taken into account. Charters realized any move would also have to be good professionally for his wife as well as for himself. Dr. George Arps, who was Dean of the College of Education at Ohio State, was aware of Charters' dissatisfaction at Chicago and knew of Jessie Allen Charters' work in adult education. He was impressed by both. B.R. Buckingham, who had worked under Charters at Illinois,
was the Director of the Bureau of Educational Research at Ohio State at that time and had tendered his resignation, effective June 30, 1928. Dean Arps was interested in filling that position and thought of Charters as a possible candidate. Arps, who was also aware of Jessie Allen Charters' new career, offered her an academic appointment at the level of assistant professor in the College. Her work was to be organizing a new Department of Adult Education. He turned then to Werrett Wallace Charters and offered him the Bureau's Directorship. Margaret Lyon recalled those days:

Dr. George Arps, Dean of the College of Education at Ohio State University, laid a well-baited trap in 1927. He offered Jesse Allen Charters the opportunity to organize a new department of adult education, and challenged W.W. Charters to build the existing Bureau of Educational Research into one as strong as any in the country. Arps, who was committed to educational research and the importance of the Bureau, wanted to alleviate undue concern for financial matters from the researchers. He thus endowed the Bureau with a large and impressive annual budget which was no less than $100,000. Such a large sustaining budget and administrative support was far removed from Charters' experiences at Chicago. Along with the Bureau's financial support, Charters was offered a yearly salary of $8,500, which was the same level salary as Buckingham's. While all seemed professionally correct for a move to Ohio State for W.W. Charters, the single most importance factor in that decision was the fact that his wife's career could develop. Jessie Lyon recalled those days:

73 Lyon, Concerning W.W.C., Section IV, p. 3.
74 "Proceedings of the Board of Trustees", 14 May 1928, The Ohio State University.
75 Interview with Ralph W. Tyler, 12 May 1979.
Allen Charters was offered a yearly salary at $4,000 and was most enthusiastic with the career prospect. With her enthusiasm high and her husband equally excited, the decision to accept the positions was made. In comparing the salaries of the Charters' with others in the College of Education and in other positions at Ohio State, Jessie Allen and Werrett Wallace were higher than most. Jessie Allen's salary was $600 more than the typical salary range at the assistant professor level. Her husband's salary was $1,000 more than the Dean's salary. The years which were about to begin in Columbus were described as "their most fruitful professional years." 

Charters' research projects at Ohio State continued along the lines of functional curricula development based on ideal and activity analysis. The earlier claims that the curriculum must be practical, and congruent with societal needs which are determined empirically via activity surveying and analysis, were widely accepted. The application of this philosophy underlay all research activities of the bureau. An investigation of the research of the bureau over the fourteen years of Charters' tenure revealed a particular interest in health professions curricula development and health education generally. The Pharmacy and Dental School Curricula had been surveyed before coming to Ohio State. But research in both professional curricula was continued at Ohio, particularly the Pharmacy curriculum. From 1929 to 1932 the Bureau worked with the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy to develop a survey to measure the educational success of

76 Proceeding of the Board of Trustees, 14 May 1929. The Ohio State University.

77 Ibid.

78 Lyon, Concerning W.W.C., Section IV, p. 3.
member colleges. The research activity was presented by the bureau to the association as "A Proposed Study on the Measurement of Achievement in Pharmaceutical Education." Charters' involvement and impact on Pharmaceutical Education will be discussed in detail in Chapter Four. The Bureau's interest in health professions moved it also to investigate Nursing Education. A survey of Nursing Schools was conducted. Charters was also a member of the curriculum committee of the National League of Nursing Education and was involved with the National Organization for Public Health Nursing. The curricula of schools of Veterinary Medicine was also surveyed and analyzed. Research in the area of general health and safety education was conducted in conjunction with the National Tuberculosis Association, the Ohio Public Health Association and the National Safety Council. The Bureau did important early work in the development of media technology and its adaptation to education. These pioneering efforts were made in educational and instructional cinematography and use of radio in education. Of these various research endeavors one of greatest significance was the "Eight Year Study of Progressive Education." While Charters was not the primary researcher in this study, he was the general architect of the research. In recounting those days it was reported that:

79 Charters Papers, BC1-BC111, Division of Special Collection, Ohio State University.

80 Charters Papers, BB1-BB14.

81 Ibid., XB1 and YA13. 82 Ibid., BB1-27. 83 Ibid., BA1.

84 Charters Papers, BD1-BD4.

85 Ibid., DA1-DA10. 86 Ibid., G1-G55.
The method Daddy used in advising was to listen carefully to a problem or presentation, asking questions until all the facts and feelings were out. Then he would state his solution to the problem, rather definitely; he expected his advice to be taken. Since he worked with strong-minded intelligent adults, frequent re-thinking would occur and he would again listen. In the long run he let people make their own decision, but they appreciated his strong guidance.

This method undoubtedly prevailed as he directed the Eight Year Study. The entire staff met bi-weekly in the long living room of the Charters home on Indianola Avenue. Each person would report progress and next steps would be thrashed out.

In Mother's memory, those weekly meetings meant only one thing - she had to serve cookies and punch to people who were so busy discussing that they did not even take time to look up at her.

These educational research projects under Charters' leadership made the Ohio State Research Bureau an important national center for educational studies. But even with the busy schedule of the bureau, which kept Charters "away from home about half the time," he still found time for other responsibilities in the College and his own private ventures.

As professor of education, Charters participated in numerous College and Campus Committees from twelve terms on the Graduate Council to five terms on the Committee for Freshman Week. He was very much involved in graduate education during that period and was popular as a graduate advisor. A number of outstanding educators launched their careers in research activities at the Ohio State Bureau and gave Charters credit for strong early guidance. Among these were Ralph W. Tyler (curriculum), Edgar Dale (audio-visual), Louis Raths (values), and Lew Morrill (President of the University of Minnesota). "To be one of 'Charters Boys' was an honor, especially cherished by a woman, Vivian Weedon".

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88 Lyon, "Concerning W.W.C., Section IV, p. 4.

89 Ibid.
who worked under his direction. With these College responsibilities, Charters devoted time also to writing textbooks. These textbooks were written for primary and secondary school for use in health and hygiene classes. These texts were written jointly with Dean F. Smiley, M.D., Professor of Hygiene at Cornell University and Ruth M. Strong, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Education at Columbia University. The most used of these texts were the Health and Growth Series, for grades one to eight, and Let's Be Healthy, for the secondary schools. In 1935, Charters also coauthored a manual for teachers entitled, Sex Education. This manual was much ahead of the times in that it called for classes in sex education from the primary grades through senior high school. The Democracy Readers were the textbook series Charters favored most. As with all the textbooks, the series was written in a functional approach. In the series, an analytic approach was used, asking what was characteristic of democratic behavior, and what historic incidents contributed to understanding the growth of the democratic process. These questions were translated into the developmental level of each age. Charters felt this series was important in that the Nation was feeling the need to recommit itself to the ideals of democracy which were shaken by the first World War and the economic situation of the late Twenties and Thirties. Charters also served as editor of several educational journals. With the array of professional opportunity offered to Charters at Ohio State, he was also able to assist his wife in her new career activities in adult education.

Jessie Allen Charters organized several adult education programs using the faculty of the University as resource personnel. Her intention was to develop program offerings as wide and varied as the University. Home study was increasing
W.W. Charters, Sr. at Columbus, Ohio

C. 1943. Courtesy of Charters Family.
in popularity in Columbus and Jessie Allen Charters was successfully responding to the adult needs of that community. Her department was flourishing even though the country and world were in the midst of an economic Depression.

In 1933 the depth of the Depression touched the Charters family. Because of the large number of unemployed male professionals in Columbus, there was a move against employing wife and husband teams at Ohio State. Since the Charters' combined salary was the highest of any other working couple at the University, Jessie Allen was fired and her adult education position was given to an unemployed male. In recalling those events and the effect they had on Jessie Allen, it was reported:

She worked informally then, in some of the community programs that she had helped to start. But her spirit never recovered completely from losing her professional opportunities; later on she did not like to talk about "adult education." She made an outstanding contribution to work at the Central Community House in Columbus and received a memorial book from them when she moved from Columbus. That loss of employment was devastating to Jessie Allen but the family managed during those difficult days. Warrett Wallace's salary and other ventures allowed the family to continue along fairly stably.

Family life was not as close in Columbus as children continued their education in various schools around the country and because of the extensive travel of their father. Upon completing her baccalaureate at Ohio State, Margaret taught first grade for one year in Columbus — "to get practical experience." After that year she enrolled at Teachers College, Columbia. Sandy was enrolled in the Ohio State University High School. It was reported that he received the intellectual stimulation there that made him dissatisfied later with traditional college courses. He received his bachelor's degree from De Paul University and was

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90 Ibid., Section VI, p. 2. 91 Ibid., Section VI, p. 5. 92 Ibid.
accepted into a graduate program at the University of Michigan. Both moved into education at the University level after earning their Ph.D.'s. Aileen, who was less academically inclined, took a master's degree in business and became a secretary to a college president before marrying. Jean entered graduate study and earned a Ph.D. in political science with no evident interest in following the field professionally. She became a Democratic committee woman to national conventions for twelve years. The Charters had encouraged their children to achieve and each did so educationally. In recounting the lives of her parents in Columbus, Margaret suggested a struggle in which both were involved. As Margaret grew older she recognized this struggle in her parents to be an attempt to intellectually reconcile Nineteenth Century religion with Twenty Century science. Both parents' roots were deeply religious, but as the years passed they questioned those roots and in the questioning, changed. Of these changes at Ohio it was said:

W.W.C. said that he envied his father's unquestioning faith. He (W.W.C.) continued to render volunteer professional service to the Northern Baptist Board, but did not regularly attend the local Baptist church.

Jessie Allen Charters led a Sunday school class for young adults, but with a secular emphasis. They followed the then radical practice of discussing everyday problems, supposedly in the light of Christian principles. (A book, Young Adults in the Church, was written by Jessie Allen Charters which grew out of those experiences.) Her attitude grew progressively away from acceptance of Christian doctrines from late middle age on."

After fourteen years at Ohio State, Charters, then sixty-seven years old with family grown, began to think about retirement. He purchased a large plot of land in Michigan on which he planned to build a retirement home for Jessie and himself. These plans were altered with the out-break of yet another World War. Because of the War effort, all new construction was forbidden and so the materials

93 Ibid., Section VI, p. 6.
for the retirement home were left untouched. However, Charters' retirement plans still moved forward. In a letter sent to President Bevis, Charters set the date for his retirement at August 31, 1942. Charters' desire to leave Ohio State was accepted by the President as seen in the following statement:

Columbus, Ohio, January 16. After serving as director of Ohio State University's Bureau of Educational Research since 1928, Dr. W.W. Charters will retire from active duty August 31.

The well known educator will then devote his full time to writing, gathering together the threads of research which he has been doing for many years, at Ohio State and elsewhere.

The retiring director, nationally known as a leader in education, has built the Ohio State bureau into one of the best known research organizations in the field. Its studies, frequently supported financially by national foundations, have extended into many areas -- curriculum, tests, housing, evaluation, movies, radio.

"We have accepted Dr. Charters' decision with regret" President Bevis said Friday. His contributions to the University, as well as to education generally, have been invaluable. Thorough in his work, a man of vision who inspired his associates, devoted to the cause of education and eager to explore new paths promising greater effectiveness in teaching, he has been one of our most valued faculty members.

Less than one year into retirement, Charters, desiring "to do his patriotic duty",95 offered his talents to the War effort.

War Manpower Commission

Charters strong desire to assist the country as it engaged in War meant moving to Washington, D.C., to accept a position as Chief of the War Manpower Commission's Training Division. In this new work, Charters was charged with the

94 News Release, "Dr. W.W. Charters to Retire Aug. 31.," Division of Special Collection, Ohio State University.

95 Lyon, Concerning W.W.C., Section VI, p. 7.
task of speeding a program to fit millions of unskilled workers into the war production in ranks. In describing the services to be offered under Charters' direction, Paul V. McNutt, Chairman of the Manpower Commission said:

The services offered under this educational program provides training to prepare young men and women for war industry jobs. It also provides supplementary training which assists in upgrading employed individuals by adding or increasing operating skills and related technical knowledge. Under its rural war production training program, short intensive courses are given to persons engaged in agricultural pursuit to increase production of essential foods. 96

The experiences Charters had at Carnegie and the University of Pittsburgh prepared him amply to carry out these tasks. Charters was successful in developing educational programs in: Training Within Industry Division, National Youth Administration, Apprentice-Training Service and in the Vocational-Training for War Production Workers. The result of these in-service training programs was a greater unification effort which increased the scope and efficiency of each of the Divisions' training. During Charters' war service, he was asked to return to Stephens College to conclude work there he had begun in 1920. When the War ended, Charters and his wife returned to Columbia - retirement was still thought of but was some distance away.

**Stephens College**

Returning to Stephens at age sixty nine, the War over, Charters was given the title of Director of Educational Research. 97 He was asked to carry out an

96 McNutt, Paul V., "News Release" Office of War Information - War Manpower Commission, 17 November 1942. Special Collection, Ohio State University, Columbus.

historical evaluation of the women's curriculum which he helped develop over the past twenty years. That work took Charters three years. The result of his study was a published address to the faculty of Stephens. That address was entitled "The Twenty-fifth Annual Report to the Faculty." \(^{98}\) The importance of Charters' evaluative study was recognized as seen in the following works:

> In view of its important implication with respect to our own problems and the problems of education in general, I recommend the accompanying manuscript, "The Twenty-fifty Annual Report of the Research Service of Stephens College, be published for distribution to all members of the staff and to others who are interested in finding more effective solutions to educational problems." \(^{99}\)

The published report outlined the historical development of Charters' Educational Research Service at Stephens. Charters chronologically traced his beginning days at Stephens and his relationship with President Wood to present day development in the functional curriculum. He spoke of the uniqueness of the Stephens Bureau as being such because the Bureau was involved in the "exclusive study of the institution of which it was a part." \(^{100}\) This was unlike the Bureaus at Illinois and Carnegie which did not exclusively look to their own curricula. After Charters treated the historical characters of the Bureau, he turned to the "major lines of exploration" \(^{101}\) used in building a functional curriculum at Stephens. These developmental "lines" for establishing a functional curriculum in Charters' method will be discussed later in Chapter 3.

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\(^{99}\) Ibid. p. 5.

\(^{100}\) Ibid. p. 14.  \(^{101}\) Ibid. p. 21.
While at Stephen, Charters' professional activity levels decreased somewhat. Shortly after arriving at Stephens, Charters began building the retirement home on Glen Lake, in a rustic part of Michigan, which had been delayed because of the War. Upon its completion, Jessie and Werrett spent their summers there. After three years had past and the "Report of the Stephens College Research Service" was completed, Charters' and his wife retired to their "Big House", as it was called by family.

Retirement at Glen Lake

Although retirement was finally upon Charters, he still was not content to become inactive. He continued to serve on various boards including the Northern Baptists and Stephens College. He was also a consultant to various schools and organizations. His calendar was occasionally freed for travel which Jessie and he enjoyed but he usually kept several appointments each month. This meant a good deal of air travel and many nights in hotels away from Jessie. When he was not involved in professional matters, Charters enjoyed several hobbies which consumed more time as he grew older. Of these hobbies, he enjoyed a genealogical study of his family which brought him to Scotland in search of the family sod. He also had a large and valuable stamp collection which Jessie and he worked on. His interest in collecting souvenirs of Paul Bunyan continued until he gave his collection to the Paul Bunyan Museum in Bimiji. Travel and sightseeing also played an important part of Jessie's and her husband's retirement activities.

Charters Family at Glen Lake c. 1950. Margaret and two sons on right, W.W.C. Jr. and wife standing (on right), W.W.C. Sr. and Jessie Allen center.

Photo courtesy of Charters Family.
Such a trip was taken in January, 1952. Charters was then seventy-six years old and wanted to escape the cold Michigan Winter. He and Jessie decided that the warm West was inviting. Driving westward, they spent some time in Phoenix and Arizona with friends. They then motored south to Texas and visited the small town where Jessie had spent her infant years. Upon leaving there, they headed eastward until they reached Livingston, Alabama at the home of Margaret Lyon, their oldest daughter. It was then March and Margaret recalled that visit of her parents:

"During that March week in Livingston, he said that he was tired of traveling professionally and that he was going to truly retire to Michigan. So he took this opportunity to explore how retirement days might be filled." 103

Margaret also recalled a load of wood which had been delivered and tossed carelessly in the backyard. Her father, who for years had taken great pride in his neat woodpiles, spent most of that Saturday stacking the wood. "It was an unusually satisfying day for him." 104 That night at supper Charters told his wife and family that next Spring, Jessie and he were "going to start in the South at strawberry time and eat their way north all Spring as the berries ripened." In the midst of family laughter at his next year's plans, Charters' life and career came to an end. It was March 8, 1952. News of the fatal heart attack which had fallen Werrett Wallace Charters, Sr. traveled fast. "National News Lines" 105 reported his death, unleashing a flood of telegrams to Jessie and her family. A memorial service was held in Livingston "the likes of which that little town had never seen." 106 Charters' body was then brought to Hagersville, Ontario, for burial in the

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103 Ibid. 104 Ibid. 105 Ibid. 106 Ibid.
Werrett Wallace and Jessie Allen Charters. c. 1950. Photo was sent with a Christmas greeting which read: "Grow old along with me! The best is yet to be. The last of life for which the first was made."
family plot. In mid-summer, an impressive memorial service was held in the Hagersville Cemetery which brought the Charters' clan and friends together for a final tribute. 107

Jessie Allen spent her remaining years at Glen Lake as a gracious dowager. During the summer months, family and friends were invited to the "Big House" for extended visits. In the colder season, Jessie traveled to warmer climates to be "near, not with, one of her children." 108 As she advanced in years her sight and health failed. It was said she felt "that she had lived too long." 109 She welcomed death at age ninety-two.

This treatment of W.W. Charters, Sr. and family has attempted thus far to offer insights into his professional development and the growth of his family. The particular period of focus has been a time frame, beginning in 1875 and ending in 1952. That passage of time has revealed a chain of events - a personal chronology of life and career evolution for W.W. Charters. To add a greater depth to the chronology and perspective to that evolution, Chapter Three will endeavor to place Charters' educational interest and theories in the context of the history of education and analyze his theory of curriculum as it matured.

107 Lyon, Ibid. 108 Ibid. 109 Ibid.
CHAPTER III

W. W. CHARTERS, SR., CURRICULAR ENGINEER

Introduction

Chapter III will place W.W. Charters, Sr. in an historical perspective in relation to the history of American education and curriculum development as it existed up to the early twentieth century. Attention will be given to Charters' curriculum theory with an emphasis on his ideas related to minimum essentials, job analysis and functional analysis. Charters' theories will be examined as they evolved from his personal career growth and the times in which he lived. The last portion of this Chapter reviews some of the criticism of Charters and his theories by scholars of his day and some of more recent times.

American Educational Heritage - An Overview

The American educational world in which young Charters found himself upon completing his academic degree at Chicago was a world with a rich heritage. That educational heritage was in many ways transplanted to America from Europe. But even as America sought to create its own philosophy of education and pedagogy, the European heritage lingered on in the background. At times, it was reacted against by American educators and at other times was renewed. This lingering influence of an older educational order can be traced back to seventeenth century American schools which emphasized the importance of classical religious
education, and eighteenth century American schools which looked to the Enlightenment with its optimistic hope in the new sciences and practical education. Both classical/religious education and its opposite scientific/practical education have influenced educational thought in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, and, in particular, Charters' own ideas on curriculum and the school.

Reviewing the educational character of the Colonial American School of the seventeenth century reveals an importance placed on the image of the Renaissance person of Europe--a classical image of the individual and his place in the community. It was felt that the Classics of Greek and Roman antiquity were a new means of finding that earthly paradise which had (hithertofore) been advanced by the medieval Church and courts. This turning away from a heavenly vision offered by the medieval Church and royal courts meant a refocusing of that same vision in terms of an earthly paradise founded in the glories of the ancient civilizations of Greece and Rome. As Robert Nisbet has pointed out, the Medieval person was as much involved in eschatology and the hope of earthly paradise as was the Renaissance person, but the vision was different:

We are still so dominated by the myth that medieval thought was lost in contemplation of the heavenly hereafter and in despair of or disdain for the things of this world that it can come as something of a shock to realize how avid was medieval interest in earthly paradise: those believed to lie in remote but reachable parts of the earth and those believed to lie ahead in time for all mankind."

Both the Medieval and Renaissance person struggled for a better world and yearned for an earthly rest, but the former was prompted by the directives of an autocratic Church and royal courts while the latter was prompted by the glories of past human accomplishments. With this reliance on the Classics and the

Renaissance mentality, the religious expression of seventeenth century colonial life assumed a social character which fostered tolerance for other communities of belief, liturgical participation and respect for individual biblical interpretation. The schools which emerged in this period were extensions of colonial values. The first educational experience a child received was at the Dame school which taught reading, writing, numbers and religious values. Reading was thought to be a very important subject in that it opened the child to the scriptures and a place in the liturgy. After early schooling, the brighter and richer children were sent to learn Latin and Greek and explore the classics. Along with the classics, some features of the "Seven Liberal Arts" were used in the curriculum. What emerged as the training ground for these instructions was the Latin Grammar School the first of which was the Boston Latin School, founded in 1635.

As the eighteenth century began, it was accompanied by the European enlightenment characterized by a hope in the newly emerging sciences. It was also, however, a world involved in far reaching revolutions. Schools in the new American republic took on a character different from the colonial schools. Greater importance was placed on the individual in society. The political revolutions of the eighteenth century led to constitutional forms of government. The difficulty of the churches to choose disillusioned many whose belief was eroded. Many were attracted to a belief in the scientific method. With the changed perceptions of old institutions and the development of new ones came the "Cult of Progress." Of progress it has been said:

From being one of the important ideas in the West it became the dominant idea, even when one takes into account the rising importance of other ideas such as equality, social justice, and popular sovereignty - each of which was without question a beacon light in this period. However, the concept of progress is distinct and pivotal in that it becomes the development 'context' for these other ideas. Freedom, equality, popular sovereignty -
each of these became more than something to be cherished, worked for, and hoped for, set in the context of the idea of progress, each could seem not merely desirable but historically necessary, inevitable of eventual achievement. It was possible to show - as did Tungot, Condoret, Saint-Simon, Comte, Hegel, Marx and Spencer, among many others - that all history could be seen as a slow, gradual, but continuous and necessary ascent to some given end. 2

The result of these ideas of social change led to the call by Benjamin Franklin for a more practical approach in education. The practical approach of the eighteenth century American Academy meshed the methods of scientific observation and practical living with the notions of progress. However in the evolution of the Academy, the curriculum included the classics and this alliance of the practical and classical existed throughout the eighteenth century.

The nineteenth century still saw a dominance of the European heritage on American education. Some American educational reformers looked to Prussian folk schools. The American University followed patterns set by the German Universities. As reform led to reform, questions were raised about the importance of free public education at the primary and secondary levels. For example, Mann's tax-supported common school flourished. The academy also was in the process of being replaced by the public high school. With the new models for popular, free education came the pressing need to develop a meaningful curriculum for democratic education. In the late nineteenth century, America was ready to establish its own standardized pedagogy. To bring this about, the National Committees Movement was begun. These committees of distinguished educators met in small groups and made recommendations about the nature of the elementary and secondary school curriculum. The efforts of these national committees varied in effectiveness, but they represented a means of identifying the ends of education.

2 Nisbet., p. 171.
As the National Committees Movement began to waiver, American education entered the twentieth century still seeking to establish a standardized curriculum. The success of science in the laboratory, with the resultant knowledge explosion, established empirical measurement as an effective, efficient, and meaningful educational instrument. Efforts were made to measure individual and social behavior by empirical observation. These efforts in psychology and sociology were successful and increasing in sophistication. Because of these successes, some educators turned to the scientific method to establish an efficient and meaningful curriculum. These educators believed that statistical measurement and analysis applied to education would develop a valid contemporary curriculum which was not based on the guess work of the past. It was at this point in the history of American education that Werrett Wallace Charters, Sr. was significant. He and others such as Bobbitt, Sneeden and Thorndike believed that empirical examination and inquiry into life and job situations would reveal the basis for curriculum content. During this same period, Charters' teacher, John Dewey, and close friend, Boyd H. Bode, were advocating a Democratic Curriculum Planning Movement based on the philosophy of William James.

The Democratic Curriculum Movement was concerned with establishment of a curriculum which emphasized the sensitivity and skills students needed for successful living in a democratic and free environment. Process was stressed and the curriculum was established on the basis of problem-solving by students, teachers and the general community. All education was seen in a social context. The urgency of the Democratic Curriculum Movement was enhanced during World War I when the very fiber of the American democratic order was thought to be in
jeopardy. The World Depression also underscored in many ways the importance for a curriculum which would strengthen and prepare the student for democratic living. Some have criticized the Democratic Curriculum Movement as being only a pedagogy of protest against European philosophical and educational traditions, against authoritarianism of the Church and traditional non-democratic state, against the mechanization of life brought on by the scientific revolution, and against the emphasis of the individual and de-emphasis of social responsibility. But whatever the reasons for the Democratic Curriculum Movement, it has had significant and lasting impact on the American school.

In tracing the American educational heritage, several important curricular junctures have been identified. They have been recalled as the classical curriculum of the Latin school, the practical (classical) curriculum of the academy, the curriculum based on National Committee recommendation (practical-classical), the curriculum ascertained by empirical measurement and the curriculum determined by a democratic problem-solving process. While these junctures have been identified as if one proceeded the next, a clear-cut chronological tracing is impossible because of the tendency of curricular styles to overlap at various times. This overlapping in methodological style is seen particularly when entering the twentieth century; when one group of educators was calling for a return of the curriculum to traditional values and other groups were advocating that the students write their own curriculum. However, the three educational groups which were most clearly present at the beginning of the twentieth century were the traditionalists, curricular scientists and the democratic movement curricular philosophers.
Twentieth Century Educational Setting

As America moved into the twentieth century, change was the phenomenon most experienced. Technology, industry and science had served well the cult of progress as the nation grew in stature and prestige. As these internal changes occurred, so too were the national mores called into question with resultant confusion and controversy. To add to the confusion brought on by modernization, the nation fought in a World War which shook the very fiber of democratic life. And to further add to the confusion, the nation experienced the pain of a world depression, a threat to the American dream. The gradual unfolding of these events in the early twentieth century placed the schools, and educators, in a difficult situation. While society looked to its educators and schools for assistance in clarifying societal values and imparting efficient education, educators were embroiled in disagreements as to what values were important and the means by which education should be accomplished. According to Woelfel, American educators during this period tended to fall into one of three groups. Each of these groups were attempting to rediscover a meaningful curriculum for the school based upon a certain preconceived philosophical presupposition. These groups were identified as: a) educators stressing values inherent in American historic traditions; b) educators stressing the ultimacy of science and its method and; c) educators stressing the implications of modern experimental naturalism.  


These three groups are from Woelfel's text which presents an interesting and detailed review of American educator in the early twentieth century. Woelfel treats the following educators in his work, placing each in one of three camps: the
characterizing these early twentieth century educational interest groups and their plans for curriculum writing, the traditionalist, scientific and democratic curriculum writers can be described in the following manner.

The traditionalist curriculum was based on perceived fundamental values which remained essentially unchangable. Enlightened traditional idealism and the American historical tradition served as a general value base in building this kind of curriculum. With the above base in place, the religious, philosophical, social, political and economic heritage was transmitted through the curriculum. The traditionalist curriculum was thought to be of a static nature. The quality of the curriculum was based on its integral link with the past heritage. The learner, who was not central to this curriculum, was thought to be educated after receiving information about the treasured past.

Those who based the curriculum on the results of their scientific investigation were a formidable group at the beginning of the twentieth century. The scientific curriculum writers reacted against the traditionalist in that they felt their traditional curriculum was developed around a tradition of "hunches" as to what was of value to teach. The scientific curriculum writers also felt that behavior was not changed by an "information giving" type of educational experience which was not practical or useful. In an effort to develop a meaningful educational experience, scientific curriculum writers relied on the authority of the scientific method in determining what the curriculum should be in terms of broadly traditionalists discussed are: Horne, Morrison, Bagley, Cubberley, Briggs and Finney; the educational scientists are: Judd, Snedden, Thorndike, Horn, Charters, Babbitt; the educational philosophers are: Dewey, Counts, Kilpatrick, Rugg, Bode. It has been said that Woelfel's scholarship was not appreciated by those he wrote about and that his professional career in education suffered because of that lack of appreciation.
held social values and specific job-related education. When the curriculum was written, it was designed in working units which were prepared in advance for the learner.

The democratic curriculum proponents were interested in developing a curriculum which imparted those skills and intelligence needed for living in a democratic environment. Thus, the curriculum was developed around values adherent to democratic living and established under the advisement of the teacher, learner, and the public. As a creative, organic, informal, and flexible enterprise, the curriculum served the goals of continuing and reconstructing the democratic ideal. The learner was seen as the center of the curriculum and was judged successful upon mastering problem-solving skills.

Attention will now turn to the scientific curriculum writers and, in particular, Charters’ involvement in the movement.

**Charters’ Perception of His Times**

In an editorial in the *Journal of Education Research* Charters spoke of the 1920’s in the following manner:

> When I read Professor Kilpatrick’s book, whose title furnishes the caption for the few observations I am about to make, I was distinctly worried. It summarizes and intensifies the impression gained in conversation, magazine literature, and books that we have changed and are moving with accelerated motion towards greater change. The War, increase of crime, revolutions, flappers, hip flasks, movies, radio, airplanes, bobbed hair—these are all symptoms of change which are disturbing because on the whole it seems to be a change for the worse."

His opening comment may have been in jest since in the next paragraph Charters mentioned the apparent stability of the English vocabulary in that "only sixteen

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new words were added to the language in the last thirty-six years." However, there
does appear to be a genuine concern in his tone and in society for the changing
tides. World War I and economic difficulties had shaken the roots of American
democracy and the American dream. Philosophy and traditional religious values
were being questioned and challenged by modernization and a growing secularism.
Industrialization had caused Twentieth century society to desire greater efficiency.
Efficiency required that the end be clearly identified and that all activity should be
related to functional purposes. But what were those ends? Loyalty to a set of
values confirmed by tradition, an educational value yet to be found? New values to
be discovered in a community of critical thinkers? Just what were these ends of
the curriculum? Charters' answer to these questions was:

I have emerged with the feeling that while change looms large in gross
amount and in spectacular vividness, the index of change - the percentage
of the total of the fundamentals of the curriculum is not dangerously high.
What change there is is important, since a little leavens the whole lump.
Since it is important, it must be faced, but there is no occasion for panic.
Though much is discarded much remains, and as in times past, so now in
these disquieting times, the fundamentals of our civilization stand solidly
as a base from which to push out with confidence towards new adventures.

Charters found the ends of curriculum in something of the past. Four years later,
Charters again addressed the issue of change in tones which were stronger and
more direct but slightly different. He said:

The most common concept in the educational discussions and literature of
the last decade has been 'our changing civilization'. Education has become
change-conscious. Economists and educators say that we are in the midst
of one of the critical periods of sudden mutation, when new patterns of
social conduct come quickly into being. The tempo of this age is
accelerated, a new ear is being born...

... While this is going on, however, our single-track professional minds must
be balanced by stability. Changes are occurring, but, in meeting the
problems of change, we have mainly to rely upon the fundamental solutions
that have been tested through the ages. We cannot evolve a wholly new set
of fundamentals in one generation. Moral codes still hold in essence.

6Ibid., p. 216.
Industry, honesty, unselfishness, and cooperation are as valid in 1932 as they have ever been.

Our new situations do not call for new virtues so much as for the intelligent use and modification of ancient values.

While Charters still held to the worth of the "ancient values" and their applicability to the curriculum, he conceded that those values needed to be "reconstructed" in terms of present day situation.

Charters at times seemed to have been caught in a dilemma of loyalties between his traditional roots founded in the Baptist Church and his educational exposure to John Dewey in modern experimental naturalism. Woelfel depicts Charters seemingly being caught by traditional curricular tendencies when he stated that:

Charters plays right into the traditionalists hands also when he recognizes a central core of conventional subjects and rigid training in 'fundamentals'. Charters apparently looks upon 'Progressive principles or the project method' as methodological devices rather than as challenges to the whole accepted scheme of educational philosophy.

Perhaps this dilemma caused Charters to locate himself in the educational middle between the forces of tradition and experimental naturalism. As will be pointed out, this middle position caused Charters to move from side to side. He was sometimes inconsistent and strikingly contradictory. Woelfel has expressed concern over not being about to "nail" Charters down!

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8 Woelfel, Critical Review, p. 196.
Charters' Perception of Himself as Curriculum Writer

Charters perceived himself to be an "educational engineer" and felt his role was as a "man with a passion for carefully working out ideas and putting them into practice." He did not see himself as a philosopher and spoke of philosophers thusly:

The philosopher determines the objectives of education; the engineer works out the methods by which the objectives may be achieved. Ordinarily, the philosopher is not greatly interested in the methods that may be used to make his ideas function in local situations. The engineer, on the other hand, is not primarily concerned with the philosophy of education - he waits for the theorist to finish the idea and thereupon springs into action. He throws his heart into devising methods that will make the theory work if it is workable. The philosopher says, "Here is where we should go"; the engineer reacts, All right, let's go!" He takes charge of the journey from that point on. In the army, the philosophers determine the objectives; the engineers care for the tactics and the strategy. In college the theorist develops the idea that a college education prepares young people for life. The engineer is interested in working out methods by which students can actually be prepared for life. The idea man is interested in what to do; the engineer in how to do it. The theorist is a man of reflection the engineer is a man of action.

This image of Charters was held by his daughter, Margaret, who recalled him as being:

"a practitioner not a philosopher. He accepted Dewey's doctrines of the democratic process and learning by doing. He accepted Christian personality traits as desirable. The Seven Cardinal Principles structured his procedures. He allowed others to debate metaphysics versus the scientific method or any other pair of philosophies while he proceeded to 'get things done.'" *W. W. Charters, The Research Service at Stephens College* (Columbia: E.W. Stephens Publishing Company, 1947), p. 6.


Kirschner's study indicates that Charters felt himself an engineer of John Dewey's philosophy, at least as he interpreted that philosophy. Woelfel also conceded that Charters used Dewey's philosophy as it suited his needs of remaining in a middle theoretical position.

Charters and "Structure Follows Function"

Early in his work with John Dewey at the University of Chicago, Charters was introduced to the maxim of the Chicago architectural school of Sullivan and Adler that "form follows function." According to Kirschner, Charters applied that idea to education and curriculum building. That way of perceiving reality meant Charters approached the school curriculum first by establishing what were expected knowledge and understanding in terms of skills and concepts for the students concerned. Once the ends of the curriculum were defined the existing curriculum was analyzed to see if those ends were being met by the means or methods of the curriculum. This analysis of means and ends permitted Charters to bring the means into clearer and more effective focus to the objectives or end of the curriculum. Charters felt that all methods and means of the curriculum should be functional, leading to the established objectives or ends of the curriculum. In that quest, he sought to establish a pragmatic relationship between the means and the ends of the curriculum. In so far as that relationship was identified, a curriculum structure could be said to be functional and that structure followed function. Charters hoped that by basing a curriculum on the maximum, the

curriculum would become more meaningful to the student and more efficient. As Charters stated:

By "functional analysis" is meant such analysis as makes explicit the logical relations between a function and the parts of the structure developed to carry out the function. By contrast, "structural analysis" means the analysis of the structure into its parts without an explicit statement of their functions. Functional analysis requires that after the analysis of the structure into its parts has been made, the relationship of each part of the performance of the function must be carefully scrutinized. The function in this sense becomes the standard by which a decision is made as to the value of any part of the structure. When the structure is being built up to fulfill a function, this function is the criterion by which to decide whether or not certain parts shall be added or omitted.

That maxim remained with Charters throughout the stages of his developing curricular activities and became clearer as those stages advanced. Those stages in which the maxim was used were Charters' earliest work with determining minimal essentials in school subjects, his work related to job analysis and finally his work with functional analysis. In all three stages, the maxim was used with growing complexity.

Minimum Essentials in School Subjects

Charters' research activities and interests at Winona, and later at Missouri, involved defining the commonly taught school subjects in functional terms. With the practical functions of the subjects defined, he felt that the teaching of non-essentials would be eliminated. In Teaching the Common Branches, written for rural teachers, Charters claimed that every school subject had an intrinsic function. For Charters, once the practical application or function of the commonly


14 Kirschner, "Education as Technology," p. 27.
taught subjects had been established any style or method of presentation could be
used as long as it was faithful to the function. Throughout his text, Charters
defined the functions of commonly taught subjects such as spelling, penmanship,
language, grammar, civics, history, reading, handcrafts, hygiene and agriculture.
He then gave examples of possible ways of instruction according to the determined
function of each subject. Charters stated that the functional role of teaching was:
"to assist pupils to appreciate and control the values of life. This means that the
school seeks to help pupils to do what they want to do. But, in addition, the
school is expected to teach them to appreciate what is worth doing." This
statement reveals that Charters held that what the student wanted to do might not
necessarily conform to the school curriculum. Charters continued: "It (the school)
should help them (the pupils) to discriminate between what is worth doing and what
is not, and should lead them to love the former and hate the latter. Children then
should be assisted in school not only to do what they want to do, but also to want to
do what is best for them to do." It was Charters' firm conviction that
predetermined functional subjects would keep the pupils' interest at a high level
and that pupils would have little difficulty realizing what is best for them. This
position demonstrates Charters' distance from the progressive principles of the
experimental naturalists of the Democratic Curriculum Movement. The question

\[15\] W.W. Charters, Teaching the Common Branches (Chicago: Houghton

\[16\] Ibid.

\[17\] Ibid. p. 308. Charters points out the danger inherent in a subject which
is not determined functionally and recalls the effect on a student in physiology
class who was asked to present a clear picture of the inside of the human body.
The student reportedly answered thus: "The human body consists of the head, chest
and stomach. The head contains the brains, if any. The chest holds the lungs, liver
and lights. The stomach consists of the bowels, of which there are five - a, e, i, o,
and u and sometimes w and y."
of who or what decides which functional subjects were to be included in the practical curriculum was a question that remained before Charters through his professional career. In his early career, he held that rural teachers "pick out the subjects that are most important for the children in the community in which they live, and teach them what they need of these from day to day." And again, "in every case, the thinking teacher and the thoughtful writer of texts must each decide upon what he thinks are the most important things for the children to study." 18 As a "thinking teacher" for teachers, Charters selected fourteen school subjects which he discussed in his Teaching of the Common Branches. His selection of these subjects was based on a consensus of the commonly taught subjects or of what society traditionally regarded as necessary for children to know. As Woelfel has said, those subjects were Charters' "central core of conventional subjects" 19 which was predetermined and functional.

Charters' attention to individual school subjects changed as he became more interested in a curriculum based on functionally analyzed subjects. As Charters' interests broadened to the total curriculum and the functional development of it, his reliance on the individual "thinking teacher" as curriculum builder changed. He sought an objective criteria to replace the "hunches" of intelligent curriculum writers or thinking teachers. He thus turned to the scientific method as a means by which he, as a curriculum builder, could be objective in his choices. Woelfel wrote of Charters' desire for objectivity in curriculum writing:

18 Charters, Common Branches, p. 326.
What is immediately needed to promote curricular reorganization is the execution of hundreds of technical studies designed to throw light on the knotty problems of selection of materials. Here the technique of activity or job analysis is pushed forward by Charters as the most likely instrument for the purpose. Activity analysis is defined as the type of educational engineering which lays the foundations and builds the skeletal framework for all curricula.  

Charters' interest in using science in determining curriculum was growing when he accepted a position at the University of Illinois.

**Charters and Job Analysis**

As discussed earlier, some of Charters' responsibilities at the University of Illinois related to the University's commitment to the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. Charters was administratively responsible for implementing a program to train teachers for vocational education. This vocational education program was concerned with teaching the trades, industry, agriculture, and home economics. Charters' responsibility was to teach persons who were skilled in vocational areas to instruct students who desired to learn a particular vocation. This vocational teacher-training gave Charters a new opportunity to use science in building teacher-training vocational curricula. He referred to the technique used as job analysis, a technique which he used successfully, with some refinement, through

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20 Ibid., p. 108

21 Segul, Mary L. "The Shaping of a Field of Specialization, Curriculum Making: A Critical Study of Selected Writing of Charles and Frank McMurry, Franklin Bobbitt, W.W. Charters, Harold Rugg, Hollis Caswell and John Dewey." (Ph.D. dissertation, Columbia University, 1964) p. 132. Segul, reporting on Charters' movement into Job Analysis said: "We can only guess whether it was this appointment (she referred to Charters' appointment at Carnegie Institute) or Bobbitt's book on the curriculum or some other event that marked the turning point in Charters' thought." It was "some other event", namely, Charters' involvement with the Smith-Hughes Act and vocational educational responsibility at the
the remainder of his professional career.22

Charters was not aware of all the particular skills required of the trade and industrial vocations around which he was to develop teacher-training programs. Being consistent with the earlier presupposition that structure follows function, Charters set out to determine the functional aspects of a particular trade or industry before developing a structure for teacher training in that trade or industry. To do this he used the scientific method and relied on measurement instruments such as the questionnaire, survey, interview, poll or skilled observer. By using these methods for determining skills required of a particular trade or industry, Charters believed he had achieved a degree of objectivity needed to build a Teacher education curriculum. Charters wanted curricular recommendations to be made on something other than "hunches." Job analysis, as a technique, could be compared to using a camera to photograph a particular job activity. The developed picture is then analyzed by the curriculum builder to determine the structure of the educational experiences. Because of the objective quality in determining the skills required of a job, Charters suggested that the final picture or work objective served as a standard or model. Charters even went so far as to suggest that the final objective might be the ideal. The quest for ideals moved him into a refinement of job analysis which will be discussed shortly. In speaking of job analysis, Charters said:

22 Kirschner, "Education As Technology" p. 2. While Kirschner does indicate rightly that Charters became involved in job analysis at the University of Illinois, he leads his reader to believe that Charters' further theoretical evolution into functional analysis meant the termination of job analysis type activities. A more correct statement on Charters' activities would have to include job analysis activities continuing throughout his career.
Job analysis is a term which smacks of its origin. It has been taken over from the industrial field where the job is the unit of operation. The term is used rather loosely, and in its application to the general educational field it has come to include not only the manual operations, but activities, duties, problems, difficulties, and thoughts. The function of job analysis is to determine what activities are carried on by individuals in the performance of tasks. It is a deliberate and persistent attempt to apply the method of analysis to constellations of activities from the functional point of view.

The height of Charters involvement with job analysis was reached when he left the University of Illinois for a position at Carnegie Institute as Director of the Research Bureau for Retail Training. While there, Charters conducted job analysis for countless trades and professions of which his two most famous are: Analysis of Secretarial Duties and Traits and Basic Materials for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum. Chapter four will examine in detail Charters' work in developing the Pharmacy study and its impact on pharmaceutical education and the profession in general. Charters continued his research on job analysis when he moved to the University of Pittsburgh. As was mentioned earlier, those days were the financial heydays for Charters and although success was plentiful, Jessie Allen Charters was growing less supportive of the professional road on which her husband was moving. She wanted him to be less occupied with a business career and more with an academic career.

As Charters became interested in job analysis, he began consulting at Stephens College. His work at Stephens, as has been reported, brought Charters the opportunity to reconstruct an entire curriculum on a functional basis. This complex activity at Stephens had the effect of refining Charters notion of job analysis in that the broadest curricular aim at Stephens was to prepare women for life. This was different from a curricular goal of, say, training someone to teach tool and dye skills. This change and expansion was expressed by Charters thusly:

Said to be a favorite portrait among family members. This photo was used for an oil painting which now hangs in the Charters Room at Stephens College. Photo courtesy of Charters Family.
As a method of curriculum construction it frankly assumes that the function of a curriculum is to provide material for efficient performance, conduct and behavior. The method of analysis is not new. The analyst who adopts the functional point of view in curriculum construction merely makes a whole-hearted attempt to apply analysis thoroughly to the situation which he is studying. The term functional analysis is a better name than is job analysis with its restricted connotation.  

Charters and Functional Analysis

Kirschner has said that Charters abandoned job analysis for functional analysis in that "he (Charters) came to realize that job analysis as a technique was too limited to deal with the really important curricular problems." Kirschner goes on to say that Charters felt that the complex duties of a librarian could not possibly be encompassed in a description of her job. Kirschner is correct in pointing out that Charters' evolution in educational theory was facilitated by more complex analyses. But he failed to point out that the Stephens College curriculum reconstruction was a most significant catalyst in Charters' reaching a new theoretical plateau. Charters reminisced about the beginnings of the curricular reconstruction at Stephens, and recalled some of the questions raised which forced him into a more complex analysis.

When the situation in 1921 is reviewed, it is now apparent that in addition to the functional approach a second major decision was made. The College established an educational engineering service. This was logical and necessary if the idea was to be translated into practice. If the students were to control their needs, perfect their activities, and develop their patterns of conduct, scores of questions needed to be answered. What should be the educational objectives of the College? What are the needs of the students? What areas should be studied? What ideals and values should be emphasized? How can the student be aided in putting into practice what they learn in theory? What are the most efficient methods of instruction? How is the achievement of the students to be measured? What are the most effective procedures in administering the program?


And when questions such as these are answered on paper, a parallel series of questions arises as the plans are put into practice in the life of the institution.  

Questions these indicated that Charters developed a more elaborate and complex system in which to scientifically analyze and build a curriculum using the functional approach. Whereas job analysis scientifically reported certain skills required of a trade and a means to acquire those skills, i.e. the functional curriculum, functional analysis in curriculum building was to analyze scientifically what a situation was and how it ought to be. Charters' hope for functional analysis was that the empirical method, i.e. use of polls, surveys, questionnaires, interviews and observations could be used to establish concretely what a functional curriculum at Stephens ought to be. This pursuit moved Charters away from finding the standard or "best method" in job analysis to an attempt to discover scientifically ideas which he claimed were the driving forces behind activities. Charters had moved from questions and analysis of jobs to questions and analysis of life itself. As he stated:

> All men strive to secure satisfaction through the performance of activities under the control of their ideas. This is the great formal objective of life and as such determines the aim of education.  

To carry out the task of this broadened curriculum engineering and keep the process on a scientific track, Charters developed the following protocol:

First, determine the major objectives of education by a study of the life of man in its social setting.

Second, analyze these objectives into ideals and activities and continue the analysis to the level of working units.

Third, arrange these in the order of importance.

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27 Charters, *Curriculum Construction* p. 27.
Fourth, raise to positions of higher order in this list those ideals and activities which are high in value for children but low in value for adults.

Fifth, determine the number of the most important items of the resulting list which can be handled in the time allotted to school education, after deducting those which are better learned outside of school.

Sixth, collect the best practices of the race in handling these ideals and activities.

Seventh, arrange the material so obtained in proper instructional order, according to the psychological nature of children.

This protocol, a blend of techniques used in job analysis and new techniques of functional analysis, was implemented by gathering large amounts of data. Charters collected data at Stephens by using several research techniques which he developed. Ankrum claimed the most popular of these measuring techniques were: activity analysis, job analysis, trait analysis, item analysis, self analysis, error analysis, difficulty analysis, the use of expert opinion, use of committees, use of conference method, use of interviews, questionnaires, unrecorded specifics, importance of individual research, achievement tests and diaries. 29

The theory and methods of functional analysis were practical throughout the remainder of Charters' professional career. In summarizing his efforts at Stephens, he said:

At the end of twenty five years of work with a changing faculty but a permanent institution, my pleasure comes in part from the tools we have invented and the stucture we have developed; but chiefly it comes from the 'esprit de corps' of the faculty towards efficiency, experimentation and research. We have a faculty of intellectual athletes, in excellent condition, who have not accumulated the fatty tissue of self-satisfaction. They are mentally lean, high strung, and avid for improvement - not satisfied with talk about improvement, but chiefly interested in a program of action.

28 Ibid., p. 102.

29 W.E. Ankrum, "The Implementation of Educational Philosophy and a Program of Educational Research in the Curricular Growth of Stephens College." (Ed.D. dissertation University of Missouri, 1951) See this study for a detailed description of how Charters used measurement instruments at Stephens College.
Dr. Wallace W. Charters, '98

W.W. Charters, Sr. c. 1945.

Photo courtesy of Mills Memorial Library, Research Collection, McMaster University, Ontario.
that is not considered to be complete until the instruments have been used and satisfying results have been obtained. Stephens College is not so noteworthy for its progressive ideas, at least by many institutions. Rather its notable accomplishments lie in its passion for engineering its ideas. On the campus, all are operational engineers; many are developmental and constructive engineers.

It is not thinkable that the impetus of three decades can be quickly dissipated. Nothing is to be feared in the future except smug self-satisfaction and blind imitation of other institutions. It is reasonable to believe that experimentation, evaluation, and efficient instructional operation are now a permanent heritage for us and our successors to cultivate, expand, and enrich through the coming decades.

Some Critical Reviews of W. W. Charters, Sr.

Charters earlier work with job analysis did not cause criticism by the scholarly community as much as his later work in functional analysis. Job analysis was seen as a simple empirical tabulation of data. By moving into the area of ideals and suggesting that ideals could be measured empirically, Charters entered into the world of philosophy. Philosophers noted his theory and responded accordingly. Those who looked at functional analysis most negatively were firm advocates of experimental naturalism. Patty, in his treatment of Bobbitt, Charters and Peters, elaborates clearly the philosophical motivation behind Charters theories of functional analysis. Along with Kirschner, he argues that Charters' world view was static, opposed to the organic process interpretation of reality, and based on curriculum building by consensus. Patty's case against Charters was that his approach was mechanistic, closed, and allowed for no social reconstruction.

32 Kirschner, "Education as Technology," p. 142.
Patty's criticism was not new for Charters. Nine years earlier, Charters wrote in defense of himself and responded to those who said his techniques were not preparing students to handle problems which might arise in later life. Charters, believing that the curriculum should expose the student to solutions of present-day problems, presented by the teacher, said:

In the first place, it is possible and desirable for teachers to present to the student the best solutions for the problems of today. In certain fields we can locate these best methods by consensus of expert judgment... We can in quantitative fields secure more objectives judgments in which we can ascertain the best method of acting with great accuracy ... But whether we use judgment or measurement as our criteria for evaluation, it is possible for teachers to give to the student what they sincerely believe to be the best known solutions for present-day problems.

Charters also believed that with the solution of the problem, the teacher ought to help the student to think through the problem to the proposed best solution. He continued:

"If, to the objective of providing best known solutions is added the principle of teaching the student to think his way through these solutions, the future is still better cared for." 34

In responding to Charters, Dewey and Patty would have said that engaging the students in the intellectual process of problem solving would mean that the students have a problem which needs solving and that the thoughtful way to the solution be left to students. In this point of view, the teacher's role would be that of a passive guide to the student. Charters' comments indicate that the "present day problems" may not be the student's and that the intelligent "best" solutions may have been the teacher's and not the student's.


34 Ibid., p. 142.
The fact that Charters brought up the thinking process in his defense, could be an example of what the other critics said of him in that he was difficult to "pin down" or "pigeonhole" on educational issues. Woelfel was strongest in this regard when he said:

Charters believes himself to be aloof from partisanship towards either the left wing or the right wing of educational theory ... To Charters it means a mild tolerance for the principles that new views may contain elements of real value. When new views embody ideas contrary to what he considers sound, Charters characteristically moves away from his idyllic 'center' to pounce upon them. ...He is entitled to his convictions; the more clearly they are uttered the better will it be for all who think about educational problems. The author simply wishes to contend that Charters only adds to confusion by claiming non-partisanship.

Although accused of justifying the status quo of old time values by using the new science, Charters continued to advance his curricular construction techniques. Although he was strongly critized, many listened to and followed his leadership.

G.M. Wilson of Boston University was a critic who wrote a poignant review of Charters' Curriculum Construction. Wilson believed that the book was a thoroughgoing effort to stimulate the constructive reorganization of the curriculum, especially that of elementary education. Wilson wrote:

Curriculum Construction should be very stimulating to teachers, supervisors, and administrators. The schools are given a new function and a new view point. No longer are they to be mere dispensers of accumulated information, but hence forth active agents of the community in defining aims and formulating ideals, in analyzing activities and noting short-comings in their performance, in gathering and organizing new information and in applying information new and old to the solution of present-day problems.

M.C. Otto of the University of Wisconsin reviewed The Teaching of Ideals. Otto believed that the book would appeal to teachers who were interested in "teaching

He commented that the book contained well documented sections on the selection of ideals, the measurement of moral attainments, and the comparison of theories of moral instruction. Commenting on Charters' style, Otto wrote:

Occasionally they (the reader) may wish for a more adequate, perhaps richer, treatment of problems, but they will have nothing to complain of in the matter of clearness of style and practicality of intention. If they faithfully put the doctrine of the book to work, they will doubtless be rewarded with evidence of success.

For myself I don't like the book at all. The author shows no appreciation of the failure we adults have made of our world and are at the moment intent upon making of it. What intrigues him is the development of method which will more certainly and more efficiently perpetrate the generally accepted folk-ways. In this he is the typical schoolman, and this standpoint is, in my judgment, deplorable that no surface excellence can make any impression.

Charters' movement into the area of ideals and their scientific arrangement caused other educators to take note and raise counter arguments. Perhaps his most famous critic was Boyd H. Bode. Charters had met Bode at the University of Illinois where they were faculty members. When Charters went to Carnegie, Bode left Illinois for a position at Ohio State. This relationship was rekindled several years later when Charters arrived at Ohio State. Of their relationship, Margaret Lyon recalled:

When their paths united again at O.S.U., their friendship blossomed and they spent many evenings sitting on one another's front porches. Their friendship was personal rather than philosophical, because their minds worked on different levels. W.W.C. accepted certain basic assumptions and developed the methodology to implement them. Bode's whole thinking was in the area of testing assumptions. The two men respected one another professionally.


38 Lyon, Concerning W.W.C., Section V, p. 1.
Although friends, Bode did examine critically Charters' educational assumptions. 39

A particular concern of Bode's was demonstrated by a research project of Theodore Stone, one of his graduate students. Stone claimed that Charters' statement "All men strive for satisfaction through the performance of activities under the control of ideals" was hedonistic in implication. Concerned also with the artificial separation of ideals and activities, Stone said:

He (Charters) thus twisted the conception of ideals and activities to justify his technical procedure, but his theoretic compromise has found him out practically in the unsuitability of his procedure to demands and processes of education. ... Charters' failure to think through his doctrine of ideals accounts for his looseness and ambiguity in defining his terms, and for his practical acceptance of ideals as fixed things, contents. The result is that he never locates or develops the educational implications of the nature and function of ideals in a growing experience. 40

For Stone, the nature and function of ideals cannot be made explicit in educational theory and practice on a one time basis - "even if it is done with great foresight." 41 Stone claimed that a doctrine of ideals developed out of the perception of a principle of growth inherent in individual and social behavior.

Stone continued:

Ideals cannot be defined in terms of function without some theory as to the meaning and purpose of function with relation to each other. Nor can this meaning be fastened upon and settled in the abstract ... From this point of view, a "true" doctrine of ideals must be explicit with regard to some fundamental principle of growth, and must be backed up and rendered meaningful by some general social philosophy. Honesty may very well rank as an important ideal, and it may very well concern itself with adjustment to specific situations. But to say that honesty is adequately comprehended by taking a consensus of opinion and marking out a list of specific trait-action, is something else again. Unless consensus is followed up by a guiding social theory and interpreted by some insight in the processes of growth, 42 is nothing more than an empty affirmation of customary morality.


41 Ibid., p. 35. 42 Ibid.
Although the degree to which Bode was involved in Stone's critique of Charters cannot be established, his signature appeared on the title page of her thesis. Although Bode was a critic of Charters, their friendship did continue throughout their lives. Bode summarized the educational times in which Charters and he lived by saying:

Dare traditionalists look with a cold analytic gaze at the traditions which they revere? Dare scientists emerge from the busy - work of research laboratories to air their soul in philosophy? And dare philosophers of the new dawn unite to shape a program which shall at once combine tradition and science into enlightened practice? 43

Attention will next be directed to Charters' analysis of pharmacy. The next chapter will examine Charters' impact on pharmacy and pharmaceutical education.

43 Woelfel, Critical Review p. 223.
CHAPTER IV
THE PHARMACEUTICAL SURVEY - 1920 to JULY 1925

Introduction

Chapter IV will examine W.W. Charters' survey of pharmaceutical education conducted from 1923 to 1925. The published report of the survey which appeared in 1927 was entitled Basic Material for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum. This Chapter will include events and issues in pharmacy which led to the survey, a description of survey activities of W.W. Charters and his staff, and a review of pharmacy literature during the survey period.

The School Survey in America

The school survey has had a long history in American education. Many distinguished educators have used the survey as an organized means of gathering information upon which intelligent judgment could be based. One can recall James Carter's survey of Massachusetts schools in 1826, Henry Barnard's study of the Rhode Island schools in 1845, and Joseph Rice's study of 1893. More recent surveying of schools was done in the early twentieth century by persons such as C. Kendell, P. Hanus, E.C. Moore and Elwood Cubberley. The school survey at the turn of the twentieth century was an outgrowth of the "Measurement Movement." The motto of the membership of that movement, as uttered by E.L. Thorndike, was "whatever exists at all, exists in some amount." With that directive in mind, the surveyers of that time attempted to quantify what was found in schools so that a level of objectivity could be established. Once the survey had collected data which could be measured, an analysis was made with the results used in further decisions.
Job analysis was a particular refinement of surveying techniques which sought objectivity by quantitatively determining the knowledge base, skills and habits needed for successful vocational performance. Charters, as has been mentioned, had used job analysis as a technique for curriculum engineering with particularly high success at Carnegie Institute of Technology and the University of Pittsburgh. It was also indicated that Charters' notion of job analysis was refined at Pittsburgh to include a notion of functional analysis. In 1923, W.W. Charters, Sr. was introduced to the world of pharmacy. This introduction was destined to become a long and lasting relationship.

Noteworthy Issues in American Pharmacy, 1900 - 1920

Pharmaceutical educators and Pharmacy leaders sought to bring uniformity to the pharmaceutical curriculum in order to raise educational and practice standards. In 1900, the American Conference of Pharmaceutical Faculties was formed by representatives of twenty-one Departments and Colleges of Pharmacy. According to Blauch and Webster, this conference replaced the Section on Education and Legislation of the American Pharmaceutical Association which had been the pharmacy group to consider educational matters.

The Conference became the first standardizing body for colleges of Pharmacy. By action taken in 1904, members of the conference have to (1) require for admission that students be at least seventeen years of age and have a 'common school education, entitling the student to enter high school' and (2) require of each candidate for graduation not less than 500 hours given to lecture and recitations and not less than 600 hours of laboratory work, such work to be given in a period of not less than 40 weeks.

The work of the Conference of Faculties centered on developing standards related to pre-professional education, the length of professional education and, most importantly, the pedagogical content of professional education. By 1917 the Conference had voted that all entering students were to have completed four years of high school. This pre-professional requirement was to be implemented in September, 1923. Clair A. Dye, in his presidential address to the American Conference of Pharmaceutical Faculties in 1921, expressed optimism that the high school graduation standard would improve standards in professional education. He said:

With the new requirement effective in 1923 a new order of things will confront such schools and they will have lost one of their strongest arguments for continuing their low standards.²

The length of time for professional education was also studied by the Conference. In 1907 the Conference required not less than fifty weeks of study which occupied two years. The curriculum requirements for graduation were then extended to three years in a recommendation made in 1920.³ Conference schools were to begin the three year curriculum in 1925. When Charters began his survey in 1923, the Conference was discussing increasing the length of professional schooling to include four years. The gradual lengthening of the pharmaceutical curriculum in the early twentieth century was marked by stormy controversy between schools

affiliated with universities and those of a proprietary for profit nature. Equally controversial were the efforts made in the same period to standardize the content of the pharmaceutical curriculum. The Pharmaceutical Syllabus, first published in 1910, attempted on a national level to standardize the pharmacy curriculum. The Syllabus was also seen as criteria on which to base state licensure examinations. Hope for the Syllabus, in 1904, was expressed by Blauch and Webster in their work:

The advantages which it was thought a national syllabus would have were: (1) it would give all the state boards of Pharmacy a uniform outline of the ground to be covered by their examination; (2) it would give examinees definite knowledge of the preparation expected by the boards; (3) it would give the Colleges a minimum outline of the ground to be covered in the preparation of their students for board examinations; and (4) it would lead to such uniformity in board examination that the endorsement of licenses would become possible when they were based on examinations in accord with the Syllabus. Charters was involved in his Survey of Pharmacy when the third edition of the Syllabus was published by the National Syllabus Committee in 1922. An addendum to the third edition outlining the three year pharmaceutical curriculum was published in 1925. Along with internal issues, pharmaceutical education was also affected by outside influences.

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4 It should be pointed out that numerous different professional and academic degrees were awarded to graduates of pharmacy curricula depending on the academic program of a given school. Blauch pointed out the following degrees were popular in 1918 in Schools of Pharmacy: Ph.G., PH.C., B.S. in Phar., D. Phar., M. Phar., and M.S. in Phar. See Blauch, The Pharmaceutical Curriculum, p. 18.

5 The New York State Board of Pharmacy was given credit for its significant contribution in the establishment of the Pharmaceutical Syllabus.

An extremely significant outside influence for pharmacy and other health related fields was the publication of the Flexner Report of 1910. Abraham Flexner, a medical educator, was commissioned by the Carnegie Foundation to survey American medical education in the early twentieth century. His findings revealed that medical education was as diverse as there were numbers of "schools". Educational standards were for the most part non-existent. The "Report" described a state of education akin to chaos. After Flexner unveiled his findings, medical educators began to standardize and generally improve the educational structure. The net effect of these reform activities in medical education was to encourage other health fields to improve their own educational programs and practices. A call for a similar study in pharmaceutical education was issued shortly after Flexner's Report was made public, a call that was to continue for thirteen years.

Call for Standardization in Pharmaceutical Education and a Survey of Schools

- 1920 to 1923

The task of establishing unified standards in pharmaceutical education was attempted by such national directives from professional groups as the requirement for high school graduation, the recommendation to lengthen the professional curriculum and the establishment of the National Syllabus Committee. While these three efforts to standardize in the 1920's facilitated that cause, there existed in the pharmaceutical literature of that period a call for even greater

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7 A. Flexner, Medical Education in the United States and Canada, A Report to the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (Washington: Science and Health Publication, 1910).

standardization and study of pharmacy schools. The Conference of Pharmaceutical Faculties had encouraged a survey of pharmacy schools and colleges similar to Flexners' investigation. In a summary of the proceedings of the 1920 meeting, Secretary Theodore J. Bradley reported "that the Conference take steps to secure an investigation and classification of pharmacy schools of the United States." A.B. Dinwiddie, President of Tulane University, addressed the Pharmaceutical Faculties at a meeting in 1921 and spoke of the need for educational standards. Dinwiddie, favoring a survey similar to Flexners' for pharmacy, said:

If a survey of the schools of pharmacy is made through the Carnegie Foundation, they would undoubtedly take the recommendations of your body, when they are in final shape, or else study all of the schools of pharmacy separately, try to find their common factor and present a careful analysis of the whole subject. I believe in the survey, as by that means we shall find where we are "at".

Dinwiddie mentioned that dental schools during that period were also engaged in developing standards for their schools. In 1921, William B. Day, Dean of the College of Pharmacy at the University of Illinois, presented his opinion on standardization in schools of pharmacy to the Section on Education and Legislation of the American Pharmaceutical Association (A.Ph.A.). In his opening remarks, Day reviewed the trends of standardization in the pharmacy profession. The trends he observed were standardization of drugs, chemicals and galenicals, and were reported as the part of the revision committees of the United States

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9 Bradley to Lyman, 6 August 1920, MSS 266, Box 20, Folder 2, Rufus Ashley Lyman Papers, State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison.

Pharmacopoeia and National Formulary.\textsuperscript{11} Day also saw movements towards standardization on the part of the National Association of Boards of Pharmacy (N.A.B.P.) in state licensing examinations. In describing the Pharmaceutical Faculties, he said of their work towards standards:

The American Conference of Pharmaceutical Faculties is discussing educational requirements, standards for admissions to schools of pharmacy, standards for the courses given by these schools, standards for the equipment of the schools and even suggests standardization for faculties themselves!\textsuperscript{12}

Day warned:

Standards for schools of pharmacy are necessary, but they should be broad standards, capable of general application and, of course, only intended as a minimum upon which development along several lines may be based. Schools of pharmacy must develop according to their opportunities and their environment; they cannot all, like the victims of Procrustes, be made to fit the same bed.\textsuperscript{13}

Day also placed pharmacy schools "far behind our allied professions of medicine and dentistry."\textsuperscript{14} The method whereby standards were to be established was an important theme in B. Olive Coles' comments in 1922. Coles, a member of the University of Maryland College of Pharmacy, presented the following remarks to the Section on Education and Legislation:

...American Pharmacy to serve the public as it should, and at the same time secure for itself the proper position and prestige, an aggressive demand should be made that the schools of pharmacy of the entire country be standardized. Pharmacy should establish a concrete, practical intel-

\textsuperscript{11} These represent the two recognized national professional compendia for the standardization and assay of drugs.

\textsuperscript{12} W.B. Day, "The Standardization of Schools of Pharmacy," \textit{The Journal of the American Pharmaceutical Association} 12 (February 1922): 152.

\textsuperscript{13} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{14} Ibid.
lectual ideal and the public should be made aware of that ideal. A
specified degree from a school of pharmacy should mean the same thing in
every state. And it is desirable that this standardization be made from a
more or less academic standpoint. 15

Coles' statement was significant in that it called for the development of standards
"from a more or less academic standpoint." As an example of research related to
quality standards, Coles cited the methodology used by Professor J.C. Beard in his,
"The Opinions of Teachers Concerning Degrees in Pharmacy." Coles stated that
the majority of faculty also desired standardization of the curriculum offered by
pharmacy schools. 16 Coles then raised pragmatic questions of who should conduct
the study to determine standards and who would finance this study. He believed
that if outside agencies such as the Rockefeller or Carnegie Foundations would not
fund such a study then the American Pharmaceutical Association in conjunction
with the Pharmaceutical Faculties, the National Association of Boards of Phar-
macy and the Pharmaceutical Syllabus Committee "should as one undertake the
work." 17

By 1923, the call for an academic study of pharmacy schools was again
raised. Rufus A. Lyman, Chairman of the Executive Committee and Journal Editor
of the Conference of Pharmaceutical Faculties, lamented the fact that:

So keenly has the Conference felt this need that annually for a number of
years it has, either through its officers, its executive committee, or a
specially appointed committee implored the Carnegie Foundation to under­
take this work, but to no avail. 18

of the American Pharmaceutical Association" 12 (January 1923): 44.
16.Ibid.
17.Ibid. p. 45. It should be pointed out that the N.A.B.P. was interested in
the standardization of the curriculum in that interstate reciprocity of licensure
would be more efficiently accomplished.
18.Rufus A. Lyman, "Editors Note - The Department of the American
Conference of Pharmaceutical Faculties" Journal of the American Pharmaceutical
Association 12 (April 1923): 270.
The reason for the Carnegie Foundation's unwillingness to fund a study of schools of pharmacy can be traced back to 1915 and Abraham Flexner. Lyman and other leaders in Pharmacy were shocked to learn that Flexner did not consider pharmacy to be a profession. In his study, "Is Social Work a Profession?" Flexner established a set of definitions for professional standards. Flexner claimed that pharmacy was an unintellectual discipline which had no social ends. He contended that pharmacists had profit rather than service motives. For him, the service the pharmacist rendered to the public was of secondary responsibility to the physician. Flexner's position had a profound effect on (both pharmaceutical and other areas), such as government. For example, the Surgeon General's Office refused to grant pharmacists commissions during World War I. Pharmacists were not recognized as health professionals by the Surgeon General and were assigned to serve in areas outside their profession. These early disparaging events increased the call for a study of the schools of pharmacy.

In 1923, Rufus A. Lyman, Dean of the School of Pharmacy at the University of Nebraska and editor of the *Pharmaceutical Faculties*, conducted a survey of the Conference as to what its "next step" should be. He explained his survey of opinion in the following way:

Now that the Conference has gone to a four-year high school requirement for entrance and has definitely agreed upon dropping the two-year course beginning with 1925, I am raising the question as to what you think is the next most important step or steps for the Conference to take in its educational program. Will you not give me the results of your thoughts in a clear-cut statement? ...This will enable every man to know what the other men are thinking.

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The results of Lyman's "next step" opinion was a clear mandate that a number of schools wanted higher educational standards to be established and they felt an academic survey of Conference schools would be an effective means to that end.21 Edward H. Krans, Dean of the School of Pharmacy at the University of Michigan, spoke most directly of the need for a school survey when he said:

It appears to us to be much more desirable that a comprehensive and searching survey of the Colleges of Pharmacy of the country be undertaken at as early a date as possible, and since the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching will, in the very near future, have completed its survey of Colleges of Dentistry, it probably would be well to again urge the Foundation to undertake a similar survey for pharmacy. As I understand it, the Foundation has on several occasions been requested to undertake such a survey but on account of projects already underway was unable to report favorably upon the request. In discussing the matter recently with a representative of the Foundation, I was led to believe that conditions have changed somewhat more sympathetically than in the past.22

Several months after the "next step" question had been raised, Krans wrote to Lyman:

I was pleased to note that the question of a survey of pharmacy by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching is also considered by a number of other contributors as of having fundamental importance at this time ...It is quite likely that our State Association which meets in Grand Rapids, June 12 and 14 will adopt resolutions urging the Carnegie Foundation to undertake such a survey. If other states associations have not taken action in this matter would it not be well to suggest it to their officers and the pharmaceutical educators concerned?23

21 Other issues raised for being the "next step" in conference concern were: the practice of three day school week being continued when a five day week should be the standard, and that the three year curriculum be lengthened to four years. Dean J.A. Koch of the University of Pittsburgh School of Pharmacy held that the implementation of the three year curriculum by 1925 of member schools should be the concern of the Conference. He felt that many schools would not meet the three year course by that time and "a little diplomatic missionary work" was needed to bring compliance.


The Michigan resolution was adopted by the local association membership and resolved that a school Survey be commenced. It was further resolved that the Carnegie Foundation be urged to conduct this Survey, given the fact that, "the Foundation is the best qualified to undertake such a searching and critical study in view of its experience and splendid results in the allied professions of Medicine and Dentistry." Along with recommending that other State Associations adopt a similar resolution, the Michigan State Association brought pressure on the Carnegie Foundation by a further resolution which stated that copies of their resolution be sent to the President of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, to the President of the University of Michigan, to the members of the State Board of Pharmacy and to various Pharmaceutical Journals. Although this campaign of one State Association was launched to bring pressure on the Carnegie Foundation, in the final analysis it was ineffective in changing the position that pharmacy was not a profession. Thus the Foundation held to its position and would not sponsor a survey.

The Pharmaceutical Syllabus - 1906 to 1923

The "Syllabus" was an attempt to bring order to the chaotic state of pharmaceutical education at the turn of the twentieth century. Pharmacy schools of that period were of two types: those affiliated with Universities and those of a proprietary nature. The rivalry between the two types added to the resistance to change. As was reported by Blauch and Webster, the idea for a "Syllabus" was

conceived to unify schools in New York but the idea quickly grew and assumed a
dnational character. In 1906 the first National Syllabus Committee was formed and
was sponsored by the N.A.B.P., the Section on Education and Legislation of the
A.Ph.A. and the American Conference of Pharmaceutical Faculties. The effort of
the Committee was the publication in 1910 of the "Pharmaceutical Syllabus." By
1922 a 3rd Edition of the "Syllabus" had been printed and in 1925 an addendum to
the third edition appeared which described a three year Pharmacy curriculum.

The chairman of the "Syllabus" during that period was Theodore J. Bradley, Dean of the Massachusetts College of Pharmacy. Bradley played an
important role in bringing the "Syllabus" to its third edition, but that role was often
seen by others as obstructionist. The relationship between Bradley and Lyman
reflected personalities with opposite perspectives in matters related to the future
of pharmaceutical education. Bradley represented the private school interest
whereas Lyman was loyal to the large public university interest. In responding to
Lyman's "next step" issue, Bradley felt that enough had been done in matters of
entrance requirements (high school graduation) and lengthening the curriculum
(three year program). He further thought that the school Survey could occupy the
interest of the Conference and interestingly offered support. In a letter he said:

...in the matter of entrance requirements and length of course and that it
will be a mistake to try for any further advance along these lines at this
time.

It is my feeling that we shall have enough of a program for this year if
we take care of routine matters and do any effective work on the project
of the classification of pharmacy schools. This is already on the program
and it is an important and delicate subject.26

25 For a detailed study of the evolution of the "Pharmaceutical Syllabus"
see Lloyd E. Blauch and George L. Webster, The Pharmaceutical Curriculum, pp.
18-25.

26 Bradley to Lyman, 16 February 1923, MSS 266, Box 20, Folder 2, Lyman
Papers, State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison.
Bradley's support for a Survey might have meant that he felt a Survey or classification could have little effect for change and that a survey study would turn attention away from the more immediate and threatening issue of a longer curriculum (four years) and increased requirements for admissions (pre-professional college or university study).

The Survey of Pharmacy and W.W. Charters, Sr.

The attempts by the early 1920s to secure funds from the Carnegie Foundation for a study of pharmacy schools had not been successful. While Dean Edward Krans of Michigan was continuing his efforts, the Conference was also pursuing other avenues of funding. Another philanthropic group interested in professional education was the Commonwealth Fund. There is evidence that as early as the summer of 1922 that group had expressed its desire to carry out a study of pharmacy. Professor C.W. Johnson of the University of Washington College of Pharmacy reported at the Twenty-Fourth Annual Meeting of the Conference of Pharmaceutical Faculties that the Commonwealth Foundation was interested in pharmacy. He said:

I first heard of this question last fall when our President returned from a trip East and announced that he was a member of a committee of the Commonwealth Fund to study pharmacy. I gained the idea at that time that this study was being undertaken to determine what a pharmacist should know and hence, what a student in pharmacy should be taught to prepare him properly as a pharmacist. I believe that this study has very great possibilities and that it should be attacked from every possible angle.

27 The president of the Conference was Dean Charles H. LaWall of Philadelphia College of Pharmacy and Science - 1922-1923. Johnson was elected president and served in the period 1923-1924.

The Commonwealth Fund's interest in vocational and professional education was carried out in part under the supervision of W.W. Charters, Sr. As has been pointed out earlier, Charters had made use of a technique of job analysis while at Carnegie Institute and the University of Pittsburgh. Prior to an interest in pharmacy, the Commonwealth Fund had supported Charters' study of the traits of real estate salesmen and of vocational millinery. While at Carnegie Institute, Charters met Dean Julius A. Koch of the College of Pharmacy at the University of Pittsburgh through Dr. Farrand, head of the Commonwealth Fund. Koch was responsible, in a large part, for sensitizing Charters to the needs of pharmacy and the importance of a school survey. Koch was also responsible for introducing W.W. Charters to the Conference of Faculties at their 1923 meeting at Asheville, N.C. Although Charters was unable to attend that meeting for unexplained reasons, Dean Koch presented his paper on the "Classification and Study of Pharmaceutical Education from a Functional Standpoint."

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29 W.W. Charters, "A Study of Traits for Real Estate Salesman" Box J.D. 515, Charters Papers, Ohio State University, Columbus. The Commonwealth Fund was a charitable corporation formed under the membership corporations law of the state of New York in 1918. It was founded by Mrs. Stephan V. Harkness.

30 Ibid. Box J.D. 512.

31 The importance Koch played in preliminary negotiation for the Pharmacy Survey conducted by Charters was described by Robert P. Fischelis who was then Dean of the New Jersey College of Pharmacy and served as a consultant to Charters. This information was obtained in a telephone interview conducted on November 13, 1979 between Dr. Fischelis and J. Russell.

32 Koch could not have known Charters too well in that the "Proceeding" reported that he introduced Charters as "Dean of the School of Education of the University of Illinois." In 1923 Charters was at Carnegie Institute of Technology, having left Illinois in 1919.
Koch began by describing a lunch he had attended in January with Dr. Farrand and Charters. Farrand told Koch that $12,000 had been set aside annually to study educational problems, and that the Commonwealth Fund was interested in studying the problems of professional education. Of this interest, Farrand was reported to have said:

They were at a loss just which profession to take up but believing that pharmacy offered the best foothold it was selected. Four thousand dollars has been set aside to investigate the feasibility of taking up the study of pharmaceutical education from the functional or objective standpoint.⁴³

Koch then described several meetings with Charters to discuss pharmacy. Koch said of Charters:

He (Charters) felt that he didn't know anything about pharmacy and that he had to have somebody who had a little knowledge of it to advise him and so we got together for several evenings.⁴⁴

The outcome of those meetings was productive; Koch became enthusiastic with Charters' functional approach and a survey protocol was established. This experimental design would look at the professional rather than the commercial side of pharmacy practice. Schools of Pharmacy would not be surveyed, but, rather, the practice of pharmacy would be studied so that a curriculum could be built based on job analysis. As Koch said:

In other words, they found out what a man was going to do and from that they determined what he is going to be required to learn to do that properly.⁴⁵

In describing the method used in a pilot survey of pharmacy practice, Koch reported that Charters believed that by collecting and analyzing prescriptions it could be determined what a pharmacist needed to know. Pharmacists were also

⁴⁴Ibid.
⁴⁵Ibid.
observed in their work activities. Koch further reported optimistically that after visiting thirty stores and comparing notes, the technique of conducting a practice would be known. Charters also believed that an inventory of materials in a pharmacy would also be necessary in the Survey. To assist in the development of the pilot protocol, Dean Willis G. Gregory of the University of Buffalo College of Pharmacy and two of his faculty colleagues, Professors A.B. Lemon and L.M. Monell were called upon. It is interesting to note that S.P. Capen, Chancellor of the University of Buffalo, was chairman of the division of educational research of the Commonwealth Foundation. Although Koch was enthusiastic, Charters' desire to do a Pharmacy Survey seemed to precede Koch's as is revealed by the following discussion:

Dr. Charters, when we first got together, said that he wanted to be sure that the pharmaceutical bodies would feel that this thing was a desirable thing. I said to him at first, "Why, we don't need this. We have a Syllabus which covers these matters thoroughly," and he said, "Good, let's see the Syllabus," and so I took out a couple of copies and he studied them for a while and he said, "That's fine! We shall see that it works right along that same line. It is right in most ways but in one or two ways we will prove that that Syllabus is wrong and needs revision if we go through with what we started to do." \(^{36}\)

After working with Charters, Koch became a supporter of the idea of a functional survey. After completing his report to the Conference, Koch sought their advice as to the Survey being continued or stopped. In that light he said:

...Dr. Charters has said it will depend upon what you think, and what the Board of Pharmacy thinks, and what the Pharmacists generally think, about its value whether we go on with it or not. It depends upon you as to whether this is to go on. He asked me to have you appoint an advisory committee of probably five members to tell us what is right and what we should do. \(^{37}\)

After hearing this report, Dean Wulling of the University of Minnesota College of Pharmacy moved that the Conference unanimously endorse the Survey and that a

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\(^{36}\)Ibid., p. 96.  \(^{37}\)Ibid.
sub-committee be established. The notion received a second. In the discussion that followed, Rufus Lyman raised the strongest concern that pharmacy was more than "puting up prescriptions!" He argued that studying just prescriptions might be too narrow of an investigation. Although these arguments were mentioned, it was felt that the functional study would not be a total study of practice and that other studies of practice should follow. With the discussion ended, the motion was carried. Charters had received the support which he sent Koch to find. Job analysis and the broader functional analysis were to be applied to pharmacy. In an editorial on the decision of the Conference of Faculties, it was reported:

For years men have speculated regarding the knowledge that a pharmacist should have to enable him to discharge his duties properly. The men who have had the responsibility of this training have always been seeking to improve their methods of equipping the prospective pharmacist with knowledge necessary for successful public service.

The Commonwealth Fund, in conjunction with the American Conference of Pharmaceutical Faculties, has undertaken the study of pharmaceutical education from the functional point of view.

The news editorial continued and listed faculty associated with the study. These were:

Research Staff: 38

W.W. Charters, Sr., Director
A.B. Lemon, Associate Director
L.M. Monell, Associate Director

Advisory Committee: 39

38 G.A. Barone of the University of Buffalo was later added as an assistant, as was R.P. Fischelis in the capacity of editorial consultant.

39 H.C. Christensen, secretary of N.A.B.P., was added later and that appointment indeed proved important to the Survey. J.H. Webster, added later, was past President of the National Association of Retail Druggists (N.R.D.A.) and W.H. Zeigler, added later, was past President of the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy, which had been the American Conference of Pharmaceutical Faculties up to 1925.
In summing up the hope for the Study it was said:

It is intended to make the survey both intensive and comprehensive so that the data afforded may serve as a proper basis in determining the knowledge a pharmacist should have to serve the public adequately. This will necessitate a careful study of all sorts and conditions of stores in the most widely diverse localities to ensure proper results.  

After Koch had been appointed chairman of the Advisory Committee, he set out on a campaign to bring the news of the Commonwealth Study to all pharmacists. In a series of three articles, he explained in detail the reason, goals and method of the study. In the first article, Koch outlined the method to be used and topics to be studied. Of these topics to be studied and analyzed, he mentioned duties of pharmacists in matters related to: (1) ordinary sale of drugs over-the-counter; (2) specific knowledge regarding drugs; (3) knowledge required to compound prescriptions properly; (4) daily routine of drug store practice; (5) Latin of the prescription; (6) modes of manufacturing; (7) knowledge of physiology and anatomy; (8) necessary apparatus or equipment for the pharmacist; (9) ethical principles; and (10) sound business principles. Koch indicated that these topics would be investigated "first-hand" by visits to pharmacies. He described these visits in the following way:

...the Committee has commenced the survey of one hundred pharmacies in each of fifteen cities in the United States. This will include cities in the East, West, North and South and drug stores of all representative kind, such as rural drug stores, department stores pharmacies, hospital pharmacies, chain stores, neighborhood stores, ethical pharmacies, Polish, Jewish, Italian, Negro stores, etc.

Koch also mentioned that the knowledge a pharmacist should have as perceived by "physicians, dentists, veterinary surgeons, health officers and manufacturing pharmacists" would also be valuable material for the study.  

**Issues in American Pharmacy 1924 to 1925**

The most important issue during the period of 1924-1925 was the anticipatory excitement over the Commonwealth Study of Pharmacy. The Study was well reported in the pharmacy journals, as will be seen. This reporting caused a high level of grass-roots enthusiasm. While the Study was underway, the issue of extending the pharmaceutical curriculum to four years was voiced by an increasing number of educators and state associations, in spite of Bradley's hope for a subterfuge effect of a pharmacy study. Many felt that the Commonwealth Study would settle this issue once and for all. One such hope was raised by the Minnesota State Pharmaceutical Association in its convention at Saint Paul. The Association was a strong advocate of a four year curriculum and was willing to wait for the results of the Commonwealth Study for needed proof of the curricular change. The following was reported of this hope for the Study:

> The Board, however, was definitely of the opinion that a careful investigation should be made of the amount and character of college work required for an education in this field. The President referred to a study of pharmacy from the functional standpoint now underway under the auspices of the Commonwealth Fund of New York City...

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42 Ibid.
Dean Wulling thereupon suggested to Dean Kelly that the State Association, the College of Pharmacy and the University all agree to await the result of the Commonwealth Study now underway under the direction of Professor Charters...

Of course if Dr. Charters' study does not result in recommendation for advancement in pharmaceutical education, we pharmacists of Minnesota will stand upon our own basis of conviction as expressed in numerous resolutions during the last four or five years and continue our efforts towards the realization of the standards we regard as imperative.

To make Charters aware of the "four year" issue, Dean Wulling of the University of Minnesota College of Pharmacy sent him a paper he had written entitled "What is the Matter with Pharmacy?" In the paper Wulling argued that pharmacy did not advance its standards as did other professions and the result has been that:

...the best student material ceased going into pharmacy, at least in larger measures, with the consequence of a gradual lowering of professional ideals and a deterioration of loyalty to the altruistic aims and purposes of the profession.  

Wulling said in his covering letter that he ventured to send the paper because he felt that the results of the Study would bring out the need for "more adequate and comprehensive training of the professional pharmacists." Charters responded in rather subjective form:

...with regard to the amount of time necessary to teach the purely professional information necessary for the training of druggists, it is too early to say, but it is apparent to me personally that for this portion of the curriculum alone, more time must be provided than is now allowed in the two year course...I do not believe that we shall fall too far short of the four year course for the druggist.

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43 A.J. Kline to Fellow Members, 2 February 1925, BC 10, Part I. Charters Papers, Ohio State University, Columbus. It is interesting to note that L.D. Coiffman was President of the University of Minnesota and also sat on the division of educational research of the Commonwealth Foundation.


45 Wulling to Charters, 31 March 1925, BC 10, Part I, Charters Papers.
Charters then warned, perhaps to be political or perhaps to be scientific or both:

The foregoing statement is in no sense official and I should not want to be quoted, but it is merely an impression that comes to me from the study of the material. 46

Wulling wrote back that if the Study in the final form recommended a four year curriculum, that would be the needed justification for the Board of Regents at Minnesota to approve such an increase and necessary increased funds. 47

Another important issue that emerged as noteworthy during the Commonwealth Study of Pharmacy was the proposal to build a National Headquarters for Pharmacy. This project was widely supported by every corner of Pharmacy. The headquarters was referred to as a home for American Pharmacy. The rallying cry went forward as represented in the following statements: "At present pharmacy is very much a scattered profession..." To change this perception, hope was placed in a National Headquarters which would bring parts of the profession together. The rallying cry continued:

...cooperation is necessary. Cooperation among the manufacturers, wholesale, retailers, boards of pharmacy, schools of pharmacy, the research men, the investigators, the men who sell and the men who finance. As a first step to cooperation, these various units must be gathered under one roof. This roof must be and should be the "American Pharmacy Building." We have the men, we have the money, all we need to do is to get together and pull for it - now all together - 'LET'S GO!' 48

It is interesting that two parallel efforts to unify pharmacy happened in the same period. The Commonwealth Study attempted to examine the profession and write a common curriculum which would standardize professional education and assist

46 Charters to Wulling, 9 April 1925, BC 10, Part 1, Charters Papers.
47 Wulling to Charters, 15 April 1925, BC 10, Part 1, Charters Papers.
licensure. The Pharmacy headquarters movement in like manner attempted to bring to the profession a sense of unity, by bringing all facets of the profession physically together in one Headquarters. Both efforts enjoyed broadly based support. The Commonwealth Study received the pharmacist's time and the Pharmacy Headquarters project received their financial support. As the Headquarters was being erected in Washington D.C., Charters was busy constructing an elaborate Survey of Pharmacy practice.

W.W. Charters, Sr. and the Pharmacy Survey - Data Collection and Method of Surveying

Charters' style in doing survey research was that of establishing a team of various practitioner and educational measurement experts. This "team" approach was used extensively in his job analysis and was also the style used in the Pharmacy Survey. Margaret Lyon recalled the methods of her father in analyzing jobs in these words:

Most job analysis research is necessarily carried out by practitioners in the field of analysis. The functions of W.W.C. were to design the research, to lead a team, and to act as a catalyst for individuals.

When the analysis of a vocation was to be made, W.W.C. met with the staff to set up the research design. Tasks were assigned to teams, each with its chairman. Each team worked out the details of an assignment, but the chairman was held responsible. W.W.C. returned regularly to meet with the chairman and to keep the project moving. In the end the curriculum would be written by team members; W.W.C. would write a statement or a summary to accompany it. 49

It was further said of the team chairpersons:

The Chairman of a study would work out details with him (Charters). The Chairman would then set his own goals with a time schedule (a "flow chart" in 1970's terminology). He would meet with W. W. C. to discuss problems and progress at each visit. W. W. C. used to say that his most valuable contribution was, not any advice he gave, but the "due dates" that had to be met at his visits. Actually his advice was respected, too. He was a skilled listener, and generally concluded a session with concrete suggestions.

In surveying pharmacy, Charters showed ample evidence of important leadership in deciding upon the method of research, leading teams of pharmacy educators and educational researchers, and serving in a role that kept the Survey moving forward.

As seen earlier, Charters established a professional staff of four individuals to assist him in the Survey. Of these four, Professor A. B. Lemon of the University of Buffalo College of Pharmacy was most important, serving as Charters' coordinator and "right-hand man." Monell, Barone and Fischelis took on lesser roles but were important for their professional input. Less visible, albeit functionally important, other more obscure members of the research staff were Pearl Wadell, Nellie Wakeman and Emily H. Kenagy. Mrs. Kenagy did much of the trait analysis of pharmacists and interviewed extensively. She also had assisted in the English, Salesmanship and Professional Morale Studies. Following the general outline of the "Syllabus", Charters set up several studies of subject matter. These subject studies can be seen as an example and extension of Charters' team approach. Each study had a chairperson who was responsible for gathering information related to a functional subject and meeting deadlines. The studies Charters chose to make, in addition to Mrs. Kenagy's, were: compounding and dispensing study, jurisprudence, mathematics, nomenclature, operative pharmacy, practical experience, preservation, professional reading, compounding techniques, dispensing and

Ibid.
operative pharmacy, bacteriology and immunology, Bio-Assaying, Botany and Pharmacognosy, Glands and Gland Therapy, Insecticides, Fungicides, parasiticides and rodenticides, pharmacology and physiology, posology, public health, toxicology, chemistry, physics, merchandise information, standard equipment, inventory material, survey of retail pharmacies, and list of ingredients. In each of these studies the goals were: defining the objective of the subject, identifying the skill to be learned in the subject by the student, the methodology used by the study to determine the importance of the objective, and, finally, writing the functional content of the particular subject. Along with the enormous task of orchestrating the many academic studies, Charters was also interested in educating himself as to the role of the pharmacist in society and in health care practice. Dean Koch and his faculty at Pittsburgh served as his first point of reference. Charters also wished to understand the pharmacist's role as perceived outside the profession. On October 24, 1924, Charters wrote to H.S. Cumming, the Surgeon General, to inform him of the Pharmacy Study and request suggestions for the curricula of pharmacy schools. Cumming's response suggested that the present curriculum seemed adequate and said:

"It is believed that the collection of drugs, their standardization, preservation and preparation for administration constitutes the immediate duties of the pharmacist. The Curricula of the colleges of pharmacy appear to be adopted to these ends, except in the case of the biologics (principally the serums and vaccines)."

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51 For a listing of those persons responsible for each of reported studies see W.W. Charters, Basic Materials for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum, pp. ix-xiii.

52 Cumming to Charters, 22 March 1924, BC 10, Part 1, Charters Papers. Research in serums and vaccines was increased in 1917 and 1918 because of a serious influenza epidemic in the United States which had killed many.
Along with his comments on the present curriculum, Cumming also recommended six other areas the schools might want to include in the curriculum so that professional practice might be improved. One area he suggested was:

...carry on ordinary routine clinical testing in localities where the proper facilities for doing this work are not available.\(^{53}\)

This expanded clinical role, unique to practice in 1924, meant extensive courses in bacteriology, physiological chemistry and clinical testing should be added to the curriculum according to the Surgeon General. Charters was most appreciative of these recommendations and followed up with another letter which asked "Mr. Cumming" if he or his staff would be willing to meet with a member of the Commonwealth Pharmacy Advisory Committee in order to "get the material adequately defined in the curriculum."\(^{54}\) Charters was interested in a personal encounter to ensure the functional aspects of the curricular recommendations. An examination of the general tone of Cumming's letter reveals that he perceived the pharmacist's role to be that of an active communicator of a service rather than a passive dispenser of a product. The Surgeon General's office later indicated its willingness to meet with representatives of the Advisory Committee.\(^{55}\)

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\(^{53}\) Ibid, "proper facilities ... not available" could be interpreted as "localities" where physicians were not readily available.

\(^{54}\) Charters to Cumming, 8 January 1925, BC 10, part 1, Charters Papers.

\(^{55}\) Bliss to Lemon, 29 January 1925, BC 10, Part 1, Charters Papers. Bliss, author of a study from the University of Tennessee College of Pharmacy, mentioned in his letter that based on his experience in dealing with the Surgeon General's Office, it was important that correspondence employ in the salutary greeting the title of "Doctor" and not "Mr." as Charters did in his January 8th correspondence to Cumming. Bliss felt that not using the proper title might jeopardize cooperation. Bliss' directive was as follows: "I would suggest that in all future correspondence the Surgeon General (as well as any other officials of the Service) be addressed as 'Doctor.' I noted that in one letter he was addressed as 'Mr.' Such a 'break' (?) in service 'form' may or may not become factors in problems of this kind; however, I am of the opinion that it is wise to 'play safe.'"
meeting lead to an agreement that the Public Health Service would undertake a study for the Commonwealth Survey. The subject study, entitled "Public Health Study", was under the direction of Senior Surgeon Taliaferro Clark. In negotiating a rationale for the study, Charters and Clark had become aware of the problem of "counter-prescribing" by some pharmacists. Both were of the opinion that pharmacists would be less likely to prescribe medicine for patients if pharmacists were better educated in the nature of disease states. By understanding better the dangers of disease, the pharmacist would then be more inclined to let the prescribing be carried out by the physician. As the "Public Health Study" progressed, Charters wrote:

You covered very nicely the communicable diseases. It appears the pharmacists ought to have quite a good deal of information about the type of disease...

I have been very much interested in the problem of counter prescribing by druggists. I have a feeling that the only way to cut down this pernicious practice is to give the young druggist much fuller information about the nature and danger of diseases. If they knew more, they would prescribe less.

Including the study of diseases in the pharmacy curriculum was not widely accepted by traditionalists who believed that this study of disease was in the domain of the medical curriculum. The traditional view held that the physician's role was related to disease, diagnosis, and prescription, whereas the pharmacist's role was related to medicines and dispensing. Dean H.H. Rusby of the Columbia University College of Pharmacy and member of the 1910 National Syllabus Committee reacted strongly to the prepared study of Disease States for pharmacists. He said:

56 Charters to Clark, 28 May 1925, BC 10, Part 1, Charters Papers.
Without having seen it (the Public Health Study), I will say that while I do not think that we should go into the discussion of diseases, it seems to me very important that in discussing functions of organs, in a physiology course, we should indicate the directions in which they are liable to disorders. This gives the chief value to the teaching, especially as it bears on hygiene. At that time, the classification of medicines with reference to disorders, should be taught.  

Charters' hope for the Public Health Study and importance of the Commonwealth Survey in affecting the "Syllabus" in spite of resistance such as that received from Rusby was reflected in his comment to Clark:

The study is coming along nicely and I am quite confident that we shall have it finished by the 1st of October. The addition of the Health section to the Syllabus will be a very distinctive feature of the new curriculum.

It is interesting to note that Charters held firm to his conviction which was mentioned earlier to Dean Koch, that the Commonwealth Study would change the "Syllabus." Along with contacting persons outside the profession, Charters also contacted persons within the profession in order to understand better the role of the pharmacist. One very important person he approached was Professor Edward Kremers.  

Edward Kremers was the Director of the Course in Pharmacy at the University of Wisconsin at Madison. While somewhat eccentric by reputation, he was highly thought of as an administrator and had distinguished himself in pharmaceutical chemistry. Kremers had a keen interest in the history of pharmacy. Charters, who was desirous of including in the Survey a section on professional morale and ethics, looked to the history of the profession as a means of determining the functional ethic of practice. His interest in Kremers and the

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57 Rusby to Charters, 2 September 1925, BC 10, Part 1, Charters Papers.
58 Charters to Clark, 28 May 1925.
information he could provide in determining a professional ethic was another example of Charters' movement away from the "Syllabus." In Charters' first letter to Kremers, he said:

I am quite convinced that the pharmacy curriculum should include a unit on professional morale and ethics, by whatever name it may be called, and that in developing this morale, there is nothing more effective than a knowledge of the accomplishments as shown in its ancient and recent history.

Charters then asked Kremers if he would be agreeable to an interview and if he would write down some of his reflections on how a professional morale section should be written. Kremers agreed to cooperate in both requests. In a long and eloquent letter to Charters, Kremers described the work he had done at the University of Wisconsin related to ethics in the professions and how that concept was carried out in the curriculum. Kremers believed that the more technical a course, the greater the effort should be to humanize it. He also saw history as one of the great humanizing agents. Thus in his letter he said of this discipline:

...I strove to humanize chemistry, which I taught and pharmacy, towards which my teaching efforts were directed, by interesting my students in the history of chemistry as a science and of pharmacy as a profession.

59 Charters to Kremers, 26 February 1925, BC 10, Part I, Charters Papers.

60 Kremers to Charters, 2 March 1925, BC 10, Part I, Charters Papers. In describing what others thought of his attempts at humanizing, i.e. bringing art and science together, Kremers said of this complementarity: "In my endeavors to carry out both of these fundamental ideas so far as circumstances on the one hand and personal knowledge and strength on the other hand permitted, I was looked upon as a crank and even ridiculed. The President of the University once remarked to a colleague: 'I admire his courage in trying to make educated men out of those fellows...'. His admiration went so far as to recommend my dismissal from the faculty to the Board of Regents because I was not willing to sacrifice my ideals to numbers." It should also be noted that Kremers attempted to place his teaching of chemistry in the context of the profession of pharmacy. This bridging was seen as essential for the professional curriculum. For additional material on the question of the complementarity of science and art see: Gerald Holton, Thematic Origins of Scientific Thought-Kepler to Einstein. (Cambridge: Harvard University Press 1973); Fritjof Capra, The Tao of Physics (Berkeley: Shambhala 1975); and John C. Russell, "Complementarity - A Way to the Ethic in Pharmacy Practice." Fostering Ethical Values During the Education of Health Professionals (Philadelphia: Society for Health and Human Values. 1977) p. 55.
Kremers held that in teaching a course, especially a technical course, attention must be given to historical and philosophical foundations. This approach would guard against a subject being taught too dogmatically without the perspective of the past and future. As Kremers pointed out to Charters:

> We scientists preach evolution, but when we teach our science we are only too apt to teach it dogmatically. Hence, I have always believed that it is not sufficient to give a course in the history e.g. of chemistry, but that the subject matter itself should be taught historically as well as philosophically. How otherwise can we understand the present status of a theory, or how can we acquire a true vision of the future?

With an historical understanding which would allow for a vision of the future, Kremers felt the humanization process would take place in teaching. This process was held to be important in the pharmacy curriculum, leading to Kremers' belief that: "...pharmacy touches mankind at possibly more points than almost any other calling." Charters was impressed with Kremers' thoughts and pleased with his enthusiasm to assist in a Study of Professional Ethics and Morale. Charters asked Emily Kenagy, who at the time was interviewing for the trait study in Weston, Missouri, to go to Madison and interview Kremers. As a result of this interview Mrs. Kenagy was assigned responsibility for the Study of Professional Morale and Ethics. Of that interview, Kenagy dutifully reported to Charters the following:

> Interviewing is over for a few days, so I shall pause to tell you about my four hour visit with Dr. Kramers (sic)...He is a dear old fellow and took great pride in telling me all about his school and how he attempted to teach ideals...Personally, I feel that Dr. Kramers' (sic) method of teaching and the standards he has set up in Wisconsin University (sic), should do much towards raising the ideals of the profession. But how can we get others (sic) schools to follow his example?

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61 Ibid. 62 Ibid. 63 Kenagy to Charters, 14 March 1925, BC 10, Charters Papers. In the published Survey Kenagy is given credit for the studies of English, Salesmanship Traits, and Professional Morale because of her many personal interviews. There was no reference made to Kremer's importance in morale study. Surprisingly, Kremers turns up in the Survey as chairing the chemistry study.
To continue his quest to understand Pharmacy, Charters approached Rufus Lyman at the University of Nebraska for information. Charters recalled the difficulty with which the Carnegie Fund and Flexner's Report raised the question of pharmacy's status as a trade or profession. Lyman in no uncertain terms affirmed Pharmacy as a profession. In response to Charters' question of "what does the 'ethical' pharmacist do besides filling prescriptions for the public or for doctors?" Lyman, a physician himself, said the following:

In addition to compounding prescriptions for doctors and for the public—the druggist must be prepared to do the following things:

Prepare standard and test solutions which are used in all branches of medical, dental, veterinary, and industrial sciences.

Prepare stains and dyes for staining of tissue, bacteria, and for tracing the course of body fluids through cavities, tissue, blood vessels, etc.

He must have extended knowledge concerning disinfectants for excreta, clothing, and houses, following diseases. He must also know the best types of antiseptics; quantities to be used; most effective methods of applying.

Similar knowledge is necessary concerning disinfectants, antiseptics, insecticides, parasiticides—both internal and external—for all kinds of domesticated animals, poultry, etc.

He must know methods of treating all kinds of seeds and tubers for destruction of smuts, scabs, etc.

He must know methods of disinfecting of elevators, grain cars, and all kinds of grain-stripping containers, to destroy insects destructive to grain in transit and storage.

He should know the most effective methods of destroying vermin, rats, mice, moles, gophers, etc.

He must know the most effective ways of destroying plant diseases and insects common to green-house plants, garden plants (both vegetable and flower), small fruits and fruit trees.

He must have a vast amount of knowledge of a scientific nature concerning the action and uses of drugs which are purchased by the laymen but not upon a physician's prescription (such as purgatives, tonics, pain relievers, etc.). If the druggist can give intelligent service along these lines there would be less harm done by useful things and there would be fewer cases of poisoning from the poisonous drugs.

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64 Charters to Lyman, 24 November 1924, BC 10, Charters Papers.
In making this statement, I am not advocating prescribing by the druggist—but I do believe the druggist should be able to give his patrons as intelligent an understanding of the merchandise he sells as an automobile salesman does of the merchandise he sells. In the average drug store in Nebraska today, ten times as many drugs are sold to the layman on his own volition than is sold to him on the physician's prescription.

Furthermore, I believe the druggist has a moral obligation regarding the patient's medicines he sells. Some are harmful. Many are useless, and some are useful—but the laymen will buy all. I believe the druggist should know what there is to be known about this class of merchandise. This would include knowledge as well about stock foods, etc. which the farmer feeds so lavishly to his stock.

He should know the principles involved in the making and the methods used for preservation and handling of all biologicals.

He should know the fundamental principles involved in paint and varnish making, and what is necessary to prevent decay of lumber, posts, etc.

The same is true of oils, lubricants, lubrications, etc.

He should know the history and methods of making and caring for the sundries which he sells and which are necessary for community life—such as rubber goods, brushes, etc.

He should know the use and the harm of cosmetics, and all those things which are handled through the store and about which the purchaser has a right to expect from the person selling the merchandise.

Along with determining the role of the pharmacist as perceived by health practitioners both within and outside pharmacy and by the public, Charters was managing studies of the more traditional subjects which appeared in the 1910 "Syllabus." As these courses were studied, in light of a functional analysis approach, difficulties arose among various chairmen of the studies. Most of the problems in developing functional courses related to meeting deadlines and the underestimation of the work involved in developing a course in the context of its function to practice. Examples of this reoccurring problem were seen in letters to the Survey Staff from A.R. Bliss, Jr. and Hugh C. Muldoon. Bliss, in a four page letter, indicated that his study of Pharmacology and Physiology could not possibly

65 Lyman to Charters, 15 December 1924, BC 10, Charters Papers.
be finished at the assigned deadline of February 14, 1925 and might be as late as April. In a similar manner, Muldoon, of Valparaiso University School of Pharmacy, while on time, said of his work on Pharmaceutical Latin: "It was surprising to see how the task grew as I worked upon it." Muldoon's efforts were evidently too detailed and Charters sent back his study with the request:

"...I should like to have you indicate by means of stars the minimum essentials of a course in pharmaceutical Latin."

Secretary H.C. Christensen of the N.A.B.P. sent his study on Pharmaceutical Jurisprudence to Charters and indicated that "the study was condensed as much as possible." Charters responded:

Your report is exactly what I want. I shall edit it slightly to make it conform to the style of the other material...

Charters then reported that he hoped the studies would be completed by October 1, 1924 and that:

One particular pleasant thing about the project is the cooperation that I have gotten from everybody whom I have approached irrespective of the size of the job or the pressure of other duties.

Added to the functional studies of old and new emerging courses, Charters also surveyed colleges and schools of Pharmacy and general practitioners. This surveying was accomplished by mass mailing of form letters duplicated on a mimeograph machine and return answer key. These form letters were headed:

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66 Bliss to Lemon, 27 January 1925, BC 10, Charters Papers.
67 Muldoon to Charters, 11 April 1925, BC 10, Charters Papers.
68 Charters to Muldoon, 29 April 1925, BC 10, Charters Papers.
69 Christensen to Charters, 8 May 1925, BC 10, Charters Papers.
70 Charters to Christensen, 19 May 1925, BC 10, Charters Papers.
71 Ibid.
Examples of this form letter can be seen in one addressed to the team of surveyors of pharmacy stores. It read:

Our Advisory Committee has requested that we make a little letter with finer classification of the stores included in our survey.

We are enclosing herewith a list of stores surveyed by you and will thank you to write opposite each store the type following the following key.

- Hospital Pharmacy
- Dept. Store Pharmacy
- Chain Store (state name of store)
- Ethical Pharmacy
- Strictly Commercial Store
  - rural
  - downtown
  - neighborhood
  - transient
- Polish
- Jewish
- Italian
- Negro
- Swedish

Another example of a form letter which was sent to deans of colleges and schools and Colleges of pharmacy to determine how schools were preparing students to keep abreast with current professional literature read:

Dear Dean:

The committee having in charge the study of Pharmacy that is at present being conducted by the Commonwealth Fund, is interested in getting (sic) practical suggestions from the field upon a few points of which the following is one.

With the rapid advance of service it becomes imperative that the professional man, if he is to keep abreast of the times and meet keen competition, must keep posted...

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72 Lemon to Dear Sir, 8 September 1924, MSS 266, Box 28, Folder 7, Lyman Papers.
73 Ibid.
The Committee is anxious to learn what efforts are being made to prepare the pharmacy student to read, intelligently, current literature and reference books in school and also what methods are being employed to stimulate such reading. You can assist the Committee in securing this information from which eventually recommendations will be made.74

In another letter to all the deans of Pharmacy schools, information was requested on poisonous drugs in the following:

"As a part of the report on Toxicology, included in the study of pharmacy being conducted by the Commonwealth Fund, it is purposed (sic) to set down the drugs used either accidentally or with intent and with poisonous effects. It is intended that such a report will also show the relative frequency with which these drugs are being taken with poisonous effects?" (sic)75

Letters were also used to help facilitate the flow of needed information. The following letter to all Deans is an example:

The reports on "What a Pharmacist Should Manufacture" as checked by faculty members of the conference schools, are coming in every day. However, a number of the Deans are submitting only one set of sheets. Two sets of sheets were sent to each Dean with the request that they be checked by two faculty members working independently.

Will you be kind enough to note this specific request if you have not already done so?

We know your men are exceedingly busy but trust that they will find time to get these sheets to us within the near future.76

A final example of the type of survey letter used by the Commonwealth staff was one related to Charters' desire to develop a Code of Ethics. The form letter indicated that a code would not appear in the final report but materials to develop such a code would be included in the report. The letter goes on:

74 Lemon to Lyman, 12 October 1924, MSS 266, Box 28, Folder 7. Lyman Papers.

75 Lemon to Lyman, 10 November 1924, MSS 266, Box 28, Folder 7. Lyman Papers.

76 Lemon to Lyman, 8 December 1924, MSS 266, Box 28, Folder 7. Lyman Papers.
In checking up material at hand, Dr. Charters is very anxious to have all the codes that have ever appeared relating to Pharmacy. He has therefore directed this office to request that you mail us at your earliest convenience, any code or codes that you may have in your possession; also, citing where others may be found if you have such information.

While a code of ethics may be classed as idealistic by some, there are still many who would do their best to observe rules of Ethics provided they were functional, as the whole spirit of this Commonwealth Study is intended to be.

The task of writing and managing the form letters for the Survey office belonged to Lemon. His role as a staff member was most significant in that he served as general manager of administrative affairs and Charters' first assistant under the Commonwealth Study.

Traits Study of Pharmacists

A particular interest Charters' expanded functional analysis had was the determination of job traits or characteristics. He felt that traits could be determined by a survey-interview method. Once the traits had been established, they could be used as standards for judging the quality of the practitioner. As the Survey pointed out:

Traits of character and personality constantly control the actions of pharmacists. The successful pharmacist possesses the more important traits to a high degree; the unsuccessful follower of the profession fails to possess them; and the growing pharmacist steadily improves in those traits in which he is weak.

Charters felt the content of traits could be found in existing codes of ethics and through the technique of job analysis. To investigate the vocational traits of pharmacists, Charters assigned Emily Kenagy of his staff at Pittsburgh. The

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77 Lemon to Lyman, 7 July 1925, MSS 266, Box 28, Folder 7. Lyman Papers. In the final survey there is little reference made to a code of Ethics unique to the Survey. The only reference made is to a preexisting code developed by the American Pharmaceutical Association.

method she used as with other studies she headed, was personal interviews and questionnaires. The method as reported in the Survey indicated:

The thirty-three traits listed in Table III were obtained from interviewing with 48 pharmacists and teachers scattered widely over the region east of the Mississippi. After twenty-five interviews had been held, no new traits appeared. The number interviewed is, therefore, adequate. When the traits had been determined, they were ranked in order of importance by 65 pharmacists, 50 instructors, and 56 customers. These numbers are adequate to obtain an accurate ranking.

In interviewing the 48 pharmacists, approximately 265 separate ideas were mentioned that related to traits on pharmacists. Those ideas were then analyzed and grouped into 33 major trait headings. The results of that interview are presented in Addendum A of this study. These headings were then ranked as indicated in the Survey. Charters and Kenagy worked very closely together on this portion of the Study. Their efforts were not without difficult times as seen in the following:

When I left Pittsburgh, I personally put on your desk a brown folder containing the following things:

(1) a short list of traits of pharmacy

(2) a list of the traits, defined by trait-actions, with stars by those which I thought should be used to send out for judgment rankings

(3) a letter and directions to accompany traits to be ranked

(4) a note telling you what I wanted you to do.

Certainly the whole folder has not been lost.

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79 Ibid.
80 Kenagy to Charters, n.d. BC 10, Charters Papers.
81 Kenagy to Charters, 25 February 1925, BC 10, Charters Papers.
Charters evidently found the folder because the crisis ended and thirty-three traits were established. The ranking of the traits was started in early March. Kenagy reported the status of the ranking in April and said:

...returns are coming in so rapidly that it may take all summer to tabulate the results. Watching to see how many will come in each day has got to be an exciting game. Practically, all the customers to whom I mailed lists have returned them and I should say at least eighty-five percent of the druggists and instructors have returned them. At present we have on hand ratings by 51 customers; 42 instructors-19 of which have come from your office, 59 pharmacists-38 of which have come from your office. How long shall we wait upon these returns? 82

Charters responded:

I should not wait for any more judgments on the traits. Separate them into the groups of customers, instructors, and pharmacists, and rank them. Then get a combined ranking for all. We found the correlation between the judgments of different groups of people on the homemaker's traits to never run below 75 and the median of 800 judges was about 90. We also found that the correlation between subgroups of 50, then groups of 150 was around 97. I therefore think there is no necessity for having more judgments than are now at hand. 83

Charters was concerned that of those groups ranking the traits, the pharmacists were not being as discreet as he thought they should be. In ranking the thirty-three traits, the three groups were asked to give one, two or three values to each trait item; one was the highest value. Charters spoke of his concern for the pharmacists ranking in the following:

We are shipping you a number of the returns that are coming in from the druggists. It looks as though a good many of them are using no particular discretion in judgment. They have too many 1's.

In ranking them, I would suggest that you keep the faculty people separate from the practicing druggists. I would suggest also that you pay attention only to the 1's. I mean by that, that you will find that one trait has fifty 1's, ten 2's and ten 3's. The question arises how to weigh the 1's, 2's and 3's. I had this question up with the Home Economics rating last year and Mr. Yoakam could give me no weight for them. Then we counted the total number of markings of 1's and ranked the traits.

82 Kenagy to Charters, 23 April 1925, BC 10, Charters Papers.
83 Charters to Kenagy, 29 April 1925, BC 10, Charters Papers.
After this we ranked them according to 2's alone and 3's alone. We found the coefficient of correlation to be very high, so we decided in the Home Economics traits to consider only the 1's. With the suggestion given by Charters, Kenagy was able to rank order the traits. Accuracy, honesty, dependability, professional technique and cleanliness were ranked as the first five traits of greatest importance. The five ranked as having least importance were: kindliness, interest in community, speed, forcefulness and artistic taste.

In a note sent to Charters entitled "Some Interesting Facts About the Trait Study" Kenagy reviewed the return rate and other areas of the study. She indicated:

I. Trait lists were mailed to 59 customers, all but six of whom were college folk of superior intelligence. All but three of the persons, by the way were ex-workers of yours returned the lists with the traits very carefully ranked. This means that 95% of the customers replied. Replies came from 31 men, 6 of whom were doctors, and 25 women, one of whom was a nurse.

II. Trait lists were sent to 140 pharmacists (that is, provided you sent them to all who were on the list you mailed me). Seventy-three replies came back or 52%. (85% of those I mailed from here were returned.) Four of the ratings by pharmacists had to be thrown out and four came too late to be used, so only 65 ratings were used.

III. Trait lists were sent to 55 deans and instructors. 51 replies came in or 92%. All instructors, but one, were men.

IV. 71% of all lists sent out were returned.

84 Charters to Kenagy, 14 April 1925, BC 10, Charters Papers.
85 W.W. Charters, Basic Material for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum, p. 106. See this reference for a complete breakdown of traits according to pharmacists, instructors and customers.
86 Kenagy to Charters, undated, BC 10, Charters Papers.
87 Ibid.
Kenagy also recalled the length of time spent on the Trait Study as being from November 10, 1924 to May 28, 1925. She asked Charters what he thought of the high percent of replies to their inquiry. Kenagy was pleased and surprised with the seventy-one percent return rate. While no specific response from Charters was found, that high level of return does, however, bear out earlier comments made by Charters that the Commonwealth Study was widely supported in its conception. The Trait Study might thus be viewed as an example of a high level of interest for the work of Charters and his staff by the profession of pharmacy. Interest in the Commonwealth Study was also generated by numerous articles which appeared in the professional pharmacy journals.

Journal Coverage of the Commonwealth Study

Two major professional journals gave detailed coverage to the Commonwealth Study. It was the wish of the Survey writers to have the profession kept abreast of all developments as the Survey progressed. The Journal of the American Pharmaceutical Association and the American Journal of Pharmacy kept the Commonwealth Study before the eyes of their respective readers. To maximize publicity and help to facilitate surveying, Charters' staff issued monthly news bulletins. These bulletins gave general information about the progress of the Study. The original plan was to issue twelve updates but for reasons unknown only seven bulletins appeared in print. A possible reason for the termination with bulletin number seven was the fact that surveying had been completed by August of 1925.
The first bulletin was printed in November 1924 and, along with the second bulletin, served as background and an introduction to the Study. By way of introduction, the first bulletin outlined the fact that Mrs. Stephen V. Harkness had established the Commonwealth Fund in 1918 with gifts amounting to $20,000,000. The Fund was particularly interested in funding research in child health, programs in the prevention of juvenile delinquency and educational research. It went on to say that Charters was a member of an advisory committee of the educational research component of the Fund. This committee had special interest in the need for greater economy of time in the educational process. To test the validity of this assumption, these studies were undertaken. These studies were described thusly:

One was to be a detailed study of the instruction offered in grades five to nine in twelve representative cities. A second was a study of the aims and procedures of a number of representative colleges of arts and science and the third was to be an analysis of the preparation needed for one profession. The profession of pharmacy was chosen. The committee requested Prof. W.W. Charters...to undertake a study of the information, skill and traits necessary to carry on successfully the practice of Pharmacy. Dr. Charters began devising a technique for this study early in 1923 and the work has been progressing steadily towards its' completion by October 1, 1925.

Bulletin number 2 continued on with an introduction of the Study. It told of widespread support for the Study among the profession in the following:

From its inception, The Commonwealth Study of pharmaceutical education has enjoyed the unqualified endorsement of all the leading organizations interested in pharmacy.

It then went on to acknowledge the Advisory Committee and Subcommittee Members who would review the various professional studies. Lastly, the bulletin

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identified three areas considered to constitute pharmacy practice. These divisions were assumed to be:

1. Filling of prescriptions
2. Answering queries relating to pharmacy
3. Conducting the commercial side of the business

It was also reported that the Study would consider one and two and not three. The third bulletin continued in the vein of general introduction, but also elaborated upon a method used in determining what the Pharmacist did and needed to know. This job analysis focused on the prescription and reported that 20,000 copies of prescriptions were obtained in order to develop a list of items which appeared in prescriptions. These prescriptions were collected from every region in the United States. The result was referred to as the "Type of Ingredient List." This list was obtained by tabulating 16,000 prescriptions. The list included 1,827 different items with a total frequency of 39,880. The "Type of Ingredient List" was considered to be essential foundational material for the curriculum, and was thus used in developing functional courses in: "Pharmacology, Dosage, Toxicology, Physiology, Botany, Chemistry, Bacteriology, Preservation, Adulteration, and Contamination, Nomenclature, including Latin, Arithmetic and Physics."

The fourth bulletin moved away from the introductory nature of the proceeding three bulletins. It described an analysis of nomenclature used on 10,000

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90 Ibid.
92 Ibid.
prescriptions. This analysis was used to determine the functional reconstruction of a course in nomenclature and Latin in the pharmacy curriculum.

By February 1925 interest in the Commonwealth Study was peaking. Charters and his staff were beginning to receive mail requesting that the fifth bulletin contain some of the early results of their findings. Thus the character of the fifth bulletin was to oblige the requesters. It began:

There has been such a general request from both the publishers and readers of previous bulletins, for some of the results of the study rather than methods employed, that it was decided to include in this bulletin some general observations resulting from the survey of retail stores which was conducted last summer.

This bulletin reported that the Survey was directed at one hundred retail pharmacies across the nation. The results of the store survey in terms of findings were generally negative given the questions asked. In responding to other mail received, the sixth bulletin provided a list of course studies that were being conducted and the name of the person responsible. This information was requested by many textbook writers and publishers who were planning text revisions in light of the Commonwealth Study.

The final bulletin, number seven, described a study which attempted to determine the compounding role of pharmacists. The claim had been made by some that pharmacists were becoming more and more involved in simple dispensing or the "simple process of transferring from one container to another and that the

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ingredients of such prescriptions are largely proprietaries.  

After collecting and tabulating the types of ingredients in 17,577 prescriptions, Charters found that compounding was very much a part of practice. As stated in the bulletin:

...it is apparent that compounding is not a lost art. The filling of prescriptions is not, as many now believe, largely a matter of transferring a proprietary or secret formula preparation from one container to another.

As has been stated, Bulletin Seven was the last. By September, 1925, surveying, tabulating, interviewing, collecting and inventory-taking had, for the most part, been completed. While the actual published report was unavailable, the Survey had advanced enough for Charters to begin reporting on the findings of the Commonwealth Study. His reporting was heard by the anxious ears of pharmacy educators, state board members, association members, practicing pharmacists and other health professionals. The findings of the Survey and its impact on pharmacy will be examined next.


97 Ibid. p. 493.
CHAPTER V

THE PHARMACEUTICAL SURVEY - AUGUST 1925 TO 1927

PUBLICATION, SURVEY IMPACT

Introduction

Chapter V examines the comments made by pharmacy leaders about the Commonwealth Study prior to the announcement of the findings in the autumn of 1925. Charters' preliminary findings will be examined in light of such issues identified in Chapter IV as whether pharmacy is a profession or trade, the length of the curriculum, and curricular standardization. The impact of the publication of the final Report in 1927 is studied with particular interest in the Survey's effect on the Pharmaceutical Syllabus, standardization of pharmacy, pharmacy textbooks, founding of the American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education, and the call for a second survey to study the commercial side of pharmacy. The Chapter concludes with a discussion of Charters' critique of the Commonwealth Study made in 1932.

The Profession's Response to the Anticipated Report

By late summer of 1925, interest in the Commonwealth Survey was at a high ebb. The series of bulletins, combined with regular status reports made to pharmacy leaders involved in the Study, were used effectively for publicity and communication. This effective use of media may have gained the high level of cooperation that Charters and his staff experienced from those surveyed. While most individuals surveyed
enthusiastically supported the activities of the Commonwealth Survey team, Dean Rufus Lyman expressed some negative concerns about the Survey. His comments appeared in a pharmacy journal in July of 1925 which was one month prior to Charters' reporting of his preliminary findings. Lyman was concerned that significant efforts to improve pharmacy were not being carried out by those who were pharmaceutically trained. Lyman's concern extended to both pharmacy research and curriculum development as indicated by his comments:

...the Association (speaking of the American Pharmaceutical Association) calls attention to the fact "that pharmaceutical research is an attractive field as shown by the great work being done by nonpharmacists in the preparation of medicinal chemistry." It is a sad state of affairs when one of the most important phases of pharmaceutical research is being accomplished by men not pharmaceutically trained. ...the Chairman calls attention to the "statistical research now being performed by the Commonwealth Foundation." But again, it is significant that the moving spirit of that study is not pharmaceutical.

Although Lyman was disenchanted with the investigation by those not "pharmaceutically trained," Lyman, himself, had been trained as a physician and not as a pharmacist. Like Bode and Stone, Lyman also questioned the temporal limitations of Charters' survey technique. Lyman described the problem he saw with the pending Commonwealth Study, thusly:

The men who build our pharmaceutical curriculum seem just now to be resting upon their oars awaiting the publication of the study of pharmacy being conducted by the Commonwealth Foundation. This is unfortunate. The Commonwealth Study will undoubtedly be of great value but the keynote of that study is to determine what a pharmacist needs to know to day (sic) to give an intelligent pharmaceutical service. ...The Common-

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wealth study is not going to tell us what a pharmacist will have to know to give an intelligent pharmaceutical service two or three decades in the future. The pharmacist must not only be trained so that he can render an intelligent pharmaceutical service to-day (sic) but he must be so trained that he can later train himself to practice pharmacy as it must be practiced in the future.²

Lyman went on to build a case for better assurance for continuing learning and suggested that the curriculum should be lengthened from three to four years. He felt that with a longer period of training, a proper vision of expanded pharmacy practice and life-long learning could be realized and instilled in students. Without an expanded curriculum, Lyman contended that practice would continue in its present day vein of: "...service which is actually being rendered to-day (sic) by the average so-called commercial pharmacist..." which "...is extremely unintelligent."³ Without such an expanded curriculum the vision of practice taught in schools would be limited. Lyman recalled President James' description of the typical pharmacy educator in those days:

"The vision of the average teacher of pharmacy is bounded by the four walls and the ceiling of a drug store."⁴

Lyman remarked on James' comment and said:

"He said nothing about the floor. I took it for granted that he thought the vision would not escape by way of the basement."⁵

The Charters study did not seem to offer the futuristic vision that Lyman felt pharmacy needed at that time.

In a tone which was markedly optimistic, H. Lionel Meredith, newly elected president of the N.A.B.P., spelled out his hopes for the Commonwealth Study in his presidential address to the Association. In speaking of the Study, Meredith said:

²Ibid. ³Ibid. ⁴Ibid. ⁵Ibid.
The Commonwealth Fund has carried on a valuable study which will likely lead to a revision of the curriculum or at least a more comprehensive appraisal of the curriculum as it is now followed in the better schools and colleges. ...In all probability, this exhaustive study will suggest the advantage to be gained by adding to the present curriculum, likewise necessitating changes in the present routine.

Meredith also believed that the Commonwealth Study would standardize the pharmacy curriculum in schools and colleges. He suggested that with this baseline, the quality of the educational offering could be examined in pharmacy schools and colleges. Meredith's early call for the accreditation of pharmacy schools as an outcome of the Charters survey was presented in the following way:

The actual classification of colleges teaching pharmacy would seem to be in logical sequence. This problem may well be held in abeyance, but should continue to be studied by the committees now working on the subject, until the completion of the study by the Commonwealth Fund and its results become available.7

Report of the Preliminary Findings of the Commonwealth Study

A Report entitled "Commonwealth Fund Study of Pharmacy"8 was presented by W.W. Charters at a joint session of the Pharmacy Faculties and the N.A.B.P. at the twenty-sixth annual meeting of the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy.9 This meeting was held in Des Moines on August 24 and 25, 1925. The Report was presented in the morning to members of both associations,

6H. Lionel Meredith, "Address of the President of the National Association of Boards of Pharmacy," Journal of the American Pharmaceutical Association 14 (September 1925): 823.

7Ibid.


9The Conference of Faculties changed its name in 1925 to the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy.
and in the afternoon the membership of the Associations accepted the Report. In his discussion, Charters presented an introduction, twelve findings, and went on to describe how the Study was conducted. In describing the methodology, Charters stated:

...the first step was to analyze the life of the pharmacist to discover his duties, activities, problems, difficulties, traits of personality and obligations. The common or "garden variety" of retail druggist was selected as representing at least ninety per cent (sic) of the graduates of all pharmacy colleges and an intensive study was made of this "average" pharmacist. He was studied as a citizen and a man first and his characteristic traits carefully tabulated. Then his professional traits were investigated.10

Charters reviewed some of the studies and methods of analysis. In this, he discussed how pharmacy inventories were studied, how prescriptions were analyzed, and how the typical manufacturing activities of pharmacists were studied.

The introduction and twelve major findings, although preliminary at that time, appeared as section one in the final Report published in 1927. In his introductory remarks, Charters made it clear that pharmacy was being attacked for its commercialism which some felt had lessened its traditional professional status. He then discussed the work of the technical and advisory committee over the two years of the Study. Commenting that the Study used a functional approach as a basic technique, Charters described the methodology:

The content of the curriculum has been derived functionally from a study of the needs of the profession. The functional approach is objective. Completely applied, it accepts the opinion of no one person or group of persons. It seeks to determine with care and exactness the duties of the profession, and by objective methods to derive with accuracy and definiteness of detail the facts and principles necessary for the mastery of these duties. Such is its ideal - to substitute fact for opinion.  


Charters then indicated that objective facts were sought, and when these facts were not forthcoming the consensus of expert opinion was used in preference to the individual opinion. After his introductory remarks, Charters listed the following activities and duties of the pharmacist:\textsuperscript{12}

1. The pharmacist needs to be a "cultured man" which means he must develop extra-vocational activities such as: being a good father, husband, citizen with the qualities of intelligent and forceful manhood. "He should enjoy life, art and religion."

2. The pharmacist needs to develop the ingredients for an ethical and psychological disposition for professional life. These will insure the proper conduct in business and help pharmacists realize they are servants of the public.

3. Pharmacy practice is a combination of professional practice, i.e. manufacturing and dispensing, and commercial activities such as buying and selling. The Commonwealth Study looked primarily at professional practice but the commercial is basically "entwined" and should also be studied in the near future. In this vein the pharmacist should possess merchandise information, have skills in the art of salesmanship and be competent in pharmaceutical English.

4. The pharmacist should intelligently fill prescriptions. What the pharmacist needs to know is the basis of an analysis of 17,577 prescriptions - a study is now in progress.

5. 1,131 pharmacies are being surveyed to determine how much manufacturing is being conducted versus buying ready-made products. This study will determine a possible role change in the pharmacist.

6. The pharmacist is the chief source of information and materials for the control of insects, fungi, parasites and germs. He has the responsibility to carry insecticides, fungicides, fumigants and similar products and for giving information concerning their use and dangers of use.

7. The pharmacist should be able to competently read and understand the United States Pharmacopoeia and the National Formulary.

8. In matters of public health, the pharmacist is to be a provider of accurate information to those who come to him.

9. Although still being debated, the pharmacist should have greater knowledge of diseases. While not diagnosing or prescribing with this knowledge, he will be of greater assistance to those who seek his advice.

\textsuperscript{12}Ibid. p. 84.
10. Because of his basic science education, the pharmacist is a valuable source of scientific information to the community.

11. The pharmacist should try to keep abreast of state and federal laws regulating narcotics, alcohol and insecticides.

12. The pharmacist needs to be a life long learner. This he owes to himself, his profession and his community.

In summing up these tentative findings of duties and activities for pharmacists, Charters said:

In conclusion, then, we present the picture of the typical pharmacist which the College of Pharmacy is to train. He is a man with interests and obligations outside of his profession; his personality and character should be of a high degree of competence. In his profession, he buys and sells a wide variety of products, he fills prescriptions and manufactures those products which it is advisable not to purchase. He assists in the control of insects, fungi and germs. He is a valuable source of information on public health and on other scientific matters. As a pharmacist, he intelligently reads the authoritative treatises of his profession, he endeavors to understand and obey the laws of his country; and he continually labors to keep abreast of his profession.

Charters then focused on the Pharmacy "Syllabus" and indicated that he hoped the Commonwealth Study would serve as a comparative check for the Syllabus. In that regard he said:

The profession of pharmacy is fortunate in having a Syllabus to use as a basis for the course in the colleges of the craft. ...This study disregarded the Syllabus until the investigation has been completed. It was felt that if this were done and the study were made independently, it would serve as an objective check against the Syllabus, and the hope was entertained that the findings of the Study might not materially differ from the Syllabus. This statement is made to indicate the fact that the project was not carried out in an atmosphere of destructive criticism and hostility to the Syllabus.

But even with the Survey serving as a check against the Syllabus, Charters was careful to point out that the Survey made no attempt to estimate the length of time needed to complete the curriculum. However he felt that for a student to

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\[13\] Ibid. p. 93. \[14\] Ibid. p. 94.
receive "cultural training and adequate instruction in both commercial and professional pharmacy" the length of the curriculum should be no less than four years.

After he reported his findings, the Proceedings summarized Charters' comments:

he (Charters) believed the Advisory Committee had made a definite contribution by gathering together in one place an all-around picture of what they think should be the duties and responsibilities of the pharmacist. The essential part of the basic raw material is presented in the introduction and it gives some idea of what the content will be. 15

Dean Frederick Wulling of the University of Minnesota College of Pharmacy moved that the Association thank Dr. Charters for "his contribution to the success of the survey and for the fine ideals expressed in the report." 16 The motion was seconded and carried unanimously.

Underscoring the importance of Charters' opening remarks about pharmacy being an honorable profession, Secretary H. C. Christensen of the N.A.B.P., and an advisory committee member, asked Charters if he had any thoughts on Pharmacy as being a profession rather than a trade. Charters replied with the following prepared statement:

After a careful study of the pharmacy curriculum with an open mind for a period extending over more than two years, the director of the study is definitely convinced that pharmacy is a profession rather than a trade. The materials that the pharmacist deals with are in many cases so dangerous in their effects upon physical well being and the problems that face him in the handling of these materials and in his contacts with the public require so much intelligence, if they are properly performed, that it is absolutely essential for him to have a rather wide and intimate acquaintance with the fundamental sciences upon which the art depends; and since the distinction between the trade and the profession lies essentially in the fact that the trade needs know only the method in order to be proficient, while the profession needs to know the principles upon which the methods depend, it follows that pharmacy is a profession rather than a trade. 17

15 Ibid. p. 100. 16 Ibid. 17 Ibid.
Charters' statement came somewhat as a "bombshell" given Flexners' earlier comments about pharmacy and the difficulty pharmacy had with the Carnegie Foundation. Charters indicated to Christensen that his conclusion would be included in the final Report. That conclusion was presented in the final Report as follows:

Pharmacy is an ancient and honorable profession. Its beginnings are lost in the mists of antiquity and its history is replete with substantial accomplishments. Pharmacy is the mother of medicine and the original source of many forms of research. Numerous investigators who have made epochal contributions to science and art have been enrolled among its followers. Today pharmaceutical research is scholarly and productive. In the laboratories of two continents scientists are industriously and effectively studying the problems of the field.

Journal Accounts of the Preliminary Findings-
August 1925 to December 1925

Professional journals were quick to report the preliminary findings of the Charters study to their subscribers. In a description of the presentation of first findings, The Druggist Circular wrote:

Probably the most interesting event of the meeting was the presentation of the report of Dr. W. W. Charters, of the Commonwealth Fund, who, after a long study, announced that he was of the definite opinion that pharmacy is a profession and not a trade. Dr. Charters' report was presented by him at a joint session of the conference with the N.A.B.P.

In the same article, President W.H. Ziegler of the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy (A.A.C.P.) in his presidential address said of the evolving curriculum:

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19 "Conference Meeting," The Druggist Circular (September 1925): 331.
With the session of 1925-26 we enter a new period in pharmaceutical education. No longer will a conference school confer a degree after the completion of a two-year course. The object of the new three-year course is to educate more thoroughly the future pharmacist.

It should be mentioned that the pharmacy curriculum had been lengthened to three years in 1925. However, the Survey suggested that the Pharmacy curriculum be lengthened even further. This impact of the Survey will be discussed shortly.

Another report on the preliminary findings was an editorial which appeared in the *American Journal of Pharmacy*, which commented on the work of Charters and his team:

> There is printed elsewhere in this issue a tentative draft of the findings of the Educational Research Committee of the Commonwealth Fund, which under the brilliant directorship of Dr. W.W. Charters, has about completed its answer to the question "What Should a Pharmacist Know?"

Judged from any viewpoint the work of Dr. Charters and his assistants has been conducted with consummate skill and completeness...

The final report of Dr. Charters will not be greatly different from the tentative draft submitted. The general conclusions are bound to remain unchanged, and the nature of them must bring to the heart of every real pharmacist much pride and more encouragement. To have a person, entirely removed from pharmacy, and so widely recognized for his research ability, as the director of this investigation, was a most satisfactory occurrence; but to have this person, without bias or prejudice, draw the conclusions presented in his report, is the most promising and encouraging thing that has come into modern pharmacy.

The editorial concluded that others had long anticipated many of the findings of the Commonwealth Study. It stated that the Study had validated the definition of Pharmacy in its professional practice. According to the editor, these visionaries were none other than the educators of pharmacy.

The *Journal of the American Pharmaceutical Association* dedicated its October 1925 issue to Werrett Wallace Charters. In a feature article entitled

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"Wallace Werrett (sic) Charters," Professor A.B. Lemon, the Associate Director of the Survey, was asked to supply biographical information on Charters. The editorial began:

Doubtless pharmacists generally will expect the "Journal of the American Pharmaceutical Association" to make them acquainted with the Director of the Curriculum Study of Colleges of Pharmacy. ...No one will question the value of the study, nor the case which has been evidenced by the reports published in the pharmaceutical publications, and the more extended reports... 21

The article then went on to give the biographical information supplied by Lemon.

In listing Charters' accomplishments to pharmacy, it said:

His most valuable contribution to Pharmacy has been made in the form of the basic material for a functional curriculum to be used by Schools of Pharmacy which has been worked out under his direction. He believes that the profession of Pharmacy offers a splendid opportunity for continuous research and plans to pursue a study of the commercial aspects of the profession in the very near future.

Dr. Charters' broad vision, liberal mindedness and charming personality endear him to every one with whom he comes in contact. His induction into the field of pharmaceutical education introduces a new line of influence which, if followed, is bound to result in the improvement of the profession of Pharmacy, both from the standpoint of teaching and of practice.22

The immediate success and enthusiasm over the preliminary findings of the Commonwealth Study prompted W.D. Jones, of the A.P.H.A and the N.A.B.P., to suggest a similar inquiry into the commercial aspects of Pharmacy practice. This desire was reported in the Minutes of the General Session which stated:


22 Ibid, p. 862.
"Resolution No. 1---Be It Resolved," that in the event of a formation of a committee to expand the Commonwealth Fund Study of the profession of pharmacy to include a study of "commercial" pharmacy, we recommend that the incoming president be authorized to extend the cooperation of the American Pharmaceutical Association by appointing such representation as may be required, and by offering appropriate financial aid. Approved.

The move to begin a second study of pharmacy focused on the commercial aspects of practice was strongly debated between factions which represented the extremes: those which saw pharmacy only as a profession and those who saw it only as a business. This issue of a commercial study will be discussed later as a direct impact of the Commonwealth Study.

Another description of the profession's reactions to the preliminary report was found in an introductory paragraph preceding the transcript of Charters' findings which stated:

This report was enthusiastically received, stimulated vigorous discussion and was heartily commended. It is but preliminary and introductory to the complete and voluminous report of the Committee, which is expected to be finished and ready for distribution during the present October or the following month. As an earnest example of the extreme value to characterize the complete report, this introductory portion will be read with great interest by pharmacy teachers and practitioners generally.

An article which appeared in The Druggist Circular one month after Charters presented his twelve findings proclaimed in its heading:

PHARMACY IS A PROFESSION
Educational Research Committee of the Commonwealth Fund Declares, After Two and a Half Years of Investigation, That Pharmacy is a Profession---Study Shows "Typical" Pharmacist as a Versatile and Useful Member of Society.

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This article listed the findings, emphasized the objective nature of the Study, and the importance it would have on practice.

In December 1925 in an editorial in the Journal of the American Pharmaceutical Association, the Commonwealth Study was reported as affecting significantly pharmacy and also the general public. The editor, E.G. Eberle, wrote:

The Commonwealth Study of Pharmacy has, doubtless, been of great benefit to the public and pharmacists; there has been a strengthening of confidence which has a value that cannot well be determined. The writer met a well-known bookman within the last few weeks on the cars; never before had he laid particular stress on the importance of pharmacy, but this time his first remark was in substance that he had placed pharmacy on a higher plane in his own estimation and the pharmacists' estimate of themselves had largely contributed to his enlightenment.

Journal Accounts of the Preliminary Findings and W.W. Charters, Sr.

-January 1926 to December 1926

Between the release of preliminary findings in August 1925 and the actual publication of the final Report in 1927, praise for the Commonwealth Study dominated pharmacy literature. Along with this praise came much conjecture in professional journals as to the impact the Study would have on controversial issues in pharmacy. An illustration of how the early findings facilitated discussion and served as a springboard for discussion was that of Dean Charles H. Lawall of the Philadelphia College of Pharmacy and, Sciences who pointed out that an understanding of what the pharmacist should know necessitated an understanding of what the pharmacy college professor should know. In his comments, Lawall spoke highly of Charters and the Commonwealth Study:

In the admirable study of pharmacy which has occupied the attention of a committee working under the expert leadership of W.W. Charters of the Commonwealth Foundation, and which is now approaching completion, the survey has had for its fundamental objective the answer to the question "What Should a Pharmacist Know?"

The breadth and comprehensiveness of the answer was a surprise, not only to the Director of the Study, Dr. Charters, who approached the subject free from the prejudice or bias of one who is closely connected with pharmacy, but it also astonished many who had been identified for many years with the teaching of future pharmacists.

The published report, which may be expected sometime during the year, will undoubtedly be a revelation to the majority of those who take the trouble to read it, and will serve as an inspiration for the development of a new era in pharmaceutical education.27

Lawall's statement that the Survey would change pharmaceutical education in the future was a common sentiment of many other pharmacy educators of the day.

Dean C.B. Jordan of the Purdue University College of Pharmacy, like Lawall, praised the work of the Commonwealth Study. In an address at the installation of Dr. W.T. Sanger as President of the Medical College of Virginia, Jordan spoke on the issue of the length of the pharmacy curriculum when he said:

Pharmacy is indeed fortunate in that it is the only profession that has been surveyed from a functional standpoint. This survey, conducted for the Commonwealth Fund by Dr. Charters and assisted by a number of teachers of pharmacy, has been completed. The report of it is not yet in print but we know enough about what that report will be to be assured that the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy acted wisely when it eliminated the two year course and adopted the three year course as a minimum. We anticipate that this report will show us the need of a longer training for good professional work. At any rate, it will tell us very definitely whether or not we are teaching the things that must be known by the every-day pharmacist in the conduct of his professional business.28


Two months later, Frederick J. Wulling, of the University of Minnesota, in comments to the Wisconsin Pharmaceutical Association, strongly urged establishment of a four year pharmacy curriculum because of evidence from the Commonwealth Study. He also stated that the Charters report would raise educational and professional standards. Wulling focused particularly on the Survey's proclamation that Pharmacy was a profession and not a trade. In commenting on the Commonwealth Study and other pharmacy issues, he said:

This study is now completed and will be off the press by August, it is expected. It represents much work. Dr. Charters, whose very capable direction has made the survey comprehensive and valuable, allows me to quote from the address he gave at the Des Moines meeting of the American Pharmaceutical Association: "No attempt has been made to estimate accurately the length of time it will take to complete a college course in pharmacy, yet if the student is to receive a cultural training and adequate instruction in both commercial and professional pharmacy, the length of time would not fall short of the customary four years."

Wulling then turned to the Survey's statement that pharmacy is a profession and not a trade. In glowing terms, he described the Survey and work of Charters:

Dr. Charters' report supports and endorses practically every upward educational step taken by pharmacy recently and it is my judgment standards will rise higher because of the case the report makes for better and higher training in pharmacy. Recently two colleges went upon a minimum four-year degree basis.

Wulling disagreed with the reoccurring theme that the commercial side of pharmacy should be studied now that the professional side had been examined. He expressed this opinion:

There is really no commercial pharmacy. Pharmacy is a major medical specialty and has been recognized as such for centuries. The fact that a pharmacist engages in trade does not make out of the practice of professional pharmacy, in which he may engage only part of his time, a commercial activity.


30Ibid., p. 778. 31Ibid., p. 780.
In spite of Wulling's position, the push for another study continued.

In October 1926, M.N. Ford, the president of the N.A.B.P. indicated that money had been earmarked by the Association for a study of the business and administrative side of pharmacy. Ford further indicated that W.W. Charters had agreed to conduct this new study provided funds could be found to support his efforts for three years. In his address to the Association, Ford spoke of this continuation of the Pharmacy Study in the following:

Dr. Charters has at his command a technical staff of eminently qualified assistants who, with a committee composed of retail pharmacists, wholesalers, manufacturers, College men, business experts, etc., will make this study and survey of the business and administrative side of pharmacy.

In the survey it is proposed to make a survey of the business and administrative side of pharmacy, including the investigation and study of store management, salesmanship, window display, buying, selling, accounting, store arrangement, advertising, etc.  

The impact of the preliminary findings of the Commonwealth Survey on pharmacy and the professional regard for W.W. Charters can be summarized by the words of Edward H. Krans of the University of Michigan and president of the A.A.C.P. He said:

The building of strong three-year and four-year curricula will be assisted greatly by the splendid, exhaustive and discriminating report of Dr. W.W. Charters which is now in press. While this study, conducted under the auspices of the Commonwealth Fund, has considered but one phase of the profession, namely, the neighborhood pharmacy, it is epoch-making for American Pharmacy as a whole. The pharmacists and the citizens of the United States are under great obligations to the officers of the Commonwealth Fund and to the director of the investigation, Dr. Charters. As an impartial but seasoned observer and investigator in other fields, Dr. Charters brought to bear upon this study ripe experience and profound scholarship. As you all know, he was most ably assisted by an excellent group of men from this organization who in time and thought gave most generously and with a splendid devotion to their profession. Therefore, the Charters report represents the best thought of the present day concerning the personal qualifications, academic preparation, activities and duties of...
the American community pharmacist. These are so varied and important
to the community and to public health and involved such a broad and
intimate knowledge of scientific principles and methods that it is not
surprising that Dr. Charters should conclude by saying, "After a careful
study of the pharmacy curriculum, with an open mind for a period
extending over more than two years, the director of the study is definitely
convinced that pharmacy is a profession rather than a trade...

This cogent and decisive statement by Charters may well be considered as
one of the most important pronouncements concerning the status and
dignity of pharmacy as a profession that has been made in the last quarter
of a century. It should hearten those who have so courageously fought the
long, and at times, discouraging battle for higher standards in pharmaceuti-
cal education. It truly marks the beginning of a new era educationally
and professionally. It is to be hoped sincerely that Dr. Charters may be
able to continue his studies relating to a model curriculum based upon the
wealth of material he has accumulated. This Association should bring its
influence to bear in all ways which are deemed wise to make this further
study possible.  

Charters' Increased Popularity Among Pharmacists

As discussion of the Survey findings continued to grow, so did
Charters' personal popularity among pharmacy groups and individual pharmacists in
general. Charters became a sought after person by national as well as local
pharmacy groups for purposes of addressing matters related to the Commonwealth
Study and other areas of interest. On February 8, 1926, Charters was the invited
speaker at the 156th Meeting of the Chicago Branch of the American Pharmaceutical
Association. This meeting, held at the University of Illinois School of
Pharmacy Building and chaired by President Kolb, was described as follows:

...President Kolb stated that Dr. Charters would introduce for discussion
one of the most important and valuable pieces of work in connection with
the present and future of pharmacy that has ever been accomplished in this
country.

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33 E.H.Krans, "Some Problems in Pharmaceutical Education," Journal of the
Dr. Charters had with him and presented to the large audience the practically complete copy of the report of the committee appointed by the Commonwealth Fund for the Study of the Pharmaceutical Curriculum. Dr. Charters presented a splendid resume of the report in his usual able and interesting manner dwelling particularly upon the values from an educational standpoint of various features of the report. He did this because the faculties of the University of Illinois School of Pharmacy and the Valparaiso School of Pharmacy were both so well represented.

While Charters was being invited to speak to pharmacy groups all over the country, the visit to Chicago was made easily since he was at that time a professor at the University of Chicago and lived in Hyde Park.

Many pharmacists also became interested in other work Charters had accomplished. Pharmacists who identified more with the commercial side of pharmacy rather than the professional side, were drawn to Charters' scholarly activities while he was at Carnegie Institute and the University of Pittsburgh. Of particular interest were studies of retail sales and salesmanship. His text, How to Sell at Retail, published in 1922, was so popular among some pharmacists that a news item in a professional journal reported:

Dr. W.W. Charters, Director of the Commonwealth Study of Pharmacy, in his book "How to Sell at Retail" (sic) says: "Salesmen are not employed primarily to make money for the firm, or even to earn their own living. Their real business is to see that the customer is satisfied. For if the customer is satisfied the firm WILL make money and the salesman WILL make a living. If the customer is not satisfied the firm will fail, and the salesman will lose his position. Therefore, keep your eye on the customer."  

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Charters' popularity in retail matters also prompted publishers from pharmacy circles to approach him. During 1926 Charters was commissioned by the editors of "The Druggists Circular" to write a series of articles on effectiveness in serving the customer. Charters accepted this charge and wrote six articles on the personality traits needed by sales personnel for effecting good sales. The articles were published for six consecutive months in the Journal and appeared under the following titles: 1. "A Pleasing Personality," 2. "The Ability to Listen and Its Importance in Developing a Pleasing Personality," 3. "Developing Openmindedness," 4. "How to Develop a Pleasing Personality---Friendliness," 5. "How to Develop a Pleasing Personality---Forcefulness," and 6. "How to Develop a Pleasing Personality---Courtesy." In these articles Charters shows a depth of human understanding, good judgement and common sense.

40 W.W. Charters, "How to Develop a Pleasing Personality---Forcefulness," The Druggist Circular (September 1926): 595.
Delays in the Final Published Report

It has been mentioned earlier that Charters was skillful in orchestrating projects involving many people. In the numerous studies undertaken, he established reasonable deadlines and effectively encouraged his staff to meet those deadlines. A prime example of Charters' ability to facilitate projects and meet deadlines was his work at Stephens College. The Pharmacy Survey, however, did not follow the reputation that Charters had earned previously in that deadlines were set and oftentimes not met by staff and authors of studies. At points in the Survey's development it became clear that delays were the result of unrealistic goals, given the large volume of material to be studied and the depth of the study. The most striking example of missing proposed deadlines was Charters own expectation for completing the Commonwealth Study. In a letter written to H.G. Kenagy, Charters expressed the hope that the Pharmacy Study would be completed by October 1, 1925. Charters said to Mrs. Kenagy:

...The total report of all the studies is going to be so very large that we shall have to condense each report, but I need the essential facts in order to make the condensation.

At the present time I have every expectation that we will have the report finished by the 1st of October.\(^\text{42}\)

A meeting of the Advisory Committee was called for October 1926 but, unfortunately, parts of the Survey still remained unfinished and the Committee could not act to approve the total Survey for publication. In a letter dated January 26, 1925, Charters wrote to the Advisory Committee and informed them of recent progress, cited delays, and set new "due dates." He said:

I am writing to members of the Advisory Committee informing them about the progress of our study.

\(^{42}\)Charters to Kenagy, 29 April 1925, Charters Papers, Ohio State Library, Ohio State University.
When a study is ninety-five per cent complete it is only about half done. Since the October meeting we have fully realized this in connection with gathering up the details incident to publication. One little detail has to wait on another, but now I have the promise that the material will be finally in my hands by March first.

The McGraw-Hill Company is anxious to publish the report and, while there still remains some details to be worked out, in conference, the securing of a publisher is no longer a matter of concern.\(^4\)

As March 1st approached and passed without a completed manuscript, a letter was written to the Advisory Committee by A.B. Lemon, Charters' first assistant. In this letter, Lemon wrote:

Gentlemen: No doubt you will be interested to learn about the status of the Commonwealth Fund.

You were advised some time ago that the publication of the report had been held up pending the completion of some additional material. ...We are glad to report that this work is now practically completed. Within a week, we expect to have a conference with Dr. Charters in Buffalo at which time the finishing touches will be put on the completed report, after which it will go immediately to the editor and publisher.

...We sincerely hope that the report may be published and in the hands of the craft before the end of the academic year.\(^4\)\(^4\)

With the new "due date" established as June 1926, an advisory committee for final approval was set for September 1926. By early spring of 1926, the manuscript was given to Robert P. Fischelis, Secretary and Chemist of the Board of Pharmacy of the State of New Jersey, for editorial revision. Dr. Fischelis was described as "an expert pharmacist who possessed editorial skill"\(^4\)\(^5\) and was able to provide "consistency and accuracy of form."\(^4\)\(^6\) His editorial work while appreciated took

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\(^4\) Charters to Lyman, 26 January 1926, MSS 266, Box 21, Folder 6, Lyman Collection.

\(^4\) Lemon to Advisory Committee, 8 March 1926, MSS 266, Box 28, Folder 7, Lyman Papers.

\(^4\)\(^5\) W.W. Charters, _Basic Material for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum_, p. xiii.

\(^4\)\(^6\) Ibid.
longer than anticipated and the September meeting of the Advisory Committee was to be another meeting without a finished manuscript. Charters reported this fact:

Owing to one cause and another, the pharmacy report has at the present time advanced only to the point where one half of it is in galley proof. I do not believe that it will be possible to have it in condition for distribution before the September meeting.

Yours regretfully,

W.W.C. 47

Charters at that point did not project a completion date for final approval and a final publishing date. It was reported that Dr. Fischelis' editorial work progressed at a very slow pace and his slowness, given the other delays, invoked Charters' displeasure. 48 More than one year after Charters' October 1st 1925 completion date, he expressed the following to Emily Kenagy:

I am hoping that our book will be out sometime soon. Dr. Fischelis is now working on the index. The delay has been most exasperating! 49

By the first of the next year the situation had improved.

Basic Material for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum-The Final Report

-January 1927

When the Final Report was published under the title Basic Material for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum 50 most of the fanfare had run its course with the preliminary findings addressed by Charters two years earlier. The Final Report did

47 Charters to Lyman, 12 August 1926, MSS 266, Box 28, Folder 7, Lyman Papers.

48 Personal interview with Melvin Green, Director Emeritus, American Council on Pharmaceutical Education, September 3, 1979. Dr. Green knew W.W. Charters, Sr. and also Dr. Fischelis.

49 Charters to Lyman, 15 November 1926, MSS 266, Box 21, folder 6, Lyman Collection.

50 The price of the text was listed by McGraw-Hill Book Company at $4.00.
"PHARMACY IS A PROFESSION RATHER THAN A TRADE"

Dr. W. W. Charters, representing the Commonwealth Fund, after devoting two and a half years to a survey of retail drug stores, declares that pharmacy is a profession rather than a trade. This photograph shows Dr. Charters and the members of his advisory committee present at the Des Moines meeting. They are, from left to right, W. H. Zeigler, J. A. Koch, H. C. Christensen, Dr. Charters, R. A. Lyman, C. W. Johnson, A. B. Lemon, L. M. Monell, W. H. Rudd, and C. A. Dye.

Reprint from "The Druggist Circular" September 1925.
not differ significantly from the Report of the preliminary findings. The published Report did, however, rekindle enthusiasm and underscore the importance of the Commonwealth Study for the profession of pharmacy. A particular expression of enthusiasm was made by H.C. Christensen to the National Association of Boards of Pharmacy. His words echoed much of the sentiment heard after Charters made known the preliminary findings. Christensen said:

A Classic has been written. That seems a trite statement and at first flush may appear to savor of exaggeration but it is true—so true that this writer offers as his only argument in proof of the assertion, an invitation to the skeptical—if there be any such—to glance through the book.

...It is so far-reaching in its possibility for pharmacy that every Board member, every teacher of Pharmacy, every member of the Syllabus Committee, every retail pharmacist, and every student of pharmacy—particularly every senior student—should read and study it.

Hundreds of pharmacies or drug stores in all parts of the United States, representing all classes and sections, were investigated and the duties of the pharmacist tabulated. Thousands of prescriptions were checked for ingredients, frequency of ingredients, etc., etc.

...There is no guess-work about the report—no theorizing—just plain solid statement of supported facts. It says simply this is what the pharmacist must do—this is his job—and the obvious question is how shall he be trained for this work—what must his qualifications be?

Christensen then went on to focus on the importance of the Colleges of Pharmacy and the Syllabus Committee in making use of the Charters Survey. He expressed hope that the Survey would become the foundation for building a new college curriculum. He closed by saying that a Survey, such as Charters', should be a reoccurring activity and thought ten year intervals appropriate. Christensen's suggestions and hopes did not go unheard as will be seen.

Professional and educational journals offered reviews of Basic Material for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum. One reviewer reported:

This, though a comparatively small book, is a monumental work and may be looked back upon in years to come as marking the beginning of a new epoch in American Pharmacy. ...The results are set forth in orderly fashion and with great attention to detail in the present work. In former years the decision in such matters (as curricular studies) was left to individuals or to small groups representing a single College; lately, conferences have had a large part in determining them. The bias of the individual, even in conferences, has had a disturbing influence, for if he has been a forceful and combative character, his ideas have had more weight in determining curricula than have the real interests of the students.

The compilers of the basic material now under notice have endeavored to go about their work with an open mind—objectively, as they say. They have sought to substantiate facts for opinion, and that they have gathered a large mass of facts is evident to anyone who gives the book even a casual examination. These facts are presented in a striking manner and will no doubt be studied with great benefit by groups representing every phase of pharmacy—teachers and board members, students and prospective students, employers, clerks, wholesalers and others.

George C. Kyte, of the University of Michigan, in a review of the Commonwealth Study, wrote:

When representatives of a profession cease to spend most of their energies in committee meetings striving to determine curricular needs by consensus and turn their efforts into channels of cooperative study by scientific methods, they can expect to arrive at basic conclusions which are superior to their best guesses. Basic Material for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum, the product of this type of intensive group work, conclusively exemplifies this belief of the reviewer.

...The formidable array of data thus accumulated was classified and organized and, in some cases, integrated until they were made to yield conclusive facts regarding the activities, duties, needs and responsibilities of the pharmacist.

The volume is a distinct contribution to curriculum-building in the field of higher education. It exemplifies many techniques of curricular research which might be applied very profitably to discover what to teach in other professional fields.


Along with the favorable views, Charters himself was interested in ascertaining how those with whom he had worked felt about the final Report. Such an inquiry was made to Dean Rufus A. Lyman, an important acquaintance from the onset of survey deliberations. Lyman was considered by Charters as being knowledgeable and avant-garde in matters of pharmaceutical education. Lyman proved Charters correct in that early in 1927 Lyman had announced that his course in pharmacy at the University of Nebraska was going beyond the three year requirement of 1925 and would be increased to a four year curriculum. In a letter asking Lyman to comment on the Study, Charters stated:

> By this time you have had an opportunity to look over the pharmacy report. We spent a great deal of time on it, and in some cases it must have seemed as though we were looking at the trees rather than the forest; so now that the report is out, I should like to know your reactions to it---its strength, its weakness, and its probable influence.

Lyman delayed his response to Charters for a month while he heard the comments of those around him, most notably those of his students. Lyman stated that he felt the Study would have great influence on pharmacy since it was very basic compared to anything that had ever been done before. Lyman then spoke of the reaction of his students and said:

> During the first semester of this academic year I have gone over the substance of the report with my first and second year students and they were so enthused over the character of the study that everyone was anxious to get hold of a book as soon as it came from the press provided he had the money and I know some of them borrowed money to obtain it. The student reaction is interesting. They feel at last Pharmacy has really been put upon a professional basis, and it has been very helpful here to me because the student body body (sic) see that it is impossible to cover the essential subjects in Pharmacy in a two or three year course. It has made

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54 Charters to Lyman, 23 March 1927, MSS 266, Box 28, Folder 7, Lyman Papers.
them perfectly satisfied to take a minimum four year course. In other words I think the Pharmacy report has enabled me to sell the four year course to everybody here when otherwise it might have been difficult to have done so.

Lyman wrote that, to his surprise, Dean Sealock of Teachers College had expressed interest in the Study and said that "all educators were very much interested in the Study because of the technique which you had developed." Lyman was also surprised to learn of his daughter's knowledge of the Charters Report. He told Charters:

I got another interesting sidelight when my sixteen year old daughter who is a senior in the Lincoln High School came home one night and asked me if the Charter (sic) report was not the one I was interested in. I found that the vocational guidance teacher in the Lincoln High School had told one of her classes about it that day.

Lyman also reported upon a 6th district meeting of the N.A.B.P. he attended at which he was pleased and surprised at the interest expressed. This interest made him feel that:

It (the Report) is going to have a very wholesome effect on advancing the educational standards in Pharmacy and the retail druggists are reviewing the report as very authentic, as very basic and very convincing.

...I am of the opinion that it will have a very marked influence upon pharmaceutical education...

Prior to receiving Lyman's letter, Charters had sent another letter in which he stated:

You will be interested to know that I have had a number of statements from the educational people who have been examining our report from the point of view of the technic of curriculum construction, and I feel very happy about the whole situation. I have not heard much yet from the pharmacists.

55 Lyman to Charters, 26 April 1927, MSS 266, Box 28, Folder 7, Lyman Papers.

56 Ibid. 57 Ibid. 58 Ibid.

59 Charters to Lyman, 27 April 1927, MSS 266, Box 28, Folder 7, Lyman Papers.
Charters may not have heard from grass root pharmacists as to their perceptions of the final report, but that was not because the final report was ineffective and had not sent tremors through American Pharmacy. The impact of the final report of 1927 was precursed by the preliminary findings of August 1924. In 1924 American Pharmacy was ready for change and the preliminary findings served as a catalyst for those changes. By 1927 the change momentum was taking place in pharmacy and in this light, the final report served as a secondary catalytic agent with a resultant synergistic effect. Attention will now turn to the impact of the Commonwealth Study on American Pharmacy which was started in 1924 and continued to 1927.

**Impact of the Commonwealth Study on American Pharmacy**

By far the greatest single impact the Charters study had on American Pharmacy was to change the consciousness or at least affirm the consciousness that Pharmacy was indeed a profession rather than a trade. With this primal statement, a professional *esprit* was established which created a climate for movement towards codification and standardization of the educational process, state licensure requirements, and practice role models. Efforts to increase the professional awareness in pharmacy meant that the Commonwealth Study was viewed as a criterion on which education, licensure and practice could be based. Thus, the desire for renewed professionalism in pharmacy required that all areas of existing education, licensure and practice models be scrutinized by the Commonwealth Study. In the educational setting, this augmented a careful study of
the Pharmaceutical Syllabus and raised serious questions as to how the fourth edition would reflect the work of the Charters study. The study also raised questions about minimal standards member schools of the Association would be required to maintain and what agency would enforce standards for quality assurance in the Schools and Colleges.

In the area of licensure, State Boards of Pharmacy were able for the first time to base State Board examinations on something of an objective criteria. This criteria would permit reciprocity among the states. Finally, the practitioners of community pharmacy, as well as state inspectional personnel, had the beginnings of objective criteria on which to pass judgment on professional practice. This codification of community-retail practice also brought with it a call from practitioners for the continuation of the Charters study in an in-depth analysis of the commercial side of practice. Let us now review the Commonwealth Study and its impact on education, licensure and professional practice.

The Pharmaceutical Syllabus and
The Commonwealth Study

One of the effects of the preliminary findings and final Report was the formation of a Curriculum Committee by the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy. This special Committee of the Association was called Committee A and was chaired by Dean C.W. Johnson of the University of Washington College of Pharmacy. The general mission of the Committee was to discern the implementation of the Commonwealth Study on the curriculum of member schools.

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60 See reference to formation of Committee A in Proceedings of the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy, 1926, p. 15.
Since the Pharmaceutical Syllabus Committee, which was made up of representatives from the A.Ph.A., A.A.C.P., and the N.A.B.P., had heretofore published a curricular model for schools, the work of Committee A was specifically directed toward the Syllabus Committee. The question of the use of the Charters survey in further editions of the Syllabus was widely discussed. The majority felt that the new study should be used in further editions. The most serious resistance for using the Commonwealth Study, unfortunately, came from the Chairman of the Syllabus Committee, Dean Theodore J. Bradley of the Massachusetts College of Pharmacy. This resistance was met head on by Dean Johnson with support from his Committee and especially from his close colleague at the University of Nebraska School of Pharmacy, Dean Rufus Lyman. Charters also became involved in planning strategy against Bradley.

61 In a personal interview on September 2, 1979 with Robert P. Fischelis some interesting facts about Bradley's resistance to the Commonwealth Study were recalled. Fischelis was a significant source of information since he personally knew Johnson and Bradley and was a member of the Syllabus Committee representing the National Association of Boards of Pharmacy. As was mentioned earlier, he was also the editorial consultant for the Commonwealth Study. According to Dean Emeritus Fischelis, although the Proceedings of the associations do not report it, there was a serious rivalry between University affiliated-non profit schools and proprietary schools of pharmacy. The proprietary schools were accused of being diploma mills which were administered by non-academics. The Commonwealth Study was seen as an attempt on the part of university affiliated schools to lengthen the curriculum and slow the matriculation of students through the professional curriculum. While the Commonwealth Study was as an attempt to upgrade standards which was seen as a noble cause by all, it placed the proprietary schools in a difficult position. Such an upgrade in standards meant increased cost of operations which could be more easily borne by the university affiliated schools than by the proprietary schools. Simply put, the proprietary schools were resistant to the Commonwealth Study recommendations because they represented increased expenditure and decreased profit. With this back drop the stage was set: Bradley at Massachusetts was Dean of a proprietary school, Johnson at Washington and Lyman at Nebraska were deans of university-affiliated public schools...thus, the rivalry.
The first strategy to make use of the Commonwealth Study in changing the pharmacy curriculum was a letter sent by Johnson to all of the deans of colleges of pharmacy. In that letter, Johnson asked each dean for an estimate of the "minimum time thought necessary to give instruction, in the form of an organized course, in the basic material of the report." By asking the deans of member schools for this information, Johnson and Committee A were also asking the Deans to read the Commonwealth Study and to consider the courses listed in it as a time and content model for their individual curriculum. Charters was evidently very influential in the first strategy, according to a letter Johnson wrote to Lyman. He stated:

I am directed by Dr. Charters to begin the work of the Curriculum Committee, which was organized by the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy.

Dr. Charters approves the following plan (hourly estimates) for securing as much information as possible for the guidance of the Committee. After this information was gathered, it was hoped that Committee A could meet with Dr. Charters in Chicago to discuss the results. It was also recommended that the Syllabus Committee be invited so as to discuss ways of using the Commonwealth Study in the fourth edition of the Syllabus. That was planned as a second strategy. But while this meeting was hoped for, Johnson and Lyman could not find funds to support the trip, and Bradley wrote Johnson indicating that he could not attend such a meeting at the proposed time. While Bradley was unable

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62 C.W. Johnson to Deans of Colleges of Pharmacy. 1 April 1927, MSS 266, Box 26, Folder 5, Lyman Papers.
63 Johnson to Lyman, 1 April 1927, MSS 266, Box 26, Folder 5, Lyman Papers.
64 Johnson to Charters, 29 May 1927, MSS 266, Box 26, Folder 5, Lyman Papers.
to attend the proposed joint meeting, he did support, at least on the surface, the joint effort of the Curriculum Committee and the *Syllabus* Committee. Funds were found by Lyman and Bradley and a portion of the Syllabus Committee agreed to meet with Charters and Committee A in Chicago on July 12, 1927. Lyman, who was representing Committee A, recounted that memorable meeting:

Dr, (sic) Charters asked me what I understood the Committee of the Association of Colleges had been appointed for. I replied, "To build a Curriculum using the Commonwealth Study as a basis for such Curriculum." Bradley went right up in the air. Said that would be throwing away all the work done through the years by the Syllabus Committee. Dr. Charters as you know has a wonderful grasp of things and a keenesss for selling things at a moment's notice. I made the awful remark that there was not a man on the Syllabus Committee representing the A.Ph.A. that was at all interested in curriculum building and I suppose I had my nerve when I went further and said that none of them had the ability to build a curriculum if they had any interest. Dr. Charters then took Bradley in hand and when he got through with him he made Bradley own up to the fact that no constructive thought had ever been put upon the Syllabus except by Bradley himself and then Dr. Charters went a step further and made Bradley confess that he himself had never put anything into the Syllabus. 65

Judging from correspondance between Lyman, Johnson and Charters early in 1928, Bradley was not trusted and was indeed seen as an obstructionist. Lyman made it quite clear to Bradley that he felt that the Commonwealth Study should be used in the forthcoming revision of the *Syllabus*. As Lyman pointed out to Charters:

I am enclosing a copy of a letter that I have sent Dean Bradley concerning the policy to be followed in the revision of the Syllabus. ...I think the work will go along all right and our end will be accomplished when everybody understands that we are to use the basic material after the basis of the revision of the Syllabus. 66

65 Lyman to Lemon, 15 June 1928, MSS 266, Box 28, Folder 7, Lyman Papers.
66 Lyman to Charters, 9 February 1928, MSS 266, Box 21, Folder 6, Lyman Papers.
Charters' response to Lyman on his letter to Bradley said:

I think your letter to Dean Bradley is entirely to the point. As I wrote you some time ago, and as I think I suggested to Dean Bradley, I still think it would be advisable to see if a meeting of the Syllabus Committee couldn't be arranged...

In the old days when all that was expected of the Syllabus Committee was to tinker with the Syllabus, the revision could be carried on by correspondence, as at the present time, I don't see how we could very well get along without a meeting.67

Bradley's response to Lyman attempted to quell any concern that the Syllabus Committee would not cooperate with the Curriculum Committee. He said to Lyman:

There seems to be some doubt in your mind, as to how we shall use the material in Dr. Charters report, and I wish to dispel it, as my only desire is to produce the best Syllabus possible, and this material will be of a great help to that end. In Bulletin I, my statement that we have the privilege of using the material was meant to imply that we shall use it in all possible ways, and I was not quibbling or evading the understanding at all. It is so evident that we must use it that I am rejoicing over the privilege of doing so.68

Bradley then went on to affirm his willingness to work with Dean Johnson and his Curriculum Committee. Bradley did warn Lyman that disagreement may exist between people of such varied opinion and asked that forbearance be used in deliberating the revision of the Syllabus. In another letter to Bradley, Lyman stressed the importance of a face-to-face meeting for the purpose of discussing the revision. To add to his point, Lyman then quoted Charters comment made to him about how the Syllabus committee in the past was known to "tinker" with the Syllabus. Lyman continued:

67 Charters to Lyman, 18 February 1928, MSS 266, Box 21, Folder 6, Lyman Papers.
68 Bradley to Lyman, 15 February 1928, MSS 266, Box 20, Folder 3, Lyman Papers.
...but where fundamental changes are involved as at the present time, I do not see how we could very well get along without a meeting. I am dead sure that Dr. Charters is right in his statement at least as far as getting the Committee together is concerned.\(^6^9\)

Word of Bradley's unwillingness to use the Charter's study in revising the Syllabus must have reached Lyman. In speaking of a letter received from Bradley on February 15, promising cooperation, Lyman said:

I have a letter from Bradley in which he has agreed to all my suggestions. He insists that those ideas which I suggested were his ideas all the way through. Perhaps I do not understand New Englanders. They seem to talk one language and insist they mean something else.\(^7^0\)

In that letter it was also reported that the A.A.C.P. had approved a resolution which stated that Committee A was expected to work closely with the Syllabus Revision Committee. In another letter to Charters, Lyman showed clearly his feeling for the past Syllabus Committee and the frustration he anticipated.

Speaking of the Syllabus Committee, Lyman said:

What we really need is enough of the members of the general Syllabus Committee to be present. Men who are really interested in building a Pharmaceutical Curriculum so that they may see the vision and get inspiration. There are only a few men at the general Committee that are capable of that. The rest of them are indifferent and care for nothing excepting to see their names in print as members of the Syllabus Committee.\(^7^1\)

\(^6^9\) Lyman to Bradley, 24 February 1928, MSS 266, Box 20, Folder 3. Lyman Papers.

\(^7^0\) Lyman to Charters, 22 February 1928, MSS 266, Box 1, Folder 6, Lyman Papers. In the Fischelis interview, he also indicated a regional rivalry with Easterners tending to stand off all other regions of the country.

\(^7^1\) Lyman to Charters, 24 February 1928, MSS 266, Box 21, Folder 6, Lyman Papers.
Since there was difficulty gathering the Syllabus Committee and Curriculum Committee together, with the suspicion that Bradley may be behind that difficulty, Johnson and Lyman thought a meeting between Bradley and Charters was needed to change Bradley's obstructionist attitude. A letter from Johnson to Lyman stated that Charters' meeting with Bradley might move the revision along. Johnson said:

I agree with you most heartily that if you are to get Dean Bradley to include anything very much worth while in the Syllabus, that a meeting of the committee will be necessary. I can see that if we could get Bradley with Dr. Charters for a day or so, we might get him educated sufficiently to look on the Syllabus differently from what he does now... I would like to see the Syllabus revised so as to include everything that ought to be taught in a College of Pharmacy, irrespective of the number of hours that may be necessary to teach these subjects. My idea would be to forget entirely the numbers of hours, but to think solely of the subject matter.

Johnson then reported the failure of his earlier strategy to ask deans to report on the minimum number of hours of instruction needed to cover the material in the Commonwealth Study. Johnson admitted that he was primarily interested in the material and not the actual hours of instruction. But unfortunately of the thirteen deans, out of fifty, who did respond, all presented a picture of what they were presently doing and gauged the Commonwealth Study according to their particular time allotment. Johnson, in a disheartened way, said, "It is truly discouraging to work with an outfit that cannot think beyond what they are actually doing now."72

Although Johnson's expression did not paint a very pleasant picture for the future of the Pharmacy Curriculum and the Commonwealth Study's influence on it, hope was not to be lost.

72 Johnson to Lyman, 28 February 1928, MSS 266, Box 26, Folder 5, Lyman Papers.
As Spring began in 1928, a new optimism emerged for the Commonwealth Study in March when Dean Bradley announced that he was unable to continue as chairman of the Syllabus Committee. He had also recommended that Professor Lemon of Buffalo continue in his place.\footnote{Lyman to Lemon, 12 March 1928, MSS 266, Box 7, Folder 7, Lyman Papers.} Charters, Lyman, and Johnson were delighted with Bradley's stepping down. Lyman wrote of Bradley's decision in the following:

I have not received Bradley's Bulletin \#4 which I understand announces his resignation. The first inkling I had of it was from you (Charters). Personally I think this is most fortunate. I think when Bradley saw he had to do some work or quit, he quit.\footnote{Lyman to Charters, 12 March 1928, MSS 266, Box 21, Folder 6, Lyman Papers.}

Lyman, on Charters recommendation, wrote Lemon encouraging him to accept the chairmanship if offered to him. He wrote of that position:

In the past the position has not meant anything because nothing has ever been done but now that we are ready to revise the Syllabus along the lines of the Commonwealth Study it becomes a very important matter.\footnote{Lyman to Lemon, 12 March 1928, MSS 266, Box 7, Folder 7, Lyman Papers.}

Johnson was less supportive of Lemon whom he believed would be too influenced by Willis G. Gregory, his Dean at Buffalo. Gregory, Chairman of the 1910 Syllabus Committee, was of the same opinion as Bradl

In the deliberations to select a new chairman of the Syllabus Committee, both Johnson and Lyman discussed ways of getting Charters, himself, to be chairman. In a letter, Lyman wrote to Johnson:

\footnote{As reported earlier, Lemon was Charters' right hand administrative aide during the Survey.}
I think it would be the finest thing in the world to get Dr. Charters on the Syllabus Committee as chairman. He would do the head work and Lemon could do the clerical work and then we would have the job done.\footnote{Lyman to Johnson, 23 March 1928, MSS 266, Box 26, Folder 5, Lyman Papers.}
The discussion of Charters as a possible candidate for the chairmanship went beyond Lyman and Johnson as is evidenced by comments made to Charters by Lyman. Lyman said:

I do not think you have ever stated your personal attitude to me. Would you assume the Chairmanship of the Syllabus Committee if it was handed to you? The University men feel that you could render a great service there and we should like to know if you would be willing to undertake it. ...we feel that we can name our man. I hope you will let me know what your personal attitude is in order that we may better know how to proceed.\footnote{Lyman to Charters, 30 April 1928, MSS 266, Box 21, Folder 6, Lyman Papers.}

After asking Charters his feeling about being Chairman, Lyman then wrote Johnson and reported having sent the letter. Charters' response was short and to the point.

I wish to thank you for your suggestion that I might take the Chairmanship of the Syllabus Committee, but you will probably agree with me that my most effective service can be rendered as a member of the committee, because the chairman ought to be in the hands of one of the faculty of the Colleges of Pharmacy.

Still supporting Lemon, Charters continued:

Personally, I am not worried about Dean Gregory having undue influence on Mr. Lemon. He (Lemon) knows what he is about and he is completely sold to our program.\footnote{Charters to Lyman, 8 May 1928, MSS 266, Box 21, Folder 6, Lyman Papers.}

In answering Charters on May 11, 1928, Lyman agreed with him.

The search for a new chairman became more complex after a careful reading of the rules for replacement. Bradley had resigned the chairmanship but not from the committee. His continued membership meant there was no room for a new member since all of the places for Association representatives were filled.
Since neither Charters nor Lemon could be added, Lyman, Johnson and others had to look for a chairman among existing members. Early in October, the chairmanship was given to Professor John G. Beard of the University of North Carolina School of Pharmacy, who was a member of the Committee.

Beard, a representative of the A.A.C.P., was young, forward thinking and supported revision of the Syllabus according to the Commonwealth Study. After the final Report of the Commonwealth Study was published, Beard wrote several articles calling for a continuation of the Study in areas related to commercial aspects of pharmacy practice. Lyman was very pleased with Beard's chairmanship. He offered his advice in a congratulatory letter which stated Lyman's views on the chairman's responsibility. That qualification was simply that the chairman do some work. Lyman mentioned how unqualified Bradley was and recounted the July 12th meeting at which time: "Dr. Charters made him (Bradley) own up that neither had he given the Syllabus much thought and had never permitted anybody else to give any." Lyman closed by telling Beard that he looked forward to real curriculum building based on the Commonwealth Study.

Under Beard's leadership, the revision of the fourth edition of the Syllabus moved ahead with the Commonwealth Study as its base. A significant change in the revision consisted of eliminating the three subject classifications

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79 Lyman to Beard, 22 October 1928, MSS 266, Box 19, Folder 6, Lyman Papers.

80 Ibid.
which had been used since the 1910 edition. Those classifications were: Materia Medica, Pharmacy and Chemistry.\footnote{For a description of the original subject divisions see, \textit{The Pharmaceutical Syllabus}, 1st ed., (Lyon Company 1910).} Lyman supported this change and wrote to Beard:

\begin{quote}
I agree with you in your attitude towards discontinuing the old plan of dividing the Syllabus Study into three main branches. We should make a Syllabus using the subjects that are taught in a modern School of Pharmacy. ...In Building (sic) up a curriculum for a four year course, I would throw away Bradley's outline for a three year course and all other outlines that the Syllabus has used. If we are going to have a revolution in subjects let's revolutionize the whole Pharmacy program and begin to give a standard University course.\footnote{Lyman to Beard, 21 May 1929, MSS 266, Box 19, Folder 6, Lyman Papers.}
\end{quote}

The deliberation in preparing the Fourth Edition of the \textit{Pharmaceutical Syllabus}, although at times difficult, was markedly different under Beard's leadership. Instead of a closed Committee developing the revision, Beard opened the Committee to suggestions for change from all sectors. The end product which appeared in 1932\footnote{\textit{The Pharmaceutical Syllabus}, 4th ed. (Lord Baltimore Press, 1932).} was the Fourth Edition in which it was evident that the Commonwealth Study was used. As stated in the Preface:

\begin{quote}
Earlier in the preparation of the fourth edition it was decided not to limit the work of revision to member of the Syllabus Committee but to draw freely from "any source" that could furnish expert and specialized assistance. For example, the study of pharmacy that was made possible by the Commonwealth Fund and which appeared under the title "Basic Material for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum" has been drawn upon liberally and its findings and recommendations are often reflected in the outlines in this edition. ...This Syllabus, therefore, is not merely the product of the twenty-one members who compose the Committee but is rather a series of synopses and recommendations gathered from many sources.\footnote{Ibid. p. 11.}
\end{quote}
Along with the pedagogical arrangement of the revised edition based on the material outlined in the Charters study, the revision went a step further and recommended that the course in Pharmacy should be a four year curriculum. This recommendation, which was adopted by the A.A.C.P., placed pharmacy on an equal educational footing with other health professions. The Fourth Edition of the *Syllabus* was seen as a great stride in the standardization of Pharmaceutical education.

**Pharmacy Textbook Series and the Commonwealth Study**

The McGraw-Hill Book Company had agreed to publish the *Basic Material for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum* and was also very interested in publishing other pharmacy textbooks. The recommendations made in the Charters survey, along with various studies of subjects in the survey, were seen by McGraw-Hill as pharmacy moving to standardization of its curriculum. It was felt that standardization would bring a lucrative market for textbooks. The Survey had also used several technical authors in studying a variety of courses which the McGraw-Hill people were anxious to employ as textbook writers. Needless to say, the opportunity offered by McGraw-Hill was well received by many of the subject writers of the Survey, including Dr. Charters. To coordinate the efforts of the Pharmacy Series, a Committee was formed and was headed by C.W. Johnson. In an announcement of the series, Johnson described it as follows:

A new series of texts and reference works to be published under the direction of a committee of well known teachers in Colleges of Pharmacy, and the director of the recent Commonwealth Study.
Developments in the curricula of Colleges of Pharmacy in the last few years, and plans under way for making the four year course a minimum requirement in the near future, emphasize the lack of adequate texts and reference works covering the several subjects of the pharmaceutical curriculum. The Commonwealth Survey also calls attention to the need of books to be used as references by the practicing pharmacist.

In reviewing the roster of contributing authors, the Commonwealth Survey course writers are well represented in this venture. Textbooks to be written included the following areas: General Pharmacy, Pharmaceutical Arithmetic, Pharmaceutical Jurisprudence, Commercial Pharmacy, History of Pharmacy, Public Health, Dispensing, Manufacturing, Pharmacognosy, Pharmacology (or Pharmaceutical Therapeutics) Drug Assaying, Pharmaceutical Inorganic Chemistry, Pharmaceutical Organic Chemistry, Qualitative Chemical Analysis, Pharmaceutical Bacteriology and Biological Products. After some discussion with Rufus Lyman, Johnson also added Physiology to this listing. Lyman, as a contributor, was concerned that all the authors who were not a part of the Commonwealth Study must be encouraged to use the Study as the basis for their writing. He wrote to Charters of this concern and said:

I am sending this (above list) to you because it shows that we shall have to put the screws on these authors who want us to sponsor their books and insist that they use the basic material as a basis for writing books just the same as the Syllabus Committee must use that material in revising the Syllabus.

The result of this enterprise was that by the time the new revision of the Syllabus was available in 1932 so also were standardized textbooks for pharmaceutical education and references for practice. The Charters study was significant in creating an atmosphere in which the pharmacy textbook series could be developed.

85 Johnson to Lyman, 23 January 1928, MSS 266, Box 26, Folder 5, Lyman Papers.

86 Lyman to Charters, 10 February 1928, MSS 266, Box 21, Folder 6, Lyman Papers.
Licensure and the Commonwealth Study

The Commonwealth Study directly affected the curricular design in colleges of pharmacy through the revised Syllabus and also directly influenced the licensure activities of state boards of pharmacy throughout the United States. With the Commonwealth Study offering greater standardization to the professional curriculum in terms of specified courses and the duration of the professional program, the writing of state licensure examinations was also significantly affected. The move toward curriculum standardization meant that examination writers could now base their state licensure exams on a commonly established criteria. The net effect was that examinations became better instruments for measuring candidates' qualifications for licensure to practice. As schools established curricular standards and state licensure examinations were based increasingly on predetermined objectives, reciprocity for licensure among States increased. Although reciprocity was assisted by the growing movement toward standardization in pharmaceutical education, the state boards desired that standards not just be limited to curricular compliance but extend also to the quality of the curricular delivery. If licensure reciprocity among states was going to be advanced and strengthened, the state boards were interested in establishing standards to determine quality assurance of the professional curriculum of colleges and schools of pharmacy. To accomplish this goal the state boards, represented by the N.A.B.P., encouraged a study of pharmacy which would gather statistical information on the conduct of pharmaceutical education under therevised Syllabus in the United States. With this statistical base, pharmacy boards believed that they could determine the quality of any institution. With that
check for continuing quality assurance, reciprocal licensure would be greatly enhanced. Thus, to achieve that end, in 1927, just after the Charters Survey was published, the delegates of the N.A.B.P. voted to commit $10,000 for an impartial survey of colleges of pharmacy. With the results of the Basic Material for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum published and its impact taking hold on the Syllabus, the A.A.C.P., like the N.A.B.P., was interested in another survey of its member schools to determine the quality of delivery of the proposed new curriculum. The college association was also interested in assuring that member schools complied with membership standards as stated in the 1932 Syllabus. In describing the situation which suggested further study beyond the Commonwealth Survey, it has been reported:

The Charters Survey was not concerned, however, with a major problem which then faced the boards of Pharmacy: the lack of statistical and other information on Colleges of Pharmacy which gave the boards sufficient information to decide which schools should be recognized by the boards. This difficulty was interfering with procedures and decisions dealing with reciprocity...

At the same time, the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy was expressing concern about the standards and quality of pharmaceutical education, about the performance of candidates on licensure examinations and about the state of the profession in general. The AACP, with the

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87 A call for another survey of pharmacy was made shortly after the report of the preliminary findings by Charters in 1924. It was recommended that this survey focus on the commercial or business aspects of pharmacy. For a description of the commercial survey see: J.G. Beard, "Wanted, a Survey of Drug Stores," The Druggist Circular (March, 1925) p. 85. Interestingly, Charters was approached to conduct this survey and had agreed, provided funding was secured.

88 R.G. Mrtek, "Pharmaceutical Education in These United States," American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education 40 (1976); p. 339. It is reported in this article that some member schools continued to offer three-year courses in Pharmacy as late as 1939.
Charters Survey still fresh and with the recommendations from it not completely effected, was looking forward to a comprehensive survey of the profession...

**A Study of Pharmacy in the United States -- A Second Survey**

The resultant collaborative effort for another survey moved forward with the A.A.C.P. pledging $16,000 over a three year period, commencing in 1928. In 1928 the A.Ph.A. joined this enterprise which became known as the Committee on the Study of Pharmacy and Pharmacy Education. A nine-member Committee of the three Associations was convened on January 30, 1929 to plan for the survey. A tenth member was also added to represent the Syllabus Committee. In addition to pharmacy-related membership, the American Council on Education was asked to participate and agreed to send a representative to assist the Committee. At the end of a January meeting, an outline for the study was circulated which encompassed the following:

Outline for a Study of Pharmacy in the United States

I. A brief historical statement (including practices in foreign countries).

II. Conditions of the practice of pharmacy which determine its educational requirements.


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90 J.G. Beard, "Summary of the Proceedings of the Second Meeting of the Committee on Pharmaceutical Education," Atlantic City, 30 January 1929. It was reported that R. Fischelis was asked to prepare this outline; see Jordan to Mann, 10 June 1929, BC 10, Charters Papers. This important work can be seen as a blueprint of standards which were later adopted by the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education in 1939.
(2) Functions performed by the pharmacist. (Supplement of the study by Charters.)

(3) Legal status of the practice of pharmacy.

(4) Enforcement of the pharmacy practice acts.

(5) Trends in Pharmacy.

III. Pharmaceutical Education.

(1) Number and distribution of colleges.

(2) Relation of colleges to the institution of which they are an integral part or with which they are affiliated.

(3) Facilities of the colleges for giving instruction.
   (a) Administration.
   (b) Financial resources.
   (c) Buildings and equipment.
   (d) Teaching; Qualifications of members of the instruction staff; Effectiveness of teaching.
   (e) Student qualifications and performance.
   (f) Curriculum (cultural and professional).
   (g) Requirement for degrees.
   (h) Research.

(4) Regulation of pharmacy colleges.
   (a) By state laws, Boards of Pharmacy; Practices in licensing; Qualifications of Board Members, Standards for Selection of Board Members.
   (b) By professional organizations.
      (1) American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy.
      (2) National Association of Boards of Pharmacy.

(5) Constructive criticism and suggestions.
IV. Objective measurements of achievement.

(1) Preparation of Tests.

(2) Administration of Tests.

(3) Establishment of Standards of Performance.

(4) Interpretation of Results.

V. Standards for pharmaceutical education.

(1) Minimum for use of boards of pharmacy in the recognition of colleges and licensing individuals.

(2) Optimum standards.

VI. Summary and recommendations.

Along with the protocol for the study, a budget of $85,000 was recommended for the two year period. A subcommittee was also appointed to supervise and advance the study. When Charters was asked to be chairman, he accepted on the condition that the budget needs were met. There is evidence that Charters was responsible for the tentative budget proposal even though Dr. C.R. Mann of the American Council on Education was reported to have submitted it in the Committee "Proceedings" of the January 30th meeting. With a high level of support among pharmacy leadership, the next order of business was to secure necessary funding for the project.

The remainder of 1929 was spent trying to fund the second study of pharmacy. Each of the three associations sponsoring the study promised funds totaling $45,000. The remainder of the necessary funds would have to come from outside sources, thereby presenting a problem. Several solutions were attempted, one of which was Lyman asking Charters if he could carry out the study for less than $85,000. Lyman wrote:
The functions of the druggist has been determined be (sic) the Commonwealth Study and (sic) should like to ask you if a fairly decent Educational Survey could be completed at a cost of $45,000 to $50,000. Our three Associations have that much money in sight.

Charters' response was to wait and see if the foundations would be willing to offer funding. While not specifically "holding out" for $85,000, Charters does make it clear in other correspondence that the recommended budget is what it would take for another survey of pharmacy.

The next source of funding, since Charters would not lower his price, was the philanthropic foundations. A sixteen page grant entitled, "Brief on the Need of a Study of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Education" was submitted to the Carnegie Corporation by the three Associations. In a section of the grant called "Invitation to Carnegie Corporation" the following plea was made:

The foregoing indicates that the leaders in pharmacy are alive to the responsibilities of the profession and are doing all in their power in an educational, legislative and moral way to bring the practice of pharmacy to the high point of efficiency warranted by the importance of the service it renders. It also indicates that these leaders have the support of the pharmacists of the nation in this effort. The membership of the three national organizations, National Association of Boards of Pharmacy, American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy, and the American Pharmaceutical Association, believe that a thorough study of pharmacy, comparable to the studies made in medicine and dentistry, will materially benefit pharmacy and consequently the public. We have shown our belief in the value of this study in a concrete way by offering to contribute $45,000 towards the expense of the same. It is hoped that the Carnegie Corporation, realizing the importance of this study to public health, will assist us by giving sufficient funds to complete the budget.

Respectfully submitted,

American Pharmaceutical Association
by E. F. Kelly

91 Lyman to Charters, 7 May 1929, MSS 266, Box 21, Folder 6, Lyman Files.
The outcome of this request was reported by Lyman in correspondence to C.W. Johnson. In speaking of the American Council on Education, he said:

The Council thought they (associations) could get another $45,000 out of the Carnegie (sic) Institution. The Carnegie (sic) Institution did not turn it down but referred it to the Rockefeller (sic) Foundation because it was medical. The Rockefeller (sic) people say it isn't medical and turned it down flat. It was our judgement the Du Mez and Mann should go to New York and make a last personal appeal to the Carnegie (sic) people. If this fails, DuMEMANN (sic) is of the opinion we should go to the Pharmaceutical interests for it, but the rest of us are all against it. We have accepted thousands of dollars from the manufacturers (sic) for the Headquarters Building and because because (sic) of that, every one is saying that the manufacturers (sic) have got our hands tied for the next hundred years and we can't afford to be dominated by them in an Educational Survey.  

Johnson agreed with Lyman, and went on to describe his feelings about the Charters study and the new survey. He said:

It seems to me that the Charter's study established the field of pharmacy. This new survey should study the institutions teaching pharmacy. Personally I think it unwise to make this educational survey until all schools are on a full four year basis. This would mean putting it off until 1936 or later.

Lyman, in another letter, indicated the position Charters was taking in assisting in fund raising. Lyman also had a particularly strong reaction against the proposed survey when he said:

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93 Lyman to Johnson, 10 May 1929, Box 26, Folder 6, Lyman File. Du Mez was Dean at the University of Maryland, School of Pharmacy and President of the American Association of College of Pharmacy.

94 Johnson to Lyman, 20 May 1929, Box 26, Folder 6, Lyman File.
I have recently heard from Dr. Charters and he says the thing to do is to ask the Council on Education to make a $45,000 survey, if we don't raise any more. He suggested he had in mind general places where perhaps sums around $10,000 can be raised if the Carnegie (sic) Foundation does not come through. I am inclosing (sic) a copy of the budget which shows how they expect to spend the money. It looks to me like gross extravagance (sic) and my contact with these educational experts leads me to think that their expertness is very largely in their minds. I am also enclosing a copy of the outline of the contemplated study. You can see that a large part of it is covered by the Commonwealth Study already.

Do you know that I have been told that some of these surveyers are making a fortune out of these surveys. I don't (sic) know as I blame them for it, but it galled me to see our money thrown away.

The budget to which Lyman was referring was listed as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Director's Salary, 2 years</td>
<td>$20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Test Specialist, 2 years</td>
<td>12,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part Time Experts</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two Clerks, 2 years</td>
<td>7,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postage and Supplies</td>
<td>7,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing (including reporting)</td>
<td>8,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous Expenses</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Committee Two Meetings Annually</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experts Traveling Expenses</td>
<td>8,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$85,000

A month earlier Charters had written to the Carnegie Corporation on the recommendation of Dr. Mann of the Council on Education. In the letter, Charters told F. P. Keppel of a wonderful project which needed matching money. He reported that the pharmacy profession had committed $45,000 already and that:

A substantial part of the study has already been completed in the study of the curriculum which was made under my direction. So the task would not be as expensive or as long continued as most surveys.

95 Lyman to Johnson, 24 May 1929, MSS 266, Box 26, Folder 6, Lyman Files.


97 Charters to Keppel, 29 April 1929, BC 10, Charters Papers.
Of the meeting with F.P. Keppel it was reported that the committee:

...received rather shabby treatment from Keppel. It seems that he insisted on doing all the talking to such an extent that they (the Committee) were scarcely able to get a word in edgewise and failed even to present their arguments.

Thus funding from the most promising foundations had failed and further requests were abandoned.

In a rather fiery letter to Dr. C.R. Mann of the Council on Education and author of the proposed budget for the second study, Charles B. Jordan, chairman of the Executive Committee of the A.A.C.P. and Dean of Purdue University School of Pharmacy asked if the budget could be cut to include a lesser study of Pharmacy. Jordan indicated the delay caused by the $85,000 project budget and the inability to secure funds was becoming an embarrassment to the three associations. He thought an adequate study could be accomplished for $45,000, which was available. Mann's response to Jordan was to send the request for a lesser study on to Charters for comment. Charters wrote Jordan asking that before the study was curtailed, that "manufacturers and wealthy men connected with pharmacy be solicited." Jordan's response to Charters was that many educators were opposed to approaching manufacturers for financial support for fear of their influence on the objectivity of a second Study.

98 H.C. Christensen, 5 June 1929, BC 10, Charters papers. In another section of this letter, Christensen, Secretary of the National Association of Boards of Pharmacy, warns that there should be a very careful study of the Charters' report before outlining the plan for the present study, in order to avoid duplication of work.

99 Charters to Jordan, 28 June 1929, BC 10, Charters Papers.

100 Jordan to Charters, 2 July 1929, BC 10, Charters Papers.
While the controversy continued throughout the summer as to how funds were to be raised and what size the second study of pharmacy ought to be, the event of late October, 1929 put a sudden halt to discussion of the proposed study and its budget. The economic depression stopped the movement toward the proposed second study and slowed the progress made by Charters' Commonwealth Study. That delayed period of progress did, however, see the formation of the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education, the accrediting agency, in 1932, and the adoption of national standards in 1939. The Second World War continued to slow progress made by the Commonwealth Study. It was not until 1946 that the profession began its second study of pharmacy which was called The General Report of the Pharmaceutical Survey 1946-1949. This study was directed by Dr. Edward C. Elliott, the retired President of Purdue University and friend of Charters. W.W. Charters was appointed chairman of the Committee on the Pharmaceutical Survey.

**Evaluation of the Pharmacy Study of 1927**

In 1931 Charters became interested in evaluating his Commonwealth study of pharmacy as to its effect on the profession. To carry out this evaluative excercise, Charters wrote to each of the deans of the colleges and schools of pharmacy inquiring about various questions he raised about the study. In the opening remarks of the letter, Charters asked each dean to recall the Commonwealth Study. He then raised the following questions:

1. What uses have been made of the Study by your college, yourself, your faculty or authors on your faculty?

2. What uses so far as you know have been made of the study by the A.A.C.P. or its committees?
3. Do you think that on the whole the study has repaid the time and effort put upon it by the members of the Association? Give specific reasons for your judgment. 101

Charters asked the deans to respond to his questions by June 1, 1931. The evaluation was completed and circulated on March 3, 1932. It was entitled: "An Evaluation of the Pharmacy Study of 1923-26." It was sixteen pages in length. 102 The Study contained an introduction, a general estimate of the study, national uses, local uses, and lastly, a conclusion.

In the introduction, Charters made the point that the evaluation of the Commonwealth Study would be valuable for improving the techniques for future educational studies. He reviewed the historical background leading up to the Commonwealth Study and revealed that:

The content (of the study) was finally specified in the form of raw materials rather than an organized course for the curriculum. It was felt that if the raw materials were specified, instructors in the colleges would be more competent than the director and his staff to decide experimentally upon the details of organization of the material for teaching purposes. 103

Charters also indicated that he felt the Survey was timely and had a significant impact. During the period 1927 to 1932, the date of survey publication and the time of his evaluation, the pharmacy curriculum was still in a very unsettled state. Charters outlined the details of the evaluation by saying that he received fifty-three replies from deans. Four did not reply "even to a follow up letter." Charters reported the Colleges that did not reply were: College of Pharmacy at Loyola University, George Washington University, University of Texas, and West Virginia University.

101 Charters to Lyman, 9 May 1931, Box 21 Folder 6, Lyman Files.
103 Ibid., p. 1.
Under the section, "A General Estimate of the Study," Charters reported the general worth of the study in terms of use and time spent in carrying it out. He reported the results as follows:

Fourty-seven of the fifty-seven deans stated that the Study was worth the effort; four deans did not reply; one lone dean stated tersely that the Study was "one more of those inane things that fill wastepaper baskets"; and five deans were uncertain: two in the Island Territories, one who preferred to have the material thrown into organized courses and two who felt that it was used, chiefly by the younger instructors rather than by the older teachers. 104

Charters then cited a sampling of quotations received which are incorporated in Addendum B.

"National Uses" was the second category Charters used in his evaluation. Particular areas the Commonwealth Study was reported as having effected were: the four-year curriculum, the revision of the national Syllabus, fourth edition, the National Association of Boards of Pharmacy licensure activities, the National Formulary revision, Inspections of Colleges by the American Association of College of Pharmacy and numerous national meeting references. Addendum C contains a sampling of quotations related to the second section.

The last area of consideration was "Local Use" of the Commonwealth Study. Charters found the Study effected the following areas: course organization, faculty committees, textbooks, university administration, local boards of pharmacy, legislatures, vocational guidance and orientation courses.

Charters' conclusions indicated that the measurement of his evaluation was necessarily confined to the opinion of faculty members since objective measures were not available. His findings are put simply as follows:

104 Ibid., p. 3.
The opinion of the faculties of the Colleges as expressed by the deans and some members of the faculties, is much more favorable than we were aware. The courses of their satisfaction lie partly in the content of the Report, but we are certain that the timeliness of the Study was an important factor in its usefulness and that the preparation of the Report by the Colleges themselves in an attempt to secure reliable answers to their own problems was conclusive to its wide acceptance.

In his work with Dr. Edward Elliott, Director of the Second Pharmaceutical Survey in 1947, Charters recalls his evaluation of the Commonwealth Study and expressed its worth. In a letter to Elliott, Charters recommended that the Evaluation of the first Survey be circulated to members of the Elliott Survey. In this regards Charters said:

After receiving the copy of my evaluation of the first pharmacy study from Alice (an administrative aid to Elliott) yesterday, I read it over and was very much interested in reading it. Even though I collected the information myself, and, therefore, may be prejudiced in favor of its value, I was re-impressed by the usefulness and influence of the report of the survey.

It occurred to me that it would be worthwhile to have this report...distributed to the members of the Committee, at least. I suggest this because undoubtedly some of our people are wondering whether or not the survey they are working on will do any good in the end. To such "doubting Thomases" a copy of this report which shows that an earlier survey was substantially useful would tend to buy their misgivings and strengthen their morale.

The American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education and the Commonwealth Study

Ten years after the final report of the Commonwealth Study had been published, Rufus Lyman wrote to Charters recalling the Survey and some of its impact. Lyman had just become the founding editor of the new Journal of the

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105 Ibid., p. 17.
106 Charters to Elliott, 29 January 1947, BC 10, Charters Papers.
Photograph of signature of Werrett Wallace Charters, Sr. as it appears in an autographed copy of Basic Material for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum. Text was a gift of the Charters Family to this writer.
American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy, which was called the American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education. On the occasion of the publication of the first volume, Lyman wrote the following:

I sometimes feel that I am just beginning where I ought to stop. I myself, however, think that this Journal will be able to make a very fine contribution to the course of pharmaceutical education. I feel that this is very largely an outgrowth of what has happened since the Commonwealth Study was made and directly because that study was made. As I look back upon it, that study gave us a background and made us feel like we had a place under the sun, that we did not feel before. I could point to two specific things that came to us as a result of the study, but I think the greatest thing was this general background it gave us. 107

**Lemon Reports Charters' Death**

As the Commonwealth Survey had profound impact on the profession of pharmacy, the person of W.W. Charters, Sr. had a similar effect on the people with whom he had contact in pharmacy as well as outside of it. Rufus Lyman, the outspoken critic of almost everything, established a relationship with Charters lasting over thirty years. Lemon, who became the Dean at Buffalo, in large part because of his close work with Charters as first assistant on the Commonwealth Study, related an interesting circular trail of events as to his relationship with Charters. In reporting the death of Charters to Lyman, Lemon said:

I am sending you a few more news items herewith. By this time you no doubt have heard of the sudden death of Dr. Charters. As you probably know, he and I were born in the same small hamlet in the Province of Ontario. He taught me my A.B.C.'s and lived in my grandparents home where I also resided. Thirty-five years later fate brought us together again on the Commonwealth Study. A year ago last summer, we had a reunion of the students whom he taught in the one room school house where I was his pupil fifty-five years before. Sixteen of his former pupils showed up. He flew down from Michigan and had one of the most pleasant days of his life.

107 Lyman to Charters, 27 February 1937, Box 26, Folder 6, Lyman Files.
I was not able to attend his funeral because I couldn't learn where he was to be buried until it was over. He was buried in the general area in which we were both born and raised. I went to his grave last Sunday and paid my respects to a wonderful man and a fine friend.

108 Lemon to Lyman, 29 March 1953, Box 28, Folder 7, Lyman Files.
Werrett Wallace Charters, Sr., was born to simple working parents in Hartford, Canada on December 23, 1875 and died while visiting his family in Livingston, Alabama on March 8, 1952. Through the span of his life, W. W. Charters was a dedicated spouse and parent and established a successful career as a professional educator. Charters, early in his development, exhibited special interests and aptitudes which meant he would leave his uncomplicated life for the complex world of the university. A product of the Canadian public school, Charters pursued higher education at McMaster University and the Ontario Normal College. An interest in teaching, teacher education, and a hope for a successful career in education moved him to the University of Chicago to prepare for a doctor of philosophy degree. While successfully completing graduate work, his academic record at Chicago was less distinguished than that established in Canada. While at Chicago, he was influenced by the pragmatism of James and the educational philosophies of Dewey and Meriam. Charters focused and refined these pragmatic approaches to educational and curriculum construction throughout his professional career. At Chicago, Charters met Jessie Allen, later to become his spouse and life-long confidant.

Upon earning his doctorate, Charters took a position at the State Normal School at Winona, Minnesota. This appointment was the best available, but meant that he would remain in the United States, eventually becoming a citizen. While at Winona, he also became a principal of an elementary school. His major scholarly
effort during this period was his *Methods of Teaching*. This work gave him national visibility and launched his career as an advocate of pragmatic curriculum writing.

His first major university appointment was at the University of Missouri. Charters gained academic and administrative experience at Missouri and authored other noteworthy studies including *Teaching the Common Branches* and a series of textbooks on language and grammar. He began to direct a number of teacher conferences around the Columbia area. His administrative ability was recognized by Stephens College, leading to a long association. His full-time work at Missouri and his contributions to Stephens College demonstrated his capacity for hard work and professional skills. After ten years at Columbia, Charters accepted a position at the University of Illinois.

Charters, with his family now consisting of a wife and three children, moved to Urbana in 1917. The excitement of the move to Illinois, generated by the faculty's enthusiasm for his appointment, was offset partially by the difficult salary negotiations with President James. Charters perceived of himself as being very marketable and held out until the end for the best possible salary. Charters' hard line negotiating could be attributed to his realistic world-view and an economic frame of reference shaped by his Scottish heritage. Final acceptance of the appointment did not mean his professional efforts were appreciated fully by the central administration. At the University of Illinois, Charters was immersed in administrative duties with responsibilities for carrying out Smith-Hughes activities. Upon the resignation of Chairman Bagley, he assumed major administrative responsibility for the organization of the school of education and the university high school. With the death of President James, a close friend and supporter and
appointment of President Kinley, Charters left Illinois for a position at the Carnegie Institute of Technology. The reasons for not being appointed as dean, and his departure for another position are unclear. It appears that a lack of central administrative support and a distaste for administrative duties are among possibilities.

Charters was brought to Carnegie Institute to head the Research Bureau for Retail Training, a division of the Bureau of Applied Psychology. Salary negotiations were difficult but ultimately Charters accepted the position. The work at Carnegie provided a shift in professional focus. Charters had grown tired of administration and wanted to devote more time to educational research. His research and consultant activities were economically more rewarding. At Carnegie, Charters was in his financial heyday, consulting for a myriad of companies, both large and small. His effort revolved about corporate management training, in-service development programs and vocational curriculum writing. Charters shifted his attention from the typical school curriculum to the curricular needs of the business community and specialized vocational groups. One such vocational group was pharmacy. He kept his hand in conventional school curricula through his ongoing work with Stephens College. It is interesting to note that Charters' combined salary at that time was substantial compared with the average person of the day. His many consulting ventures moved the Bureau for Retail Training away from the goals set out by Bingham originally. Funding, therefore, was no longer available at Carnegie and Charters was forced to leave the Bureau. Fortunately for Charters and his research staff, the University of Pittsburgh, in an eleventh hour decision, offered financial support to his research activity.
The support offered by the University of Pittsburgh meant that the education research activities could continue, but it also meant Charters had to return to administrative work as Dean of the Graduate School. A salary cut was required but this decision was agreed to in order to salvage the research activities. Charters' tenure at Pittsburgh continued the financial and professional momentum started at Carnegie Institute. Mrs. Charters began to express concern over the business-like characteristics which seemed to be overcoming her husband to the detriment of his professional and academic aspirations. Fortunately for the professional educator side of Charters' life, Jessie Allen persuaded her husband to leave Pittsburg and to return to an academic and less business-like career pathway. Jessie Allen's significant influence meant the family, now with a fourth child, a son, would return to the University of Chicago.

The year 1925 found Charters at the University of Chicago teaching full time and involved in educational research activities. While at Chicago, he began to crystallize his thought on the teaching of ideals. The University of Chicago was the setting in which Jessie Charters began her career development more assertively. The translocation to Chicago marked a significant point in the relationship of Jessie and Werrett in that he agreed to shift his career focus and she began a more active professional career of her own. Jessie Allen's career at Chicago was successful in the involvement in home study courses. Charters found satisfaction in his teaching but did not find strong support for his educational research at the University. Dr. George Arps of Ohio State, knowing of Charters' growing dissatisfaction with circumstances at the University of Chicago and being aware of Jessie Allen's talent and desire for professional identity, offered them both appointments at Ohio State. Jessie Allan was offered an assistant professorship
with responsibilities for organization of a new department of adult education. Charters was offered the directorship of a well-funded bureau for educational research. The offer proved irresistible and, in 1927, both accepted these positions.

His career at Ohio State was continued until his retirement in 1942. While there, he was involved in numerous curricular studies. He was a teacher and mentor for several students who were to become national educational specialists. He wrote several textbooks on health education during this period. Due to a university policy prohibiting husband and wife working together at the university instituted during the depths of the economic depression of the 1930's, Jessie Allen's work was terminated in 1933. A male faculty member took her position. This event greatly demoralized Jessie Allen and she terminated all career activities at the University. Charters was called from retirement during the second World War. He served in the War Manpower Commission helping to train unskilled workers and vocational educators for the war effort. Stephens college curricular and educational research activities continued until 1947. That long relationship at Stephens College is a major example of his pragmatic educational philosophy applied to curricular development. After the work at Stephens College was completed, Charters retired to Glen Lake, Michigan, although occasional consulting activities continued.

Throughout their lives, W.W.C. and J.A.C. subscribed to a rather typical American ethic of hardwork and upward social mobility. W.W. Charters had a keen intellect, good organizational skills and a charismatic personality. These traits when blended with a "good idea" made him a very marketable individual. Charters' "good idea" was methods of curriculum construction and other related educational research. He was well respected and an acknowledged scholar. An indicator of
respect in which he was held by his colleagues is the formal manner in which he was addressed. In the correspondence examined in the preparation of this study, never once was he referred to by any name other than "Dr. Charters."

Jessie Allen Charters played a very significant role in W.W.C.'s professional life, offering a complement of strong intellect and supportive critic. She was a woman with ideas years ahead of her time. Their many years together were very economically comfortable. Their children were well educated and provided for in a caring fashion. The exact extent of the Charters estate has not been pursued but it has been described as being "very comfortable." Rufus Lyman's claim that some of those persons doing surveys were making fortunes may not have been far off, given the fact that Charters offered to pay full tuition to college for many of his close relatives' children.

Charters' professional thought was shared interestingly with his spouse. He entered the arena of professional education theory when three groups were visible. These were the traditionalist, scientific and democratic curriculum writers. W.W.C. chose sides with the scientific proponents in the majority of his work. There was, however, an element of the traditionalist group in his writing which may be attributed to his conservative Northern Baptist heritage. There was also seen a pull to the democratic curriculum group as illustrated by his work with Stephens College. This may well have been the effect Dewey and James had on him. Woelfel seems to be correct in finding it difficult to "group" Charters. While Woelfel found it frustrating in his attempts to group Charters, it would seem that such a desire to categorize his efforts might be overly simplistic given the complexity of curriculum writing. Charters appears to have wanted to balance and
interweave all the groups, since he believed the best curriculum should have elements from each group. For both Charters and his friend Bode, a tension between opposite elements was desirable.

In reviewing Charters' writings, it becomes apparent that an evolution of theory, from simple to more complex claims, took place in the course of his life. This was demonstrated in his starting with minimal essentials and ending up with consideration of new ideals. The one presupposition that remains constant in his thought, however, was the maxim he learned at the University of Chicago, namely, "structure follows function". All of Charters' curricular enterprises in some way attempted to break the educational structure into its parts, examine those parts in light of their interrelatedness and intrarelatedness. That structure was reconstructed using those parts that were functional and related to the total goal of the educational experience or outcome. While this underlying investigational method was used and held constant, the types of curricula investigated changed. Charters' work at Winona and Missouri was primarily directed toward the school curriculum and establishing essential school subjects needed for democratic common schooling. Charters' responsibilities at Illinois, as administrator of the Smith-Hughes Act, moved him to a concern for teachings of vocational education and their curricula. He thus became interested in a narrowly defined curricular end which he considered to be a curriculum built on job analysis. Charters continued this line of thought, with increasing professional popularity while at Carnegie and Pittsburgh.

It was during that period that the pharmaceutical survey was undertaken. It was also during this period that J.A.C.'s influence on her husband convinced him to move to Chicago and change the course of his theory to consider ideals. That change facilitated functional analysis as opposed to job analysis. Both Kirschner
and Segul, in their studies, failed to point out correctly reasons for the important
shifts in Charters' curriculum theory and his reasons for his leaving Pittsburgh.

Functional analysis, the determining of ideals and the educational means to
those ideals, was emphasized while at Chicago and Ohio State. The movement into
ideals, which he admitted was an early concern of his wife, was responsible for
bringing the critical eye of the philosopher to his research. Bode and Stone
accused Charters' notion of ideals of being hedonistic and static, for his stance
attempted to separate ideal from activities. Most significant in the movement
from job analysis to functional analysis was the return to a "purer" academic
consideration. Educational research was now less for economic gain and more
toward scholarship. Jessie Allen Charters played a key role in this professional
transition. Mrs. Charters, herself, offers further ground for study, not only for her
concepts of educational research and also for her impact on adult education at
Chicago and Ohio State. The balancing of her dedication to her husband's career
and its direction as well as her own professional goals represent characteristics of
dedication much ahead of the times.

Of particular importance to this study has been an investigation of Charters'
involvement with the pharmaceutical survey of 1927. The school survey was not a
particularly new phenomenon in formulating curriculum during this time. In the
case of pharmacy, however, Charters did bring the survey technique under the
scrutiny of science and the empirical method. The particular uniqueness of
Charters' survey technique was its connection with job analysis theory with the
underlying premise that "structure follows function". Charters thought of his
methods of data collection and analysis as scientifically objective. While the
degrees of objectivity in his findings could be argued, the fact remains that the
surveying, data collection, tabulating and analysis did offer insights into consensus opinion. Charters' technique of surveying and data tabulation expanded the study approach beyond the scope of experts to include a broadly-based community of interests. Charters' surveying was assisted technically by the increased effectiveness of mail delivery and improved methods of duplicating materials. Charters entered upon an agreement with leaders of pharmacy to examine pharmacy practice using his methods of job analysis from a functional point of view. It still remains unclear if pharmacy approached Charters or if Charters approached pharmacy. Rufus Lyman claimed Charters, who had been working with the Commonwealth Fund, had been looking for a professional group to study using his job analysis techniques. Other evidence exists, however, that Dean Julius Koch of Pittsburgh played an important role in convincing Charters to study pharmacy. Robert Fischelis, consultant to Charters, favors the notion that Koch brought Charters to pharmacy.

In the final analysis, entry into the agreement proved to be of mutual benefit. Charters' involvement in studying pharmacy was thorough and had a significant and lasting impact on pharmacy. He began the study of pharmacy at a mutually agreeable time. Pharmacy leaders were upset with the recent statements of Flexner who claimed that pharmacy was not a profession. The United States Surgeon General was unwilling to grant commissions to pharmacists during World War I because they were not of the same professional stature as other health care professionals. The reaction to these events by leaders of pharmacy was to bring uniformity to the pharmaceutical curriculum and, by so doing, improve education and raise professional standards. The issue of requiring high school graduation for entrance into a pharmacy school or college as of 1917, provoked debate on the
length of the pharmacy curriculum. The dispute was intensified as the need for standardization of pharmacy education increased. The *Pharmaceutical Syllabus*, a guide to the pharmacy curriculum recommended by experts in pharmacy education, was published in 1910 by the Pharmacy Faculties. A rivalry existed between pharmacy faculties from proprietary schools and pharmacy faculties within universities. These rivalries did not serve to increase standards. In 1920 there was a call for a study of pharmacy advanced, primarily, by Lyman's "what's next" question, culminating in Koch negotiating a survey of pharmacy with Charters. After securing funds from the Commonwealth Fund, the study began in 1923.

Throughout the pharmacy study, Charters was skillfully marshalling broad support for his activities. He gathered an administrative and consulting team around him which was made up of pharmacy leaders in practice and education. He utilized the professional journals adeptly to keep his activities before the eyes of the profession, peaking interest and fostering cooperation. In his surveying, Charters did not limit his investigation to studying prescription orders as initially suggested. He included a detailed study of subject matter and trait analysis of pharmacy practitioners. His interviews included professionals outside pharmacy and the public at large. Charters' efforts thus broadened the "expert opinion" approach of the *Pharmaceutical Syllabus* by adding the opinions and activities of the community of interests. What the community practitioners did, as well as what they were perceived as doing, served as the basis for curricular and course development. By 1925 the Charters' survey was of great interest to pharmacists. Its outcome was expected to unite the profession, provide a blueprint for curricular improvements, and strengthen professional standards.
The enthusiasm for Charters' work persuaded him to announce preliminary findings. Progress reports were issued two years prior to the release of the final report. In those reports, Charters presented twelve items elaborating the activities and duties of the pharmacist. These items listed areas of activity related to the pharmacists in matters of professional practice, cultural and ethical standards. The pharmacist's role was viewed comprehensively with professional concerns interwoven with human growth and development. During his presentation, Charters asked that his study be compared to the *Pharmaceutical Syllabus*. His suggestion was made with confidence in the success of the study. After presenting the twelve findings, he was asked by his close friend H. C. Christiansen of the National Association of Boards of Pharmacy, if he believed that pharmacy was a trade or a profession. In response, Charters presented the most significant statement revealed in his study: Pharmacy was an ancient and honorable profession. This finding echoed through that hall and reaffirmed worth and gave a new confidence and self-image to pharmacists. The news coverage of Charters' findings was significantly favorable. The most noteworthy response to Charters' preliminary findings was a statement made by President Meredith of the National Association of Boards of Pharmacy in which he recommended that the Commonwealth Study serve as baseline criteria on which the quality of the educational program of schools and colleges of pharmacy should be investigated. Little did Meredith know how he foretold the future.

Between the statement of the preliminary findings and the final, but delayed report, Charters was becoming a celebrity in pharmacy circles. This phenomenon continued with the publication of the final report in 1927. The effects the Commonwealth Study had on pharmacy were profound. The study reaffirmed the
professionalism of pharmacy practice; served as a resource for the future revision of the **Pharmaceutical Syllabus**, which Charters himself was asked to write; provided a reference upon which state boards of pharmacy could base licensure by examination and reciprocity; and provided compelling reasons for extending the pharmaceutical curriculum to four years. The Commonwealth Study spawned a series of pharmaceutical textbooks bringing needed unity to the curriculum. Almost immediately after the final report was published, a call went out to begin two continuing surveys. One proposed to study the commercial side of pharmacy practice. This study never was funded and died for lack of interest. The other study related to gathering statistical information of schools and colleges of pharmacy to determine if schools and colleges were in compliance with the educational directives of the revised **Pharmaceutical Syllabus**. It was hoped that a continuing survey, called a "Study of Pharmacy in the United States," would be headed by Charters. His previous success as well as his ability to obtain funding and support from the American Council on Education made him a most appealing candidate for a continuing study. The protocol for the intended study was written by Robert Fischelis. It is seen as a blueprint of a creditation of standards which were adopted by the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education in 1939. Interestingly, the proposed second study of pharmacy brought three sponsors together for the first time in a cooperative effort. The National Association of Boards of Pharmacy, American Pharmaceutical Association and the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy, all supported the idea of a continuing study that would direct attention to assuring compliance with the standards of the **Pharmaceutical Syllabus** in schools and colleges of pharmacy. This important cooperative effort was slowed by a search for adequate funding as
prescribed by Charters and ultimately stopped by the World Depression of 1929. While the plans for a continuing study were discontinued by events, the cooperative effort continued and resulted in the founding of the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education in 1932. That new agency, composed of members of the three sponsoring groups, determined, through an accreditation process, the quality of educational programs in schools and colleges of pharmacy. The American Council on Pharmaceutical Education carried out the task of assuring quality without the intended continuing study and relied on the Commonwealth Survey and the *Pharmaceutical Syllabus* for baseline criteria. The Second World War further frustrated efforts to continue what Charters had begun. It was not until 1946 that the continuing study could be started. Charters, advanced in years, was given an honorary consultative role in this study, and was appointed chairman of the Committee of the Pharmaceutical Survey. The 1946 study, under the directorship of Edward Elliott, was published in 1950 as the *General Report of the Pharmaceutical Survey 1946-1949*. The results of the second study built upon, and, indeed, continued the Commonwealth Study. The relationship between Charters' work and the development of the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education constitutes a needed study. A comparative study of the Charters and Elliott reports is also necessary. A definitive study of the effects of the Elliott Survey as an extension of the Commonwealth Survey on Pharmaceutical education and pharmacy practice should also be undertaken.

In 1931, Charters surveyed pharmacy leaders in an attempt to evaluate the Commonwealth Study. The result of that evaluation indicated his efforts on behalf of the profession were not in vain. His work has had a profound effect on shaping the course of events which have transpired and is a significant part of its history
and future. The Commonwealth Survey was an important first step in bringing national unity, diverse balance and *esprit* to the profession of pharmacy in the United States. It is hoped that this study of Werrett Wallace Charters, Sr. will be, for pharmacy, a rediscovery of an old teacher and dear friend of an ancient and honorable profession.
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Interviews


Appendix A

VOCATIONAL TRAITS OF PHARMACY, DEFINED IN TERMS OF

TRAIT ACTIONS DETERMINED BY KENAGY'S STUDY

1. Ability to gain confidence
   create faith
   treat customers honestly
   put out reliable goods
   do not give substitutes
   do careful work
   keep promises

2. Accuracy (carefulness)
   if a prescription calls for one ounce, give one
   do not give the wrong drug
   get exact weights and measures
   use exact methods
   make change correctly
   get exact amounts called for in prescriptions
   keep accurate accounts
   handle apparatus with great care
   read through a prescription first, see what to do and then do it
   always require prescriptions for poisons

3. Adaptability
   do not refuse to do any kind of work willingly
   be able to change from selling to professional work without getting frustrated
   be able to work with other people
   enter into the feeling of a customer who is in trouble
   study individuals and adapt himself to their moods
   be able to put aside his own plans and do good work, though disappointed

4. Administrative ability
   study the trend of the market
   buy at the proper time
   know how to advertise
   arrange effective window displays
   know how much he takes in each day
   know what it costs him to run his store
   get others to work efficiently
   be able to manage
   know how to keep books
   keep accurate accounts
   choose a good location for a store
   make opportunities - bring them about
5. Artistic taste
   arrange stock orderly and attractively
   display articles attractively
   arrange windows artistically
   make beautiful preparations of medicines
   dress attractively
   tie up attractive packages
   put medicine in artistic boxes

6. Cheerfulness
   give everyone a "good morning" and a smile; call his name if possible
   meet people in a pleasing way
   do not be blunt in speech or action
   avoid indifference; make people feel comfortable
   create a friendly atmosphere in the store
   greet people when they come in and act pleased to wait on them
   be pleasant with associates in store
   give information cheerfully

7. Cleanliness
   keep self clean
   keep store clean
   keep shelves and bottles clean
   keep prescription counter and apparatus clean all the time
   put clean labels on bottles

8. Concentration
   attend entirely to what he is doing
   do not get distracted by anything when filling a prescription
   pay attention to what he is doing
   allow as few interruptions as possible
   sell when selling and think of nothing but what he is doing when filling
   a prescription

9. Co-operativeness
   be willing to do any kind of work
   be willing to work with others
   be willing to accept discipline if he is an employee
   be willing to do his share of the work
   do dirty jobs willingly
   be willing to work long
   be willing to come early
   always be ready to co-operate with the proper authorities for enforcement
   of the law
   join in any constructive effort to promote public welfare
   aid a fellow pharmacist who in an emergency needs supplies

10. Courtesy (politeness)
    meet people agreeably
    do not show an ugly disposition
    do not be flippant
hand out packages in a nice way
approach people as they enter the store
suggest sales in a courteous way
greet customer with a courteous smile
say "please" and "thank you"

11. Dependability
keep information that people tell you
give what customer calls for
if he promises a prescription at a certain time, he should have it ready
do work right
carry a complete and reliable stock of goods
do what he is told to do
serve to the best of his ability
always be on duty
keep promises of delivery
give quality goods
take care of business; don't neglect it
refuse to refill prescriptions or give copies of them when so instructed
by physician

12. Fairness
must not judge hastily from written evidence. For example, if a customer
hands him a prescription for liquor, he may think the doctor got a big
fee out of it, give the doctor the benefit of the doubt
do not make young folk stand aside for older ones
never suspect employees; trust them
must not keep people waiting unnecessarily
wait on people in turn
do not take a doctor's work; tell people you cannot prescribe
he should not fill orders which come to him by mistake, being intended for
a competitor
he should deal fairly with manufacturers and wholesale druggists; all goods
received in errors or excess and all undercharges should be as promptly reported as are shortages and overcharges
must not intentionally undersell neighbors with a view to their injury
avoid unfair remarks about physicians and other pharmacists

13. Forcefulness
speak with certainty
get people to believe in him
be able to convince doctors that something else would be better
impress people that he is sure of his grounds
know how to put across ideas successfully
have power to hold and interest men
have definite opinions about things
interest customer in buying; make customer want what he has to sell
possess ability to say "No" without offending

14. Health (good health)
be able to endure long hours and hard work, keeping sweet and working
at top speed all the time
respond to hard work efficiently
consider his health; eat proper things; take plenty of exercise and rest
possess lots of energy all the time
must have steady nerves
be able to carry extra work in emergency

15. Honesty
must not substitute
must not keep people waiting two hours for a prescription that could be
filled in a few minutes
give honest advice
obey the law
never say "yes" because it will make a sale
fill prescription as doctor calls for it
always register full amount of sales
never recommend anything unless he knows it is good
return to wholesale house all goods received in excess
report all undercharges on goods bought
return correct change to customer

16. Industry
keep at his work; do not shirk
stick to work even when it is long and tiresome
possess energy and courage to go after customer
dig for knowledge
attend to business
must not waste time

17. Intelligence
think clearly and quickly
grasp and understand things
know about interests in his community
does not have to be told over and over
never make the same mistake twice
watch trade conditions and buy when prices are low
catch errors in prescriptions
anticipate a customer's wants

18. Interest in community
meets people and is interested in them
makes friends easily
is interested in social life of the community
is a good mixer
co-operate for enforcement of law
join in any constructive effort to promote public welfare

19. Judgment
know at a glance how long it will take to fill a prescription
know to whom to extend credit
choose a good location for his store
study trend of the market and determine whether prices are going
up or down
do not over-trim windows
close matters which are confidential
must not show too much eagerness to sell his own goods
grasp a situation and know what to do to meet it
plan work so as to take the least amount of time and energy
be able to size up customers to see what kind of a buyer each is; is he ready to buy or is he one who prefers to look around
must not over-stock when buying

20. Kindliness
make employees realize that he believes in them
explain to employees when they ask questions
if a customer is in distress, he must show quick and sympathetic interest
ask about sick person in a family
make an effort to train his young pharmacists
do nice things for children
help persons who are in trouble
shows sympathetic interest in case of death
show an interest in children

21. Memory (good memory)
remember names
remember location of stock
remember what he is told to do
know and remember doses
he could carry several threads of conversation at once and never forget
where he left off with each person
carry numerous details in his mind
associate a person's name with his work and his address

22. Neatness
keep himself neat and well groomed
keep his store neat
keep his clothes pressed, his hair combed, his shoes shined
keep his stock so that it would bear inspection any time
keep his hands clean and groomed
keep desk neat
do up packages neatly
put labels on straight

23. Orderliness (system)
think first, then go ahead
do work orderly
arranges stock orderly
he works by a system
keep his prescription counter in perfect order, has a place for everything

24. Perseverance
keep at work until he learns it
stick to work when it is long and tiresome
tactfully stay with customer until he sells her something
determine to succeed
finish what he starts
25. Professional interest
must like his work
must be ambitious to learn
show personal attention to customers
be eager and willing to keep posted on new ideas
read trade journals
uphold the standards of the profession
strive to perfect and enlarge his professional knowledge
contribute his share toward the scientific progress of his profession
encourage and participate in research, investigation, and study
contribute his share of time, energy, and expense to carry on work of pharmaceutical organizations
keep himself informed upon professional matters
do things without being told
do nothing that will bring discredit to his profession

26. Professional technique (knowledge and skill)
mix drugs properly
know values and prices
know when fresh drugs are needed
must be informed on drugs and how they act
interpret what people ask for in terms of what they need
know how to do professional work
do things right
be skilled in technique of mixing drugs
fill prescriptions correctly with as few motions as possible

27. Resourcefulness
he must know where to get information and know how to examine that which he has
must know where to get things he does not have
make the most of what equipment and supplies he has
think of some other way if he cannot do it one way
quickly think of solution of a difficulty

28. Self-confidence
must not be afraid to try things
believe he can do a thing
must know he has made no error
go ahead without detailed orders

29. Self-control
never show an ugly, gruff disposition
must not show that he is tired
do not argue with customers
when filling prescriptions, he must take it easy and not get excited
does not say things out of the way when he is busy or tired
must not allow a customer to rush him
does not fly off the handle when things go wrong
does not grow irritable with employees
30. Self-respect
   - must do nothing that might reflect wrongly on him
   - respects the standard to which people hold him
   - appreciates confidence of people and keeps it
   - never sell things which the law forbids
   - strives to have people look up to him
   - respects himself too much to lie about goods in order to sell them
   - lead a clean, wholesome life

31. Service (willingness and desire to serve)
   - must sacrifice without expecting pay for it
   - puts in long hours for others
   - must be willing to serve in sickness
   - he is obliging; gets a drug if he does not have it
   - keeps someone at the store all the time
   - helps out in an emergency
   - tries to give people what they want
   - waits on customers quickly
   - when an epidemic prevails, the pharmacist should continue his labors for the alleviation of suffering without regard to the risk of his own health
   - give quality goods

32. Speed (quickness)
   - do work accurately in as short time as possible
   - approach customers promptly
   - make change quickly
   - get what customer wants as quickly as he can
   - do not waste customer's time
   - think rapidly and concisely
   - learn names quickly

33. Tact
   - handle a situation properly
   - be able to keep one person waiting while you serve another who is in a hurry
   - take time to explain
   - if person is suffering and ill-humored, say something to get her mind on something other than herself
   - show interest in individuals
   - suggest things rather than say "Do you want this?"
   - ask about a sick member of a family
   - pretend that the customer is right whether he is or not
APPENDIX B
A SAMPLING OF COMMENTS CONTAINED IN "AN EVALUATION OF THE PHARMACY STUDY OF 1923-26."

**General Values**

"It is my personal opinion that the Study is the most valuable piece of work that has ever been done for the advancement of educational and professional pharmacy."

"I am convinced that after you read all of my comments on the questions asked in your letter you will realize that your Study has been of inestimable value to pharmacy."

**Concrete Basis of Fact**

"The Study is worth while because it furnishes authoritative information as to the actual educational needs of retail pharmacy as contrasted with the various opinions regarding what the pharmacist should have or may need in the practice of his calling."

"The Study has been very much worth while. From my own personal viewpoint it has given me something that is authoritative to which I may tie suggestions for future development of my own school. This is a day and age when university presidents, trustees and the like, and particularly men in certain fields of liberal arts work, want to know what survey has been made and who made it and upon whose judgment many things are based. I am positive that this Survey has been helpful in giving me an opportunity to present my views."

**Value in Transition Period**

"In my own opinion the intensive study along the educational line in pharmaceutical matters has been well worth while. The very fact that pharmaceutical education is in a period of transition makes it almost imperative that an exhaustive study be made of the entire situation. Without such diversity in study, it would be difficult to develop really worthwhile curricula in our colleges of pharmacy. In view, further, of the wide divergence of opinion among pharmacists in regard to education at large it is extremely advisable that our ideas become clarified with reference to educational policies. This result can only be reached by most careful study."

"I wish to say very emphatically 'Yes.' I believe it would have been almost impossible to have continued the advancement in pharmaceutical education from the two-year course to the three-year, and from the three-year to the four-year, without the knowledge brought out in your Survey showing what
is expected of the pharmacist. I believe it has had a pronounced affect
upon the boards of pharmacy and again upon the association so that laws
required graduation from a recognized school of pharmacy have been
enforced as prerequisite for examination before the state board. We used
it this year in our legislature to prevent the breaking of the law."

Professional Morale and Prestige

"The book has supported and emphasized the professional aspect in a most
affirmative way and the colleges and boards have been greatly helped not
only in their curricula but in their ethical and scientific work."

"The Report has been a valuable aid in bringing up the prestige and
professional standing of pharmaceutical education. It would be very
difficult to conjecture the far-reaching affects of this treatise upon
pharmaceutical education."

"The introduction, written by Dr. Charters, in which he gives the definition
of a profession, and then concludes that measured by this standard
pharmacy is a profession, has had a profound influence on college presi­
dents and governing boards in their attitude to pharmacy schools."

Teaching Methods

"Quite decidedly on the whole the Study has paid for itself many times over
in that the general tone of teaching methods is being raised, not only in our
own institution, but in others likewise."

The Importance of the Practical

"It is my opinion that professional pharmacy has advanced to a higher
educational standard than ever before. It appears to me that the work has
been most helpful to the colleges of pharmacy in outlining their curricula
with a definite aim to teach the student to be more useful to himself and
the community where he serves as a professional man. I believe the
pharmacist of today receives a training that is very practical and useful as
a citizen, regardless of whether he practices pharmacy or not, and this
appears to me to be to a great extent the outgrowth of your Survey."

Community Services

"Millions of people will receive better pharmaceutical service because of
this Survey."

National Influence

"The benefits derived from the Study have been of inestimable value in the
profession of pharmacy as a whole. I have found in our national meetings,
especially in the joint meetings of the National Association of Boards of
Pharmacy and the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy that this
Report has been the guiding spirit in the development of higher pharmaceu­
tical standards which has pointed the way to the development of profes­
sional pharmacy as no other endeavor has done."
"I have personally made a very thorough study and frequently use 'Basic Materials for a Pharmaceutical Curriculum.' Last year I was Chairman of the Commitee on Curriculum and Teaching Methods of the A.A.C.P. I am enclosing herewith the report which was adoped at the Baltimore meeting last year. In this report you will notice my reference to the publication above mentioned."

"If you will refer to the report made by the National Committee on Curriculum and Teaching Methods at the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy at Baltimore last May, you will note in this report that the committee made a careful study of the 'Basic Materials for Pharmaceutical Curricula' as a preliminary point of approach with reference to their own findings. Particular emphasis was placed upon the statements which you and your associates made as to what a pharmacist should know and be."

"Your Report more than any other one thing, has been conducive to the adoption of the four-year program to go into effect in 1932. I think it did away with a good deal of doubt on the part of those who believed the four-year course to be too long a course. I also feel that the committees of the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy have been benefited by this in the inspection of the schools which has taken place in the last year or two."

"In compiling the new edition of the Pharmaceutical Syllabus I suggested to each author that liberal use be made of the Report, and I notice that several of the outlines reflect information so obtained. The individual outlines do not carry acknowledgment of source material, but the Syllabus itself will make such acknowledgment."

"I feel that the Study has been decidedly worth while. The resolution recommending the four-year course, effective in 1932, originally introduced at a N.A.B.P. district meeting and later adopted first by the N.A.B.P. and then by the A.A.C.P. quoted your Report as showing the necessity for this increase in college time. That single accomplishment is sufficient to make the Report worth the time and effort."

"The Advisory Examination Committee, of which I am Chairman and whose examinations are prepared for the use of state boards if they wish to utilize them, has found the material on techniques of great service. The lists of drugs, their frequency in prescriptions and so forth are of great value. In this way, drugs no longer in common use of appearing rarely in prescriptions are eliminated from the Advisory Committee's examinations."

"The section on Ingredients in Prescriptions has been of very great interest to us in connection with the N.F. revision. We have used it quite extensively in the admission of items into the N.F. It has been in my mind to write you, asking permission to use data from this particular section of the book in the completed report."
"The committees of the A.A.C.P. have been benefited by the Study in the inspection of schools which has taken place during the last year or two."

"During the last three years, I have as an official representative of the A.A.C.P. visited and inspected the colleges of pharmacy in nine localities. On all of these visits meetings were held with the faculties and student bodies and the Report was the basis of every discussion."

"The Report has been the means of practically unifying the courses in pharmacy by members of the A.A.C.P. and has served as a guide and an authority in discussions relating to the curriculum at national meetings."

"I have stressed the importance of the Report in several public addresses, as for instance a presidential address, an address of dedication of the Pharmacy Building, and at commencement exercises."

"I have made frequent use of the Report personally, and I can also make this statement for a number of the members of our faculty, particularly the heads of the departments. We have made some use of the Report in developing our curriculum, but the greatest use to which it has been put by us was in determining the scope and content of the different courses which we offer. I always have a desk copy available and find myself referring to it very frequently."

"Every course in our curriculum has been carefully checked with the data published in your Survey. For such courses as chemistry physics, salesmanship, bacteriology, esters, that are not taught by the pharmacy faculty, we asked the head of the department to check his courses with your suggestions."

"Our faculty has used the survey many times since it was published in January, 1927, and we have accumulated many pages of abstracts and comments."

"Considerable reference has been made to the publication by practically every member of our pharmacy staff. Not only has reference been made to it by those members teaching strictly pharmaceutical subjects but also by other members of our staff who have no pharmaceutical training. To the latter group it has answered a useful purpose in that it has presented an enormous amount of material for their inspection which pictures what a pharmacist should know and which would be impossible to present as it has in any other way. This information has given these men a valuable insight into something tangible which they have never had before. To our pharmacy staff it has been a means of checking up on their own particular work to see whether or not the various points brought out in this publication are covered by our staff. This book is being referred to innumerable times in planning a new four-year course in pharmacy. While it does not consider in detail so-called cultural subjects it is being of such value to us in arranging our new program."
"In discussing our pharmaceutical curriculum with the officers of our university I found the results of your Study to be convincing evidence of progress in pharmaceutical education. The Study gave us a basis upon which we could make plans for the future."

"I may have told you that we have a retail druggist on our boards of regents. Immediately after he was elected I put a copy of the Report in his hands and he studied it with great interest and earnestness. I am sure it was the result of his study and the Report's influence that made the board of regents of our University put a new pharmacy building into the university program."

"We have called it to the attention of the administration, board of trustees, and certain members of the faculty, asking them to pay particular attention to certain parts of the Report. I am very sure that it has been beneficial in impressing upon the administration and the board of trustees the value of pharmaceutical training, and it probably did aid in convincing the administration and board of trustees of our need for a new building."

"At this institution it was necessary to appoint a Course Revision Committee to consider all changes in the catalogue. Whereas in past years it has been a problem to convince such members of the committee as the head of the department of dairy husbandry, the professor of physics, the assistant professor of home economics, and other members of our faculty, that certain changes should be made in the courses offered in the School of Pharmacy, our problem has been simplified since January, 1927, by the use of the Report. Even though other deans of pharmacy may forget to mention this use of the Report, nevertheless it has made their institutional problems much easier and undoubtedly it has strengthened pharmaceutical curricula."

"We have used it with the board of pharmacy to promote more comprehensive and at the same time more practical examinations."

"In the state legislature session of 1930, I used the Report before a joint committee of house and senate which had before it the consideration of a bill that would have permitted the indiscriminate sale of poisons by men not qualified. The proposed legislation was defeated."

"It is used as a source of authoritative information by the state board of pharmacy and the legislative committee in securing the passage of the college prerequisite clause in the state pharmacy law."

"Since many members of our state boards of pharmacy are considered as 'old men' in age and experience, I have found it difficult to convince them of the modern trend in pharmaceutical education. Their conception of a curriculum in pharmacy is based on their experiences when they were of college age. Consequently, they do not appreciate cultural training; they do not understand why prescription compounding is not offered in the freshman year, and other important factors in building curricula. They have many ideas that are in conflict with the present trend of higher education. Thanks to your Survey, we now have an authentic standard that answers all questions that our old-fashioned friends might ask."
"Since three of the five members of the board of pharmacy are graduates of our institution, they are in a position to appreciate the helpful suggestions in your Survey. Although this board does not interfere with college matters, they do use your suggestions as a standard."

"Various reports upon the phases of the work have been brought to the attention of the legislative committee in drafting the new pharmacy law which was passed in our session in 1931."

"I have a one hour a week orientation course which runs throughout the year. The average pharmacy student coming to the University knows nothing of the scope of the pharmaceutical field. He has no conception of the possibilities of exercising his talents in pharmacy. As a matter of fact I find the student questioning whether pharmacy offers much of a field for one to exercise his talents in. I have conducted this course for twenty years and frequently did I find students saying that my conception of Pharmaceutical service was nothing but the dream of a theoretical college professor. Not only did students say this, but druggists said it also. The Report has been a boon to me in the study of the function of the druggist and students tell me that at the end of the first year of university life, their conception of the function of the druggist has been so enlarged that they are amazed at the ignorance they were possessed of when they entered school. I am of the opinion that this is one of the most important uses of the book. It gives the student right at the start the information he needs to know about the vocation he is about to enter."

"In my orientation course I always describe the work covered by your book and I circulate copies among the students."

"Students have been directed to read certain chapters in the book, especially those that emphasize the responsibility, importance and dignity of the profession."

"Much attention has been devoted to a fairly detailed study of the traits as set forth in the Basic Materials. My idea is that a consideration of these traits in relation to the pharmacist's dealings with the public are of singular value in calling the attention of the student to the importance of studying his patrons more closely."

"I have personally made considerable use of the chapter on traits of character in properly presenting the prospectus of pharmacy to the new students and in analyzing the deficiencies which show up in our college work."
The dissertation submitted by John Charters Russell has been read and approved by the following committee:

Dr. Gerald L. Gutek, Director
Professor, Foundations and History, Loyola

Dr. Steven Miller
Associate Professor, Foundations, Loyola

Dr. John Wozniak
Professor, Foundations, Loyola

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

December 10, 1980  Gerald L. Gutek
Date   Director's Signature