THE DEVELOPMENT OF A CONCEPT OF SECRETARISHIP
AS A GUIDE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE SECRETARIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

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The problem of this study was the development of a concept of secretaryship as a guide for the development of community college secretarial programs. The particular interest was with those colleges located in oil-field areas. The purposes were fivefold: (1) to study the historical significance of the concept as an indispensable part of business; (2) to determine the current meaning and significance of the concept within business and industry; (3) to develop certain fundamental philosophies emerging from the study; (4) to develop a comprehensive concept of secretaryship; and (5) to make recommendations for studies leading to modifications that might be considered in the community college programs of business education.

Research techniques utilized included an empirical examination of the literature written on the history of the secretary in order to understand the changes that have taken place in the concept of secretaryship since the eighteenth century, the earliest date from which the history can be traced. The modern concept was investigated through a series of depth interviews with thirty secretaries and thirty executives of major oil companies.

The interviews were based on a list of questions carefully prepared beforehand to gain the information desired. Each interview was made individually in the office of the interviewee. Each person
interviewed was encouraged to talk freely about office problems. After all the interviews had been made, the shorthand notes taken during each interview were transcribed, compared, and coded. Tables were then set up so the material could be easily read and understood.

After all the research had been completed, the data gathered were analyzed; and the concept of secretaryship was formulated. It was found that the concept of secretaryship presents several facets: (1) a thorough knowledge of the basic competencies used in the office; (2) an ability to lead and instruct subordinate personnel; (3) an ability to act as liaison between the executive and the public; (4) an ability to aid the executive in some of his confidential office problems; (5) an ability to act as liaison between continued office efficiency and new methods of office procedures and processes; (6) an ability to conceive the position as executive in nature rather than clerical in nature; (7) an ability to understand that the position of the secretary may be conceived as a possible period of preparation for a promotion to a bona fide executive position; and (8) an ability to recognize the fact that the secretarial position may be occupied by either a male or a female.

When the study had been completed, the following recommendations were presented:

1. The concept of secretaryship should be under continuous modification conceptually to maintain relevance between the demands made upon the position and the level of secretarial educational requirements.

2. The concept should be made known to all secretarial students.
3. Some courses such as psychology, philosophy, and literature should be woven into the secretarial course of study so that the student may be given some experience in developing interpersonal skills and thus gain a broader insight into the secretarial role in business.

4. The secretarial student should be encouraged to take a course in electronic data processing so that she can preconceive some of the problems that she will meet in the office.

5. Some of the more practical applications of the office should be taught in the typing courses.

6. Businessmen should revise their personnel tests given to potential employees to include the application of shorthand and typing principles as well as speed.

7. The secretarial student should be taught the several roles she has to perform in the office: instructor of subordinate personnel, public relations agent, liaison officer between the executive and the public, as well as the roles of typist, clerk, receptionist, and stenographer.

8. All secretarial courses should be taught with the relevancy of the concept of secretaryship constantly in the background.
THE DEVELOPMENT OF A CONCEPT OF SECRETARYSHIP
AS A GUIDE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNITY
COLLEGE SECRETARIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

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By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The community college serves a student body with a wide range of abilities, aptitudes, interests, and motivations. Its doors are open to anyone who has graduated from an accredited high school or who has attained the age of eighteen. Medsker states that many students who are high school graduates enroll in the community college for one of two purposes: (1) to complete the first two years of a baccalaureate or (2) to complete a one- or two-year course of study leading directly to employment (5, p. 546). There seems to be a third purpose: Some students may enter the community college for the reason that they do not know what else to do.

The interests and motivations of community college students are many and varied. Some choose a local community college because it is near their homes. Many young people realize that they have not met the necessary requirements in high school to meet the entrance requirements of the senior college of their choice.

Many young people, however, realize that the community college can prepare them for direct entrance to jobs. For a minimal cost and a minimal amount of time spent in study and preparation, they believe that they can get the education essential for entrance to the jobs in which they are particularly interested. Within one or two years after graduation from high school, it may be possible for them to become productive
employees in various business firms. They know that they can begin to work in a lower-level job in business and advance as they increase their knowledge and experience.

Secretarial education in the majority of community colleges constitutes one of the largest programs in their respective business departments. According to a survey made in the Odessa College District in 1968, approximately 60 percent of the secretaries employed in the Permian Basin worked for the oil industry. Approximately one-half of the students who had finished a one- or two-year secretarial course of study at Odessa College within the preceding ten years had taken their first positions with oil companies in the area. Many of these first positions carried such titles as typist, mail clerk, stenographer, or receptionist, all of which have lower job classifications than that of secretary. However, many individuals were maintained on the payroll as secretaries who seemed to have as their principal duties answering the telephone, keeping a few records, and writing an occasional letter.

Because of the tendency of many employers in all types of businesses to give the title of secretary to any office worker who has had as much as a few months of post-high school study, it is almost impossible to get an accurate count of the secretaries in any industry (11). Even since the advent of automation, many of the lesser skilled office workers are hired and given the title of secretary, regardless of the fact that they perform few secretarial duties. The more efficient are given such titles as executive aide, administrative assistant, or administrative secretary. "Status titles for secretaries always help the
businessman as well as the secretary" (8, p. 46). A mastery of the secretarial competencies is of primary importance to the latter group; but the ability to work closely with the employer, to do much of the confidential work of the company, and to share in some of the decisions and policy making of the employer is considered to be of equal importance.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was the development of a concept of secretaryship as a guideline for the development of community college secretarial programs. The particular interest of the study was with those community colleges that were located in the oil fields and that serve the oil industry.

Purposes of the Study

There were five purposes of the study:

1. To conduct a study of the historical significance and meaning of the concept of secretaryship as an indispensable part of business.

2. To determine the current meaning and significance of the concept of secretaryship within business and industry—more particularly, within the oil industry.

3. To develop certain fundamental philosophies emerging out of an examination of the historical meaning of the concept of secretaryship as compared and contrasted with the current meaning of a secretary in the field of business.
4. To develop a comprehensive concept of secretaryship, based upon the questions which have been formulated.

5. To make recommendations for studies leading to modifications that might be considered in the community college programs of business education.

Definition of Terms

1. Oil industry applies to all businesses whose primary source of profit is the production and marketing of oil and oil products.

2. Oil areas is the term used to indicate those parts of the country which depend, for the most part, on the production of oil for their livelihood and progress.

3. The Permian Basin includes forty-seven counties in West Texas and eastern New Mexico, all of which depend heavily on the oil industry for their development and livelihood (10, p. 262).

4. Community college is the term used to indicate any two-year educational institution that has a terminal program which prepares secretaries and sends them directly into employment in business.

Background and Significance of the Problem

Although the dearth of dictation materials containing the vocabulary of technical terms used in the oil field has been recognized for some time by shorthand teachers in the oil-field area, there has been little formal research into the particular problems or needs confronted by a secretarial educational program for this industry. There seems to be a need for this type of study and research.
The beginning secretary within most industries has normally had enough educational background to acquire the competencies of shorthand, typewriting, and business English. A general education—including history, American government, economics, and psychology—is often required before one can qualify for the secretarial position which he or she is seeking. Even so, the company often provides a period of on-the-job study in order to acquaint the newly hired employee with the technical terms used in the particular job as well as with the policies of the company. The more educational background and/or experience one has had, the less on-the-job study and experience will normally be required.

Some companies keep their new employees on the payroll for a year or longer preparing them educationally for the jobs for which they were originally hired. The smaller companies, or the branch offices of larger companies, usually do not have the time, money, or facilities to do a thorough job of educating new employees. Consequently, an executive, or perhaps some other appropriate person in the firm, may give a few general suggestions to the newly hired secretary from time to time; and there may be provided a brochure of rules setting forth company policies with which the new employee is expected to become familiar. Usually, the secretary must exercise ingenuity in learning the requirements of day-to-day routine as well as the deeper implications of the position.

Technological developments have done away with many of the clerical and lesser jobs in the business office. The computer has taken
much of the drudgery out of paper work. According to Silberman, however, some of the drudgery may be taken away, but the technical problems still remain.

No computer manufacturer has begun to solve the technical problems inherent in building a computer that can respond to spoken orders or correct an essay written in natural language and containing a normal quota of misspellings and grammatical errors—and none has promised it can produce machines that can compete with conventional modes of instruction (9, p. 121).

Business Automation states that computer power is viewed with suspicion by many businessmen:

Decision-making data available for display is looked upon by many management leaders as an item for the distant tomorrows, if ever. . . .

There is still a hard core of resistance to computer operations at the middle management level in a large number of business enterprises. It is not always apparent, but it is there and deep-seated. It stems from the fear and/or dislike of change and apprehension about the impact of EDP on their prerogatives; there is the specter of replacement by the computer (2, pp. 33-36).

From these remarks, it seems that human power and human decisions are still paramount in the field of business today. Automation has gone far; but, although it has taken much of the paper work and drudgery out of business, it has not taken the human element out of communications between man and man.

Irene Kriedberg concurs with these remarks. She states, "There have been many technological developments; but the secretary still does the usual 'workhorse' jobs of typing, dictation, filing, mailing, and handling calls and callers" (4, p. 45). The "workhorse" jobs are the
skills and knowledges in which the teachers must instruct the students who expect to gain entrance to business via the secretarial route.

In 1956, Mickelson conducted a study regarding the knowledges, skills, and personal qualities of the medical secretary. The purpose of the study was to provide a basis for an improved course in the preparation of secretaries for physicians' offices (6).

In 1967, Paddock made a study of the nature of the need for the development of personnel for high-level secretarial positions. For her study she interviewed the top-level secretary and employer as a team in order to compare the viewpoints of both the secretary and the executive, the strengths and weaknesses of the general and educational background, and the innate characteristics of the secretaries who have risen to the highest level of secretarial work (7).

A comparative analysis of these two investigations reveals that the activities of both types of secretaries are similar in many respects. In many physicians' offices nearly all the semitechnical medical activities are performed by secretaries; in the business office many of the executives' lesser problems are solved by the secretaries. The majority of both the businessmen and the physicians were of the opinion that the most highly placed secretaries must possess certain personal qualities, many of which cannot be developed in educational programs.

There are many classifications of secretaries in many kinds of businesses, and not all companies classify the people they hire in the same or comparable categories. For example, clerks are often hired and
given the title of secretary, or a secretary is hired and given the title of stenographer (11).

According to the United States Department of Labor, there are general stenographers who take routine dictation and who perform routine tasks; senior stenographers who have a high degree of speed and accuracy and who perform more responsible clerical work; public stenographers who take dictation as they are required; technical stenographers who take medical, legal, or scientific terms—even in foreign languages. There are court reporters who record proceedings at business and professional conventions and other meetings. Nearly all of these kinds of reporting are verbatim. Some reporters take their notes by machines; some, in shorthand (11).

Secretaries, in addition to their stenographic work, relieve their employers of numerous routine duties and a myriad of business details on their own initiative. Duties vary, depending on the nature of the employer's business activities and the secretary's own experience and capabilities. Secretaries often handle such tasks as scheduling appointments for their employers, arranging for airline tickets and hotel reservations, taking care of some of the correspondence, and handling private or confidential records. Sometimes they also supervise other clerical personnel (11).

Dictation, transcription, and typing, although definitely secretarial chores, do not make the secretary. The secretary, whether one has a title or is a stenographer (with a stenographer's title and a stenographer's recognition) is expected to handle responsibilities that will
challenge the imagination. If one has been well instructed in the competencies, if one has a broad basic understanding of the possibilities in the field, if one is ambitious and wants to make a career in the secretarial field--such a secretary will likely not be content to accept only those routine jobs which require mere mechanical skill to perform.

There are those who believe that the secretary is on the way out of the office, that within a few years electronic machines and devices will assume all the duties and responsibilities of the secretary and do a better job than any human being is capable of doing (3). There are others who contend that today the secretary is of more value to business than ever before and will continue to grow in stature in the business office (8, 12). A study and analysis of the literature written on the subject during the present century was made in order to determine which of these two theories is the more nearly correct.

An editorial in Personnel Journal states:

There is one thing on which most executives agree: The secretary is here to stay. There have been many refinements in the life of a secretary--in office equipment, in office skills, in technological inventions. The only way for the secretary to work efficiently with these machines is to advance her own skills (12, p. 72).

According to Merle Law, the 1968 president of the 25,000-member National Secretaries Society,

Fifteen years from now, secretaries, instead of being automated into obsolescence . . . will be increased in numbers and responsibilities. The scope of their authority will be expanded to conform with management's revamped functions resulting from technological advances in all aspects of business, industry, government, education, and the professions (8, p. 88).
The type of information obtained from this study could guide instructors teaching in the oil districts to set up more objectively their lesson plans for the courses taught in the secretarial education program. Information from a study of the characteristics of the oil-field segment of the culture could serve as a basis for short courses to educate students especially for oil company programs, and it could serve as a means for placing students in better jobs for which they would be particularly prepared. This study could be valuable in setting up a much needed liaison between the community college and the community which it serves.

Methods and Procedures

The first section of this investigation was a historical development of the meaning and significance of the concept of secretaryship, which came from an empirical examination and a depth study of the literature. This history of the secretary since the first century was reviewed in depth. Emphasis was put on the changes that have taken place in the concept of secretaryship during the past four or five decades, since the introduction of technology.

The literature was researched for writings regarding the concept of secretaryship. Topics of special concern included a comparison of the concept of secretaryship and the functions of the secretary of the sixties with the functions of the secretary before the onset of automation. Differences in the concepts of authors, as well as agreements, were considered.
The survey section of the study was an attempt to determine what the term secretary means currently in industry. The oil companies of the Permian Basin were arbitrarily chosen as the group to study.

The research techniques utilized included depth interviews with thirty secretaries and thirty executives of major oil companies. Each interview originated from a standard set of questions. (See Appendixes B and C.) The questions referred to a list of the thirty-five most frequent duties of the secretary as reported by the employers of 350 experienced secretaries who applied to take a Certified Professional Secretaries' examination in 1955. (See Appendix D.) This list of duties was broken down into five large divisions for secretaries and three divisions for employers. Three instructors from the Odessa College Secretarial Department then worked together as a panel in order to decide upon the broad categories that would be most helpful to them in planning the secretarial curriculum for the department and for their own classes.

The larger categories were further broken down into smaller divisions by the panel, and the detailed questions were developed. Again, the three-teacher secretarial panel studied the schedules and made revisions. After three meetings of the panel, the schedules were typed in their final form. (See Appendixes B and C.)

Secondly, the qualifications of the major oil companies to be considered for interviews were decided. The three-teacher committee helped to make the decision.

1. Each company interviewed had to be a major oil company; that is, it had to be known throughout the forty-eight states of the continental United States. It must have executive offices and/or service stations in most cities of the United States.
2. Each company had to have at least ten secretarial employees working in the department (or branch office) of the company interviewed.

3. Each company had to have at least fifty field men working out of the office considered for interview. Many field men are roustabouts who do any work required of them—cut weeds, clean wells, and do many other more-or-less menial chores on the oil leases; many are pumpers; some are supervisors; some are surveyors. All such men are known as "field men" if they work outside the office.

The Odessa Chamber of Commerce had made a survey in 1969-1970 of the oil companies in the Permian Basin when this study was begun in May, 1970. A copy of that survey was used as a guide for selecting the executives and secretaries to be interviewed for the investigation. The survey included the information needed to begin the study: the names of the oil companies operating in the Permian Basin; the names of the home offices of the companies; the names of the top executives in the home office; the names of the branch offices and the names, titles, and addresses of the top executives in the Permian Basin; approximate assets of each company; and the states and territories in which each company operated. From a list of 1,782 oil companies named in the survey, 791 met the requirements selected for the study.

Since thirty executives and thirty secretaries were to be selected for interviews, it was decided arbitrarily that every twentieth name on the list of the 791 companies that were eligible would be considered to take part in the study. The executive and the one named by him as his secretary would be asked for an interview. Such an accounting left six companies in reserve, to be used if they were needed to complete the required number of interviews. Each of the companies selected, after a
study of the survey, met the necessary criteria for the study. A telephone call to each company on the final list confirmed its eligibility.

The officials of the companies listed by the Odessa Chamber of Commerce had the following titles: president, assistant to the president, vice-president, assistant to the vice-president, secretary, undersecretary, and treasurer—all of the upper echelon; general manager, operations manager, explorations manager, engineering manager, divisional manager and assistants, administrative assistants, administration supervisors, divisional and district superintendents, and landmen—all of middle management. Not all companies listed all the titles, but it was presumed that each company had listed all the men who held titles in the upper echelon of management and at least four titles in the middle management level. Lower management titles, such as foreman or pacer, were seldom given; the men in lower management were not considered for the study.

Permission for interviews was requested in a letter to the president of each company selected. (See Appendix A.) The letter was followed by a telephone call three days later to learn the decision regarding the granting of permission for the interviews. When permission was granted, the time and the place for the interviews were set. In each case the place was in the company office of either the executive or the secretary being interviewed. The length of the interviews with the executives averaged forty minutes; the length of the interviews with the secretaries averaged one and one-half hours.
The first official chosen for the interview was, in each case, the top executive in the Permian Basin branch of the company selected. Four of the executives called did not take part in the study. Two presidents gave interviews. Twenty-eight presidents called did not give personal interviews, but each of them made an appointment with another executive in the company for the interview. All thirty interviews were accepted, since all of them were eligible in accordance with the criteria set at the beginning of the study. The secretaries named by the executives were accepted.

Two presidents, two vice-presidents, five assistant vice-presidents, two divisional operations managers, four divisional production managers, three explorations managers, three general managers, one manager of engineering, three divisional superintendents, and three district superintendents were interviewed. Shorthand notes were taken of all the interviews.

The secretaries of twenty-one of the executives were interviewed. Nine secretaries of the executives interviewed were either absent from the office on the day set for the appointment or were working on emergencies that had arisen in their respective offices. In each case, the executive who had arranged the original interview had asked another secretary in a nearby office of the same company to take the absent secretary’s place. Each interview was made separately; that is, never were two people interviewed at the same time.

After each interview was made, the shorthand notes were transcribed and a tentative classification of the material was made. After
all sixty interviews were completed, the information was classified; tables were then made so that the data collected could be easily read and understood.

The data presented in the second chapter of the study (the current concept of the secretary as gleaned from a study of the literature) were compared and contrasted with the data presented in the third chapter (the current concept of the secretary as conceived by the secretaries and executives actually working for oil companies currently). These comparisons and contrasts were studied as a basis for the formulation of the traditional and modern concepts of secretaryship.

A comprehensive concept of secretaryship is presented in the fifth chapter of the study. It is believed that this concept may serve the educators and the businessmen by providing a basis for the concept of secretaryship. Such an understanding should guide the educators in providing programs of secretarial education for the students in quest of a position in the professional business office.

The concept is based upon the historical significance and meaning of the concept of secretaryship as viewed by the educators who have been attempting to prepare secretarial students for the business office and as viewed by the businessmen who employ individuals for secretarial responsibilities.

The last section of the study lists recommendations for further study as well as recommendations that it is hoped will be of value to the secretarial teacher and his students. It is hoped that these conclusions and recommendations will lead to modifications that might be
considered by educators in the community college program for the education of secretaries.

These recommendations were based on the concept of secretaryship, which, in turn, was based on the empirical examination and analysis of the historical meaning and significance of the secretary currently in business and industry. The questions arising from the comparison and contrast of these two concepts, as well as the comprehensive concept of secretaryship, formed the basis for the conclusions and recommendations drawn from this study.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER II

A HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE MEANING AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE CONCEPT OF SECRETARYSHIP

Early Concepts

The earliest records of ancient civilization bear evidence that slaves were first used as scribes of the Assyrians in the eighteenth century B.C. (24). While the scribes may be said to have given rise to the secretarial profession, their duties and the duties of the modern secretary bear little resemblance. The first scribes some 3,800 years ago did no more than copy laboriously in longhand, keep a few crude records, and carry out the exact commands of the masters.

The concept of secretaryship in its embryo stage was not clearly defined, but it seemed to be that of a semieducated male slave who did the office chores of the master. The slave scribe usually had such other duties as keeping the office clean and caring for the master’s personal needs. He had no hope of getting another position or of improving his social status in life, a status which was slightly above that of the other slaves of the household because he was better educated and of more value to the master than they were. However, he was strictly bound to the master and obeyed every command without questioning it. The master may have been a merchant; he may have been a farmer. Regardless of the status of the master, the slave belonged to
the lord of the manor. This concept of secretaryship held sway for approximately 1,700 years.

It was not till 63 B.C. that an organized system of shorthand was invented by Marcus Tullius Tiro, a freedman and friend of the Roman statesman Cicero (27, p. 446). Cicero valued his former slave so highly as a secretary that Tiro was entrusted with confidential messages to distinguished persons, was taken into his master's confidence in private family matters, arranged the affairs of the household, supervised the other servants, kept accounts, ordered provisions, represented Cicero before distinguished guests, borrowed money in Cicero's name whenever it was necessary, took care of all the master's correspondence, and did whatever else was demanded of him (29, p. 95). It was during this period that the scribe who could write shorthand was given the title of amanuensis (27, 29).

The duties of Tiro, the amanuensis of Cicero, more nearly paralleled those of the modern social secretary and/or business manager of a private individual than those of the modern secretary working in business and industry. Even so, few social secretaries of the twentieth century have enjoyed so many and varied privileges and responsibilities as Tiro enjoyed in his work for Cicero.

Approximately two centuries later, scribes—or copyists—some of whom had learned to write shorthand, had become professionals and were employed in the libraries of Alexandria to compile the first public libraries of Rome and to develop the book trade. During the fourth century, they were being used in the market places of the Roman Empire by
the illiterate lower and middle classes to assist in business affairs and to take care of personal correspondence for anyone who needed them to do the work (24). The invention of shorthand had given a new dimension to the scribes' work.

In the fourth century, the affairs of the government required the service of many scribes, who were by this time beginning to be called secretary-scribes; and those who were versed in the competencies of shorthand were in great demand (24). Many younger sons of the lesser nobility and of the upper middle classes were tutored in shorthand and attached to the entourage of kings, for whom they recorded deeds of royal conquests, wrote letters of state, and kept records of religious writings for the clergy.

The concept of secretaryship was still not sharply defined, but it was beginning to take form during this period of the fourth and fifth centuries as either a slave or freedman—or often a scion of the wealthy middle class—who could write shorthand and who was educated in business above the masses of the people. As a slave, he was still bound to the master; as a freedman, he often had little choice of masters. As a member of the middle class, he could choose his own master and find as good a position as his talents and social status would allow. The concept of secretaryship was gradually gaining an aura of respectability, and the middle classes were taking advantage of the fact.
Concepts of the Middle Ages

During the Middle Ages the secretary was, in reality, the confidential clerk of the household, whether the household was that of a middle-class merchant or that of a duke or a prince. He wrote the master's letters, took care of all the accounts, frequently paid the bills, represented the master on various occasions, and often supervised the work of several other clerks (24, p. 97). It was during this period that the clerk, or scribe, was first given the title of secretary.

Taintor writes:

The secretarius of the king was the keeper of the privy seal and occasionally, as well, of the signet, with which documents and letters were signed. Quite evidently, the word early suggested one held in utmost trust to whom the king gave his confidence in secret matters.

During the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries in England, the name was used to include several classes of persons:

1. Those to whom the king imparted secrets of state and who belonged to the Council.

2. Those whom the king sent to foreign embassies to transact state affairs with monarchs of other lands.

3. Those who occupied positions of confidential clerks in royal and baronial households (29, p. 96).

The scribes had broadened the scope of their activities until one can see some of the duties of the modern business secretary emerging. The secretary of the Middle Ages did more than write letters and keep records. His duties had expanded until they included much of the confidential work of the household, and he enjoyed the trust and friendship of the master.
The concept of secretaryship had developed considerably by the sixteenth century. The concept had become more clearly defined than it had ever been, and the secretary had emerged as a person of importance. The concept of secretaryship was that of a man carefully educated for his profession. He might or might not be a slave; both slaves and freedmen were still used by many merchants and manor lords. By the thirteenth century, however, the concept of secretaryship was that of a younger son of the wealthy and/or noble classes who could not hope to inherit either the ancestral home or the title of the father. Because the secretary was a highly respected man and quite well rewarded for his work, especially if the post was in the entourage of a king or one of the noblemen, men of wealth often educated their younger sons in shorthand, mathematics, and other business principles and sought secretarial positions for their offspring. The concept of secretaryship had changed from that of a slave with little more than a knowledge of reading and writing to that of a personable young man of gentle birth and breeding who was well educated and who was likely to have as high a social status as that of the master.

Latter Nineteenth Century Concepts

In the eighteenth century business began to expand rapidly, and many new private companies came into existence. The new companies needed many secretaries to take care of the correspondence and business records. Men from all social classes began to educate themselves for the positions, and once more the concept of secretaryship changed. Because the most significant qualification for a secretary was that he
be able to take dictation in shorthand and transcribe his notes, the core of the concept of secretaryship subtly changed to the young man who had been educated in this area. His principal duties in his secretarial job were taking care of the master's correspondence and keeping a record of all transactions.

Until approximately fifteen years after the typewriter was introduced in America in 1867, the secretarial field was a man's domain. The secretarial chores in the new type of business office that was fast developing in the nineteenth century consisted principally of dictation and longhand transcription, simple record-keeping, and a rather crude method of filing. It was not till the typewriter was invented that the female secretary came into existence.

In 1853, the handwriting speed record was thirty words per minute; most secretaries copied their notes at fifteen to twenty words per minute. Many shorthand-stenographers, as they were called during that period, could take notes almost as rapidly as a man could speak; but not only was the transcription time consuming, but often the handwriting was quite difficult if not impossible to read (5, pp. 34-35). Scores of men in several different countries had been working on the invention of a writing machine since 1714 when Henry Mill, a distinguished English engineer, had conceived the basic idea. It was not until 1867, however, that Christopher Latham Sholes, an American, invented a workable model that would actually print faster than one could write in longhand; and it was not until six years later, March 1, 1873, that the machine had reached the point of perfection that a company could be found that
would agree to manufacture the new Type-Writer (spelled with a hyphen) on a commercial basis (5, 7). E. Remington & Sons finally agreed to manufacture 1,000 of the Type-Writers on a trial basis.

During the first few years that the Type-Writers were on the market, business firms were quite reluctant to buy them for two reasons. First, they were too expensive ($125); and second, there were no trained operators and the male secretaries were not anxious to learn to type. Demonstrations showed that the new machine could print fifty to sixty words per minute; but with no operators available, few businessmen considered it more than a gadget that would soon pass into oblivion.

In 1881, the Central Branch of the YWCA in New York City pioneered in organizing a class to teach eight young ladies to typewrite (5, p. 73). There had been a few young ladies who had acted as demonstrators of the Type-Writer; but the YWCA directors were now thinking of typing as a career opportunity for the gentler sex. As soon as the six-month course was finished, the girls were instantly placed in business offices; and the YWCA received hundreds of requests for typists that it could not fill. From that time on, Type-Writer schools sprang up all over the country. "Remington schools were opened as fast as was feasible; and, although there was no overt discrimination against males, the student bodies were overwhelmingly female" (5, p. 74). The Remington Company had a monopoly on the manufacture of the new Type-Writer.

As new private typing schools were organized, established shorthand and secretarial teachers rushed to add typing to the curricula.
By 1888 there were 60,000 typists in business, most of whom hoped to become well-paid confidential secretaries.

The ten-finger touch technique in learning to use the typewriter was not thought of until 1882, and it was not till 1888 that Frank E. McGurrin definitely proved and demonstrated the superiority of this revolutionary method of typing. Heretofore, the one-, two-, and four-finger methods had been used almost exclusively; and speeds of fifty to sixty words per minute (twice that of longhand penmanship) were not uncommon. When McGurrin proved that, if students of average intelligence and an aptitude for typing had been thoroughly taught the keyboard and had been instructed in the use of all ten fingers, the unprecedented speed of 100 words or more per minute could be reached on the new machine, the touch system was accepted by the majority of professional people as the best method of learning to type (5, pp. 115-117).

By 1890, a number of secretaries were also beginning to work with a battery-driven dictation machine, a cumbersome and awesome thing when compared with the electronic tapes and belts found in the modern office (5). With the storage batteries tucked under the desk out of the way, the secretary was able to relieve the employer of many hours of tedious work. Again it was the female who pioneered the use of the dictation machine; most of the male secretaries refused to use it.

With the invention of the typewriter and its invasion of the business world, the concept of secretaryship was changed radically. Before that time, the concept of secretaryship had resolved around the male who could write shorthand and transcribe in longhand. By the last
decade of the nineteenth century, the concept of secretaryship resolved around the female who could write shorthand and type neat and legible letters. Mechanization had reached the business office; and, crude as was the early manual typewriter when compared with the streamlined electric models found on the desk of the secretary today, it was definitely the beginning that gave rise to a new concept of secretaryship. The typewriter was the wedge that opened the door of business to the female and gave her a role that, up to that time, had been filled by the male.

When the females invaded the secretarial world in the 1880's, part of their acceptance was due to their willingness to work for a salary lower than that paid the male (5, p. 78). A competent, experienced female typist-secretary could earn $20 per week. A male with comparable knowledge and competencies and with the same responsibilities was paid $30 per week. In spite of the discrepancy in salary, a secretarial position was considered as a professional position acceptable for women. Females at that time were employed to do manual labor in factories at a maximum salary of $6 per week, and experienced saleswomen were earning not more than $12 per week, including commissions. The lowest paid typist began employment at a salary of $6 per week. In time, an expert typist could hope to earn perhaps $20 per week; and, for the most part, she was permitted to be seated while she worked. Furthermore, by 1888 a few typists had advanced from typing jobs into private secretaryships and were serving as the employers' assistants at $20 per week. Women were earning more salary then they had ever
earned previously. For the first time in history, new opportunities for employment were presenting themselves to women.

The last two decades of the nineteenth century marked the beginning of another change in the concept of secretaryship. Up to that time, all secretaries had been male; and some males still held secretarial positions. There were many females in the secretarial field in 1900, and their numbers were increasing each year. The concept of secretaryship was beginning to include young females of culture and intelligence who were particularly educated to do office work. They wrote shorthand; they typed letters and office documents; they used the dictation machine if they were asked to do so; and they assisted the executive with his confidential work.

The first public typist-stenographer (known today as the public stenographer) was introduced in the 1880's (5, p. 74). At first these females were used as a promotional appeal to sell more typewriters. With their Remingtons, they were stationed in the best hotels in the leading cities, suggesting that business executives needed a secretary when they were traveling. In a few cases the executives actually felt that way. Many executives, seeing the Remington girl and the kind of work she did, realized how efficient it would be to have secretaries in their outer offices. Numbers of the women, realizing that they were earning quite a bit of money, saw that they could be in business for themselves and remained in the position of a public stenographer. Most of them, however, preferred regular salaried employment in a business or professional office. Whichever route the women decided to take, the
promotional stunt of the typist-stenographer was a success for everyone concerned—for the typewriter salesmen, for the business executives, and for the women themselves.

The concept of secretaryship was changing in many more ways than the improved ability to take rapid shorthand notes and type beautifully written letters and business documents during this period (5). Before the last two decades of the nineteenth century, offices in the downtown sections of the cities were filled entirely with males, many of whom wore their hats indoors and sat at their desks with no thoughts of the females' invading the business world. Offices seldom had any kind of floor covering, and the air was usually filled with cigar smoke. Instead of being decorated, the offices were usually dark and dreary. The male did not seem to be interested in how his working space looked (5, pp. 5-6).

The concept of the orderly desk had not been considered during the early days of business expansion; most executives used the roll-top desk. They either wrote their letters in longhand or summoned male secretaries to take dictation and to transcribe, later, in longhand. At the end of the day, the office boy took all the originals and, by wetting them with a treated felt cloth and then pressing the damp letters against the pages of a book, made one copy of each for the records. Then the letters were quickly folded, placed in envelopes, and rushed to the post office with the hope that no one would have time to notice that the copy press had turned the originals into illegible smears (5, pp. 6-8).
The business district had no sandwich shops or drugstore lunch counters during this period. It might have a few restaurants where the female visitors were taken occasionally, but most of the men ate at one of the bars that lined the streets. No female would enter such a place, even for food (5). Such was the status of the office and the concept of secretaryship before the influx of the female contingent.

The female typist and secretary who followed the wake of the typewriter into the downtown offices produced many changes within the office itself as well as within the boundaries of the business district. The office working space became lighter and more airy; it became cleaner and more homelike. Windows were cleaned and shades were raised; flowers and pot plants appeared. Many office floors were tiled or laid with carpeting.

When a new occupational group appeared in the Bureau of the Census tabulations in the 1890’s (Clerical and kindred workers, female), nearly every merchant with something to sell began to examine the secretary's tastes, opinions, habits, and hopes. New industries, selling such things as office desks, posture chairs, and business supplies, were created and expanded for the comfort and well-being of the secretary. Sandwich shops selling salads and soft drinks appeared to cater to her demands (5).

When the female secretary took her place in business, she became the symbol of all young women with more than average education who had enterprise enough to get out of the home, to learn a skill, and to earn her own living. She was a pace setter and a style maker for young
women everywhere, with influence far out of proportion to her actual numbers. The garment industry noticed that, when the female secretary bought shirtwaists to wear to work in the office, shirtwaists became a big mail-order item for young ladies throughout the country. The hat manufacturers saw that, if she took to wearing her hair in a bun on the nape of her neck, millions of other women could be expected to wear their hair in the same manner (5).

The female secretary had not only widened the scope of the secretarial activities in two short decades, but she had broadened the sphere of her influence in style of dress and was setting the pace for other young women. She was rapidly taking over the prerogatives of the field from the male. The concept of secretaryship definitely included the female.

Concepts of the Early Twentieth Century

The principal qualifications of the secretary in 1900 were a knowledge of shorthand and the ability to type. Very few secretaries, especially the females, had little more formal education than the competencies in these two courses along with a few months of study in basic business English.

The stenographers and typists Union No. 11655, AF of L, the first union of its kind, was organized in 1904. One of the first matters that occupied its attention was the kind of work that stenographers and typists ought to do. The females thought that they should not be expected to do more in the office than to take dictation and transcribe their notes (5, p. 76).
The private business school was the first in the field of commercial education. It was fundamentally a business enterprise that sprang into being in response to a real need. It had already been firmly established long before the invention of the typewriter, and it now found itself in a period of rapid expansion and improvement. The public schools were quick to follow in the early twentieth century when the success of the typewriter had been assured and businessmen began calling for more and better-educated stenographers and secretaries.

The businessman, now that he had learned what a good secretary could do for him, was demanding more of his office staff. New courses were added to the rapidly expanding commercial curricula to meet these demands. By 1925 the larger high schools were teaching such subjects as junior business training, office machines, commercial arithmetic, business writing, business English, bookkeeping, merchandising, advertising, and commercial law (36, 37). Most of the smaller high schools were teaching a course in typing and, perhaps, a course in shorthand.

Both the junior and senior colleges and the universities were either expanding their business departments or adding new departments to take care of teacher education for the new courses as well as to educate the students who wanted to make a career in business. By 1925 several universities had added the graduate master's degree to their list of business offerings.

Office machine and equipment companies were doing their part to make the tasks of the office easier to perform and more valuable to the
businessmen. By the early 1930’s, the business office had been mechanized to a great extent (25). The accounting machine, which was a cumbersome blind writer equipped with an adding and subtracting mechanism in 1907, had been completely modernized and electrified. The first electric typewriters had made their appearance and proved their worth. The autotypewriter had been in the office long enough to convince many businessmen that they could not do without it. The teletypewriter was widely used; and practically every company had an adding machine or a calculator or perhaps both. A simple type of automation could be detected in the tabulating equipment used—tabulating cards, the key punch machine, the verifier, the electric sorting machine, and the automatic interpreter. Many of these early business machines were powered by electricity, but the hand-cranked machines were more often used.

Automation was only a few years away, and a few far-sighted men realized it. In 1930 Walker wrote:

Many offices approach the mechanical when appliances and conveniences are provided for the clerks and the work is reorganized on a mechanical production basis. . . . The makers of business appliances realize this for the most part. They are selling service in terms of machinery, or machinery in terms of service. . . . Few businessmen realize how fast the day of the mechanical office is coming (32, pp. 118-119).

The concept of secretaryship was rapidly changing. When the female entered the business world, she was called a "typewriter," a name she did not like because she felt that it belittled the importance of the work she did. The term was dropped about 1900, and the title typist-stenographer or typist-secretary was substituted. Gradually,
three distinct titles evolved: *typist*, one who did not take shorthand notes; *stenographer*, one whose principal duties were taking dictation and transcribing notes; and *secretary*, one who, in addition to taking dictation and transcribing notes, assisted the employer in some of the more confidential work of the firm.

The male secretary, although fewer in numbers than the female, still had a firm place in business; but his image was also changing. By the early twentieth century, he had become a well-dressed and personable male who had learned that he could type and operate the new office machines as well as, if not better than, his female counterpart. His complaint against the job was that it did not pay him a salary commensurate with the money he could earn in some of the other fields of employment that were open to him. Consequently, the more intelligent and ambitious males usually stayed in the secretarial position just long enough to learn all they could about business methods and to find more lucrative positions in management. Welch voiced the opinion in 1924 that, although the male stenographer may use his secretarial competencies for only three or four years in an office, those competencies were worth the two years it took him to learn them. Without them, he would have to spend many more than three or four years to reach even the lower management level (37, pp. 41-42).

The concept of secretarialship emerged during this period as a person, male or female, having a well-defined position and a secure niche in the field of business. No longer did a secretary mean, exclusively, a male who worked behind closed doors through which no female might
enter. Nor did it mean a female with a typewriter who had sneaked in through the back door of business with the abettance of the New York YWCA, although she was fast replacing the male in the business office.

In 1932 Taintor wrote, "Up to the last fifteen or twenty years, men held more secretarial posts than women. At the present time, with the exception of certain kinds of positions, women have entered the secretarial ranks and seem to fill them almost to the exclusion of men" (29, p. 100). Taintor suggested that the reasons for this replacement were that the work is not too heavy for women, it appears congenial to their tastes, and it invites their efforts. Executives recognize that in women's innate qualities and in their special abilities are the requisites for excellent secretaries. According to Taintor, females are more adaptable to office work than are the male secretaries, quicker in their intuition and in anticipation of the employers' wants and needs, and much more suited by nature and practice to the service of another in unselfish devotion.

Many of the secretarial duties of this period were the same as those that the typist-stenographer had performed in the nineteenth century; that is, dictation, transcription, records, and filing. However, the secretary had advanced so that "she was an extension of the employer's personality, thinking and acting for him, in order that the employer's time and energy could be released for other duties and responsibilities" (6, p. 3). The secretary who needed only the basic competencies of shorthand and typing in the office was receding into a distant memory.
The early twentieth century employer demanded that his secretary know how to operate the machines that were becoming a standard fixture in the office, be able to gather the materials for making office reports and in some cases to make the reports, know something about the economics of business, and understand something about finance and accounting. The secretary had to act as a buffer between the employer and the public, both over the telephone and face to face with office callers. The secretary was beginning to have to be able to handle the supervision of the work of other office personnel—stenographer, typists, and receptionists. Sometimes the duties extended to acting as the company telephone operator.

The additional responsibilities demanded that the secretary have a better education than one had had to have in the past. At least, a high school diploma with an emphasis on business courses was demanded; and many employers were beginning to talk about a commercial college course or a year or two of instruction in a junior college with a concentration of work in the field of business before an application would be considered. Emphasis was still on an education in the business courses, but a general educational background was becoming more valuable than it had formerly been.

The secretary's personal traits were taking on a new importance. The secretary should be dependable, industrious, accurate, neat, prompt, co-operative, adaptable, honest, and courteous. The secretary should possess initiative, loyalty, good judgment, discretion, a sense of humor, and a good memory (19, pp. 50-54). One writer summed up
the value of the secretarial traits as being almost as important as the
traits of the executive.

Many instances can be cited where the success of a
business is due as much to the sound judgment of the secretary
as it is due to the owner or manager. Loyalty is quite as
important as intelligence in the service that a secretary renders
her employer. She must assume her share of the responsibility
for making the business as profitable as it deserves (38,
p. 258).

The Impact of Automation on the Business Office

According to the Encyclopaedia Britannica, automation is "the
name given to an automatic system of work, the difference between
automation and mechanization, a related term, being mainly one of
degree" (1, p. 858). The word "automation" was first used in 1946 by
D. S. Harden, who was then with General Motors Corporation, and
applied initially to the production plant. A few years later it was ceded
that "the operation of an automatic office in commerce, and in factories
for production control, comes within the scope of automation. The ker-
nel is usually a data processing system" (1, p. 864).

Automation had its origin in mechanization, which for many cen-
turies had been exploited by man whenever he could devise an easier
method of doing his work.

It goes back in part to the early Romans, and there have
been many illustrations of it within the past two hundred years
in Europe and the United States. Jacquard punch cards were
used in the textile industry in the eighteenth century and in the
twentieth century. Mass production, with its "full mechaniza-
tion," began to take on many of the aspects of automation
(26, p. 17).

Long before the computer and data processing found its way into
business, many progressive men had gone far toward automating or
mechanizing their offices (4). They were using every new mechanical
device that came on the market to help the office staff to do its work
more easily and efficiently: electronic typewriters, voice-writing discs,
autotypewriters, addressing machines, up-to-date filing equipment
including microfilms, electronic telephone aids, photocopying and other
modern types of duplicating machines, and interoffice communication
devices—all of which, often in the form of highly improved and advanced
electronic equipment, are still to be found in the modern, well-equipped
office. These forward-looking men were the first to appreciate the
effectiveness of punch cards in the early 1940's. They were the first
to accept data processing in its entirety.

Automation as it is known and understood in the office of the
1970's, however, does not refer to mere mechanical aids; it refers to
the data processing system that has become so significant—perhaps
indispensable—in controlling the work of an office through the digital
computer. "An electronic data processing system is a management tool
which, in a premeditated manner, stores, handles, and manipulates
vast quantities of data, carrying out any necessary calculation. The
selected results are presented in printed, coded form" (11, p. 55).

The impetus for study in communications theory and the develop-
ment of electronic machines for handling data in incredibly large
quantities at unbelievably fast speeds was greatly stimulated by the
military scientists and engineers of World War II, and it was in the
late 1940's and 1950's that business was able to benefit from these
advances in technology (2). Data processing brought controls to the
businessman—control of inventory, control of long- and short-range planning, control of equipment, control of information—all of which aid in anticipating tomorrow's problems (4). The automated office can mean higher profits and more liquid capital only if the businessman knows how to handle the machine properly. The need for faster data has been the driving force behind research in electronic data processing and its attendant devices.

The effects of automation on the business office and on the men who work with it from the management point of view have been monumental. Automation has been praised by some, accepted indifferently by others, and rejected by a few; but no one can afford to ignore it if he expects to compete in the business world of today, either as an employer or as an employee. It has opened up new vistas of study and conjecture for writers, most of whom agree that it is here to stay and that businessmen should prepare to make it work for them. Even Hoos (13) has never stated that automation is just an innovation that will soon give way to something else.

Ida R. Hoos (13, 14) is one of the most outspoken critics of the automated office. Hoos made an intensive study of the marked and significant changes that had such an impact on the office and the office worker between 1955, when the first large-scale computers went into operation, and 1960. Her conclusions were not promising for either employer or employee. The conventional arguments that the new machines upgrade the occupational structure by eliminating bottom-level manual and white-collar workers, lower the number of working hours in
the total economy, increase the demand for services, and make for a higher standard of living are, in Hoos's opinion, just arguments and nothing more (13, p. 39). Hoos refutes all the arguments in the conclusions drawn from her study.

As for upgrading of salaries, according to Hoos, the programmers are the elite; but seldom do they earn more than $7,000 to $10,000 a year, and too often they are classified as minor executives and have to work overtime at odd hours without earning overtime pay. Too, the opportunities for becoming a programmer are few. The salaries of key punchers, positions which most clerical workers who are not entirely displaced get, compare poorly with salaries for the classifications which automation has displaced; and there are no promotional opportunities for this group of workers--perhaps an occasional increase in salary but not a promotion (14).

Hoos agrees that the machines upgrade the structure by eliminating bottom-level manual and white-collar workers; but she asks the question, What becomes of these workers? "A fair estimate, based on experience thus far, is that for every five office jobs eliminated, only one is created by automation" (14, p. 103). Most companies do not discharge old employees, but they displace by attrition and transfer. New workers are not hired to take the place of displaced workers; or an old worker who is not needed is sent to another department to take a new job about which he probably knows nothing.

While shortening of the work day or week may spread employment, it may glut other sectors of the labor market with "moonlighters"--people who have a regular job and supplement their incomes with a second job. . . . It is conceivable that
shorter hours as a remedy for technological employment could boomerang if moonlighting were to become a widespread practice (13, p. 103).

Another defensive measure is lowered compulsory retirement age. There are two arguments against this practice: (1) Older workers have adverse attitudes against a fixed retirement age, and older workers have a comparatively higher work performance than that of younger workers. (2) Not many employers want to lose their older workers who are still highly productive (14).

Similar findings to those in the Hoos study were reported by C. E. Weber (32) in 1959. Weber found that, while a few highly skilled jobs are set up for the office force by automation, for the most part the computer tends to degrade clerical workers. Their work becomes monotonous and uninteresting, and they have very little latitude in making judgments and decisions of their own.

Shils believes that management is using, for the most part, normal attrition to take care of displacement in the office. This procedure appears to raise fewer problems than are encountered in industrial situations, but Shils predicts that in the long run automation may displace office workers more rapidly than it does plant workers (26, pp. 304-305).

Lewis thinks that management has not had enough education in data processing to know what automation can and cannot do in the office and that, often, automation merely substitutes machine costs for costs of clerical workers doing work by hand at no actual saving to the company. He suggests that each company study its own individual
needs and costs before it considers installing a data processing system, for he does not think that mechanization always pays in the long run. He also suggests that employees be carefully prepared by management for the changeover to automation. Automation may be considered a prestige factor; but, if a company wants to stay in business in a competitive system, it should not cut into its hard-won profits merely for the sake of prestige. Profits—not prestige—keep one in business (18).

According to many writers (9, 18, 28, 30), automation is being highly oversold and is racing along too fast for the average business to keep up with what is happening in the field. Terborgh (30), however, insists that the reason the alarmists are so concerned about the employment effect of automation is that they do not understand the processes by which improvements in the technology of production have generated new jobs and have expanded employment in the past. "Be that as it may," he says, "the fact remains that the adverse employment effects of automation have been blown up out of all relation to reality" (30, p. 17). He takes the stand that automation and data processing is really nothing new but just a fuller mechanization of the same processes that business has been using for years. He does cede the fact that the rate of technological processes may be accelerating too soon for some people.

Spitler thinks that much of the trouble with automation stems from the fact that, as soon as an office installs one system and learns how to operate it effectively, another newer and supposedly better one
comes on the market to take its place. Businessmen, he believes, are finding it rather difficult and expensive to cope with this problem (28).

Fairbanks (8) and Levin (17) have nothing but praise for the data processing system; but they, too, warn of some of the problems that have been met in its installation. Both writers seem to believe that these problems will increase within the next decade or two. No one knows what the absolute potential of automation may be or when it will decelerate its impact and become the accepted method of operating a business. Hoos, an outspoken critic of automation, cedes the fact that perhaps automation will, in the long run, be more beneficial than harmful to business; but, in the meantime, he is wondering aloud what will happen to the present generation of businessmen (14).

Fairbanks points out that the clerical load in the office has risen steeply within the past thirty years and, unless something is done about it, clerical costs may price some products out of the market (8, pp. 3-13). Clerks have always enjoyed a prestige of sorts that production workers have never had; but today with the demand for paper work increasing and the shorter work hours faced by the unionized production group, the situation may, in time, reverse itself. Business has been given a new chance in the form of automation, and it seems that business must automate in order to save itself from extinction.

Several surveys have been made to see what the workers themselves think about automation. Most workers seem to have welcomed the change; and, while they can see that automation will reduce the number of jobs available, very few seem to be afraid of losing their own
jobs. Since most companies are cutting down their office staffs by attrition, there seems to be little need for fear at the moment. Some few who have been transferred are unhappy. Most workers believe that the introduction of technology has not had much effect on the salaries they receive, on their chances for promotion, or on the amount of supervision they receive (12, 15). Hoos disagrees with these opinions (13, 14). Most workers, however, think that they are working harder and accomplishing more than they formerly were.

Data processing has pushed into the factory, into clerical work, and into the bookkeeping and accounting departments; but, so far, secretaries have not been streamlined to the point that they have no individual initiative. They have continued to act as buffers between their employers and the public. They still hold the same positions of prestige they fought so hard to win before technology was introduced. They are assistants to the executive—the higher the executive's title, the greater their own prestige. There has been no machine invented that can meet the public and act as a publicity agent for the executive; there is no machine that can find errors and correct them so effectively as the secretary can. No machine can inject the human element into a business situation in the same manner that a secretary can.

Without actually operating an electronic data processing machine, the secretary receives many of the benefits of automation. Much of the drudgery has been taken from the routine duties by electronic machines and devices, and the secretary is left with time for other duties.
The Modern Concept of Secretaryship

The modern concept of secretaryship does not always appear to be the same to all people. Not all dictionaries agree on the definition of a secretary, and businessmen often erroneously use the word because they seem to believe that the term secretary carries more prestige than does the term stenographer.

Webster's New World Dictionary defines a secretary as "a person employed to keep records, take care of correspondence and other writing tasks, etc., for an organization or individual" (35). In the office that employs only one girl, both the employer and the employee often call the office girl a secretary even though she may actually perform few more chores than answering the telephone, greeting visitors, and occasionally typing a letter.

The United States Bureau of the Census makes no distinction between secretaries and stenographers but ranks them together under the general heading "Occupations requiring stenographic skills" (31). Research by the National Secretaries Association indicates that about 60 percent of the two and a quarter million secretaries and stenographers in the nation have advanced beyond shorthand and transcription competencies to the more demanding duties of secretarial work (10), and secretaries do not like their work classified as "Occupations requiring stenographic skills" any better than the first typists in the 1880's liked to be called "typewriters."

Popham, who made a study of secretarial work in the 1950's, reached the conclusion that employers may have four different concepts
in mind when they think of a secretary. A high-level secretary must embody the characteristics of all four categories to a certain extent, but the position goes far beyond the limited scope of the last three concepts.

1. To some, she (the secretary) is an administrative junior executive.

2. To others, she is a senior stenographer, given few opportunities to exercise initiative.

3. To others, she is a "Girl Friday," a sort of office maid, always on the spot to help out with details but with few opportunities for initiating activities.

4. To the fourth group, she is "front office," just as much a part of office decor as the streamlined desk, a sort of glorified receptionist with little responsibility (23, p. 58).

Bertha Stronach, president of the National Secretaries Association (International), in 1969, gives the definition of the secretary that had been adopted by her organization, "A secretary shall be defined as an executive assistant who possesses a mastery of office skills, who demonstrates the ability to assume responsibility without direct supervision, who exercises initiative and judgment, and who makes decisions within the scope of her assigned authority" (22). The NSAI makes a definite distinction between a secretary and a stenographer and has spent quite some time and effort in getting the secretarial group accepted as a profession.

Stenographers, according to the NSAI, do little more than take dictation and transcribe their notes, while secretaries perform many administrative duties (22). Approximately 40 percent of the stenographers gain the position and title of "secretary." Though the titles
"stenographer" and "secretary" are often informally misused and misinterpreted, most businessmen seem to know the differences between them. Many students and laymen (and even teachers occasionally) seem to equate the two titles indiscriminately.

The female sector of secretaries, who according to the Occupational Outlook Handbook (31) comprised more than 95 percent of the secretaries in the United States in 1967, organized its own National Secretaries Association in 1942. Later that year, the Canadian secretaries were accepted as members; and the name was officially changed to National Secretaries Association (International). Since 1942 secretaries from Mexico, Puerto Rico, and Finland have been taken into membership. The original membership was purely female; for twenty-seven years the male ignored the organization. In 1969 a male secretary applied for membership; at first, the organization declined his application and wanted to keep the membership closed to male secretaries. However, the organization's constitution had not specifically barred the male; and, finally, the male became a full-fledged member with all the rights and privileges accorded the female. Since that time, nine other males have applied for membership and have been accepted. As of November, 1970, there were ten male members of NSAI as compared with approximately 35,000 female members. To become a member, "one must be of unquestionable character and integrity, have had secretarial training, have had at least two years of secretarial experience, and be actively engaged as a secretary" (3, p. 35).
The National Secretaries Association (International)—or the NSAI—has done much to elevate the standards of the secretarial profession and to present a clear picture of the modern secretary to the public. A code of ethics was adopted the same year the Association was organized, and secretaries were accepted as a professional group by the United States Bureau of Internal Revenue. The first nationwide Certified Professional Secretaries examination was given in 1942, and the first nationwide convention of secretaries was held in 1946 (10). The publication of the NSAI, the Secretary, has been a valuable aid to its members for the twenty-eight years that it has been published.

Adequate performance as a secretary requires a good basic education as well as technical instruction. Graduation from a high school is essential, and many employers prefer at least a year of post-high school study. Some of the more competent secretaries at the highest levels, the executive secretary or the executive aide, hold college degrees. "Currently employed secretaries average thirteen years of formal education" (22).

Men are preferred in some secretarial positions. Men are quite often favored in the transportation field, in the oil and rubber industries, in firms manufacturing heavy machinery and equipment, and in some Government offices. Men are preferred for several reasons:

1. They are believed by many executives to be less temperamental than women.
2. Often, they are expected to travel with the executive.
3. Sometimes they have to work outside the office (3, pp. 37-38).
The secretarial position for the male provides an excellent learning situation for an executive position in his company. Because he works in close contact with the executive and handles many of the details incident to the executive's work, he gains a comprehensive knowledge of the executive's job. He has an opportunity to learn how to direct, to supervise, to plan, to cope with problems, and to interpret company policies (3, p. 3).

The secretarial post also provides an excellent learning situation for the woman. A good secretarial position can lead a girl anywhere she wants to go professionally—into advertising, publicity, a publishing job, newspaper reporting, magazine editing, or an office executive's job. Maule suggests that secretarial training—or in certain instances shorthand and typing alone—may serve as an entering wedge to secure entrance to a field that might otherwise remain barred; also, in fields where the training necessary to secure the higher type of employment is not available in schools, a period of secretarial service is one way of getting around the ever-present and otherwise almost insuperable difficulty of lack of experience (20, p. 191).

To enter the secretarial field, one is usually required to possess a minimum speed of 80 words per minute in shorthand and 50 words per minute in typing. The better positions often require 100 words per minute or more in shorthand and 70 to 80 words per minute in typing. In addition, one should have the proven ability to use correct English, to punctuate acceptably, and to spell correctly. One should also know how to place a letter attractively on the page and how to handle business
documents. The modern secretary should know the language of data processing and the interpretation of the materials put out by the computer (3).

The secretary should be a well-dressed young man or woman. He or she represents the company and sets the standards for the other office personnel. The female secretary has only to look through the pages of a magazine written especially for her—Glamour, Mademoiselle, the Secretary, or the Nation's Secretary—to know what the well-dressed secretary should wear (3).

The male secretary, too, should wear clothes suitable to the position—dress shirt, tie, and jacket—if he hopes to advance to an executive position. Although the male is probably not so clothes conscious as the female, there are certain standards of dress to which he is expected to adhere (3).

Most of the experts among business writers seem to agree that the automated office has not hurt the secretary's chances for success in the office. A quotation from the Occupational Outlook Handbook states that the outlook for the modern secretary is good:

Employment opportunities for workers with stenographic skills are expected to be good through the 1970's. As modern business continues to expand in size and complexity, more and more paper work will cause a moderate expansion in the employment of secretaries and stenographers. The increasing use of dictating, duplicating, and other office machines will undoubtedly continue; but technological changes are not to be expected to affect greatly the growth of employment in these occupations (31, p. 287).

While the secretary is still expected to perform what Irene Kriedberg calls the "workhorse jobs of typing, dictation, filing, mailing,
and handling of calls and callers" (16), he has been relieved of much of the tedium of office work by the introduction of technology. Niles, Niles, and Stephens give the following advantages as some of the effects received from automation:

1. Much drudgery is abolished.

2. Decisions can be based on better information, brought together much faster than ever before.

3. Advantages can be taken of current results and those of the immediate past in order to update policies and operations and take immediate corrective action.

4. Emphasis is placed on continuity, both in scheduling of operations and the processing of data.

5. More skill is required, even on lowly clerical jobs. Many jobs of routine, repetitive work are abolished.

6. There is a sharp demand for many types of skilled clerical and professional workers.

7. Those not immediately involved in data processing must nevertheless make a considerable effort to understand what is going on.

8. The general concern with systems and with machines generates a need . . . to look for new and better ways of doing things (21, pp. 12-13).

Only Hoos has an unpleasant note to add to the secretary's position in the office:

Another substantial segment of the clerical labor force, hitherto considered to be practically immune to the encroachment of mechanization, is becoming affected indirectly and directly—the domain of the stenographer and the secretary. . . . The secretary seems increasingly displaced by a pool. Of course, use of the dictating machine is not new; it is a logical device for bypassing notetaking in shorthand and then transcribing it on the typewriter. But it is not uncommon to see one girl seated at a desk near the elevator and serving as general receptionist, guide, and information clerk to a whole floor; the correspondence of the executives is handled through a pool (13, p. 38).
From an analysis of the literature, it was found that the modern concept of secretaryship is a young man or woman, with women outnumbering the men in a ratio of 19 to 1, whose principal duties in the business office are many: (1) the secretary takes dictation from the executive and transcribes the notes on the typewriter; (2) the secretary types office forms and business documents as they are required; (3) the secretary takes care of business records, filing them systematically; (4) the secretary acts as a buffer between the executive and the public as well as between the executive and the other office personnel; (5) the secretary supervises the work of other office personnel and helps with the instruction of new office employees; (6) the secretary does much of the confidential work of the executive; (7) the secretary often acts as a publicity agent for the executive; (8) the secretary exercises initiative and judgment in handling many office problems; and (9) the secretary represents the company for which he works at all times.

Summary

The concept of secretaryship has gone through many changes since the eighteenth century B.C., from which date the use of secretaries to do office work can be traced. The four most significant changes in the concept were brought about (1) by the invention of shorthand in 63 B.C.; (2) by the invention of the typewriter in 1867; (3) by the mechanization of the office in the early twentieth century; and (4) by the automation of the office in the middle of the twentieth century.

The earliest concept of secretaryship was rather blurred and indistinct; but it appears to have resolved around a male slave, at that time
called a scribe, who could read and write and who did simple office chores: copying letters and a few crude business papers in longhand and keeping a few crude business records. The scribe probably cared for the master's personal needs, also, and carried out any commands given him. The concept of secretaryship was a slave-master relationship and remained in force for approximately 1,700 years.

When shorthand was invented, a new dimension was added to the concept of secretaryship. Slaves were taught to write shorthand in order to enhance their value, and freedmen learned the new method of writing in order to earn a livelihood for themselves in the Roman market places by writing letters and documents for the illiterate of the populace. By the fifth and sixth centuries, it had become commonplace for the younger sons of the middle classes to be instructed in shorthand and placed in the employ of kings, noblemen, or wealthy merchants. The concept of secretaryship had changed from a slave-scribe to an educated man who could take dictation and who knew something about business principles, finance, and management. No longer was the concept purely a slave-master relationship, although both slaves and freedmen were still used as secretaries. The concept of secretaryship had gained an aura of respectability and had become a prestige relationship—the higher the social status of the employer and the greater his wealth, the higher was the prestige of the secretarial employee.

The second significant change in the concept of secretaryship was brought about by the invention of the typewriter in 1867. Up to that time, all the secretaries had been male, and all shorthand notes had
been transcribed in longhand. When the majority of the male secretaries ignored the potentiality of the typewriter in business and had refused to learn to operate the machine, the female took a course of instruction in typing and began working in the business office. At first, she was a mere typist. However, she brought a willingness to work and to learn to her job; and within ten years many females had risen to the position of private secretary. Some few men had learned to type and had stayed in the secretarial field, but the male secretaries were far outnumbered by the females in 1890. The concept of secretaryship had changed to a female who could take shorthand dictation, type her notes, and do confidential work for the employer. Since the slaves had been freed and the fine distinctions between the social classes were less sharply defined than they had been during the Middle Ages, there was a simple employer-employee relationship between the secretary and the executive.

In the latter part of the nineteenth century, a few business machines other than the typewriter were introduced in the office; and the concept of secretaryship was significantly changed again. By the early 1930's, the office was fairly well mechanized; and such machines as electric typewriters, calculators, bookkeeping machines, and tabulating equipment, as well as a host of others, were in general use in many offices. There were still a few male secretaries, but the females outnumbered them 10 to 1. Furthermore, the male usually stayed in the secretarial position only long enough to get the experience necessary to get a better-paying position while the female usually made the secretarial position a career. The concept of secretaryship during the first
half of the twentieth century resolved around a young lady (though there were still a few men in the field) having a well-defined position and a secure niche in the business office. The concept resolved around a young lady who knew how to operate business machines, who could gather and make reports for the executive, who knew something about the economics of business, and understood something about finance. The concept of secretaryship resolved around the secretary, usually a female, who could handle the supervision of the work of other office personnel and who could advise and help the employer in some of his confidential work.

The last significant change in the concept of secretaryship was brought about by the introduction of automation to the business office in the middle of the twentieth century. Automation took much of the drudgery out of secretarial work by abolishing many jobs of routine repetitive work, but it required that the secretary improve his old competencies, such as shorthand, typing, English, and spelling, and learn a few new ones. The secretary of the 1970's normally does not have to operate the data processing machines, but he should understand their technical language and know how to interpret the information stored in them. The modern concept of secretaryship is a female (a female in 95 percent of the secretarial positions) who takes dictation and transcribes her notes on the typewriter, who takes care of the files, who meets the public and acts as a buffer between it and the executive, who handles many customer and dealer problems, who supervises other office personnel, who does much of the confidential work of the executive,
and who exercises initiative and judgment in the handling of many of the office problems.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER III

THE MEANING AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE CONCEPT
OF SECRETARYSHIP IN THE OIL INDUSTRY

This section of the study was an attempt to determine what the term secretary and the concept of secretaryship mean in the oil industry. The data were gathered by means of depth interviews with thirty executives and thirty secretaries working in the oil industry of the Permian Basin, which consists of forty-seven counties in West Texas and New Mexico.

It was decided that the companies selected for interviews should meet the three following qualifications:

1. Each executive interviewed should be from a major oil company known throughout the forty-eight states of the Continental United States; that is, each company should have an office and/or service stations located in many of the towns and cities of the United States.

2. There should be at least ten secretaries working in the office.

3. There should be at least fifty field men—including roustabouts, pumpers, surveyors, and supervisors—working out of the office.

The subjects for the study were chosen from a list of oil companies in the Permian Basin, which were determined by a survey of the field made by the Odessa Chamber of Commerce in 1969 and 1970. The survey included the information needed to begin the study: the names of the oil companies operating in the Permian Basin; the names of the
home offices of the companies; the names and addresses of the offices of the top executives in the home offices; branch offices and the names, titles, and addresses of their top executives; approximate assets of each company; and the states and territories in which each company operated. From a list of 1,782 companies named in the survey, 791 met the requirements selected for the study.

Since thirty executives and thirty secretaries were to be interviewed, it was decided arbitrarily that every twentieth company on the list of the 791 would be considered to take part in the study. The executive and the one named by him as his secretary would be asked for interviews. Such an accounting left six companies held in reserve to be used if they should be needed to complete the required number of interviews. Each of the companies selected, after an examination of the list, met all the requirements of the study. A telephone call to each company selected confirmed its eligibility.

After the companies had been selected, a letter asking for interviews was sent to the president of each of the Permian Basin branch offices of the chosen companies. Three days later a telephone call was made to each president to learn whether the interviews had been granted. Four executives declined the invitation for interviews; four other letters were then sent to four of the companies on the reserve list. Thus, appointments for interviews with thirty executives and thirty secretaries were made. The time and the place for each interview were set at the time the telephone call was made.
Both classifications of interviews were based on the thirty-five most frequent duties (1, pp. 28-29) listed by the employers of 350 secretaries who applied to take the examination for a Certified Professional Secretary’s certificate in 1955. (The list is reproduced in Appendix D.) The list of duties was then divided into three large categories for the executive and five large categories for the secretary:

1. For the executive
   a. Secretarial routine duties
   b. Secretarial administrative duties
   c. Company policy

2. For the secretary
   a. Receptionist duties
   b. Dictation-transcription duties
   c. Use of office machines
   d. Financial duties
   e. Administrative duties

A panel composed of three experienced teachers from the Secretarial Department of Odessa College then met to discuss the detailed questions to be asked. It was decided that the educational background of the secretary should be included as a category to explore with both the executive and the secretary. The larger categories were further divided into eight categories for the executive and sixteen categories for the secretary:

1. For the executive
   a. The secretary as a representative of the executive
   b. Other administrative assignments of the secretary
   c. Confidential assignments of the secretary
   d. Formal education expected of the secretary
   e. Work experience expected of the secretary
   f. On-the-job instruction given the secretary
   g. Employee promotional policy of the company
   h. Remarks of the executive
2. For the secretary

a. Formal education
b. Work experience
c. Duties as a receptionist
d. Duties in handling telephone calls
e. Duties in handling the mail
f. Dictation-transcription duties
g. Typing duties
h. Duties related to keeping office financial records
i. Duties related to employer travel
j. Duties related to filing
k. Types of business machines in the office
l. Importance of automation in the office
m. Administrative duties
n. Values of a secretarial background
o. Job satisfaction
p. Remarks of the secretary

Detailed questions were then written for each schedule. At the second and third meetings of the panel, the teachers studied the tentative schedules and made the revisions that seemed to be necessary. After three meetings of the panel, the schedules were typed in their final form. (The schedules are reproduced in Appendixes B and C.)

Twenty-one executives and their secretaries were interviewed; the remaining nine secretaries and nine executives were from different offices. If from the company's viewpoint, it was inconvenient for the secretary to give an interview at the appointed time, in each case the executive asked another secretary in the department to substitute.

Each secretary, all of whom were women, and each executive was interviewed separately. The interviews with the secretaries averaged one and one-half hours each, and the interviews with the executives averaged thirty-five to forty minutes each. In each interview the duties of the secretary were discussed, and each subject was encouraged to talk about any detail pertaining to office routine.
Interviews with the Executives

Two presidents who were called gave personal interviews; each of the twenty-eight who did not have time for a personal interview gave an appointment for an interview with some other executive in the company. The following shows the titles of the men interviewed:

1. Two were presidents of their respective companies.

2. Two were vice-presidents, one in charge of sales and one in charge of refining.

3. Five were assistant vice-presidents, two assistants to vice-presidents in charge of refining and three assistants to vice-presidents in charge of production.

4. One was an administrative assistant to a first vice-president in charge of production.

5. Two were divisional operations managers in charge of operations and construction records in their respective companies.

6. Four were divisional production managers in charge of the production of oil and gas in their respective companies.

7. Three were explorations managers in charge of locations and development of oil deposits in their respective companies.

8. One was a manager of engineering in charge of the engineers, geologists, and geophysicists working for his company in the Permian Basin.

9. Three were district managers who acted as general managers in the Permian Basin for their respective companies.

10. One was an area administrative supervisor who acted as liaison between upper and middle management officials regarding all administrative problems.

11. Three were divisional superintendents, each one of whom had authority over all the gasoline refineries in his respective area.

12. Three were district superintendents, each of whom was in charge of the gasoline plants in his district.
Although there was no exact agreement among the executives with regard to the various questions asked of them in the interviews, there was a trend toward consensus with regard to the duties expected of a secretary and the value of the secretary to the efficient operation of the business. Six of the men in middle management—two district superintendents, three divisional superintendents, and the manager of engineering—answered only the questions asked of them; the ten executives in upper management and the remaining fourteen executives in middle management spoke freely about the problems of locating competent personnel to fill the secretarial positions. Much information was gleaned from their frank statements and the pertinent questions which they asked in return.

Certain factors were identified by the executives as significant in their judgment of the efficiency of the secretary when she is acting as a representative for the company:

1. The manner in which a secretary answers the telephone was commented upon frequently.

2. The manner in which a secretary dresses was considered to be significant.

3. The manner in which a secretary handles customer and dealer problems for the company was thought to be indicative of the secretary's value.

Fifteen executives mentioned that most young secretaries have trouble in learning to use the telephone correctly and easily. According to one executive, the telephone is the weakest spot in the office when it should be the strongest:

Telephone manners are the one thing I find that most girls don't have. Often a girl is all right when taking local calls,
but long-distance calls frighten her to death. Why don't schools teach the girls how to answer the telephone and how to carry on a conversation with her superiors! My secretary is quite adept at helping me—making notes, getting files, etc., that I need; but after four years, she is just reaching the point that she can carry on a long-distance conversation with the head man in Houston (4).

The data in Table I indicate the opinions of executives regarding the ways in which secretaries most often represent the company or the employer to the public.

**TABLE I**

WAYS IN WHICH SECRETARIES REPRESENT EXECUTIVES TO THE PUBLIC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duties</th>
<th>Regularly</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Emergencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dresses appropriately</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meets the public</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertains company guests</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Represents employer at meetings</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handles customer and dealer problems</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There seemed to be agreement on two items: (1) The secretary was expected to dress appropriately for the office, and (2) the secretary should be able to meet the public graciously, both face to face and on the telephone. Tailored dress was mentioned frequently as correct office attire. The secretary was expected to be courteous and helpful
to guests at all times, regardless of whether the guest was a customer, a dealer, or a casual office visitor.

Four executives believed that one of the duties of a secretary was to assist in the entertainment of company guests (representatives of customer firms, suppliers, or out-of-town company executives). Several ways in which the secretary may be of particular assistance were mentioned: (1) guiding guests through the plant, (2) taking guests to lunch or driving them to particular points in the city, and (3) accompanying guests to social functions, either during or after office hours.

The employer normally expected to do most of the entertaining of guests, but four executives thought that it was the secretary's duty to assist if she was needed. Six executives believed that entertaining guests was one good method of instruction for a secretary and, occasionally, when the office work load was not too heavy, assigned such duties. Minor guests were usually chosen for first assignments. Three executives made these assignments only in emergencies; that is, only when plans had been made and the executive could not go would he send his secretary to take his place.

All thirty secretaries were expected to assist in the planning of entertainment; and they normally made all the necessary arrangements for it, even though they may or may not be present at the function as company hostesses. Some of their duties included these chores: (1) assisting in planning the type of entertainment, (2) making the necessary reservations, (3) planning the menus and selecting the floral
and other decorations, and (4) purchasing the tickets for plays, civic lectures, or athletic games.

No secretary regularly represented the employer at meetings and conferences. Ten executives sent their secretaries to represent them occasionally if the meeting was composed of lower-level guests or employees. Three men would send their secretaries in an emergency rather than to miss a meeting entirely. Seven men occasionally asked their secretaries to accompany them to a meeting as a part of the secretarial education program.

When a secretary represented the executive, she seldom had any authority to make decisions. Before she left the office, she discussed the topics on the agenda with the executive. At the meeting she normally presented the views on which she had been coached and made notes of the proceedings. Only two executives seemed to give their secretaries quite a bit of latitude in making decisions. The remarks made by these two men may show the significance of the latitude allowed their secretaries:

On subjects we have definitely discussed, I trust her judgment as to when to act for me, as to when to make decisions and what kind (5).

She knows almost as much about the business as I do; we discuss every possibility before either of us makes a decision, after which she knows my mind and knows just what I would do (2).

The data in Table II show a cross section of the chores performed by the secretary daily. While this is not a complete list of the secretarial duties in the office, it seems that it is a cross section of those chores that the executives expected their secretaries to perform.
TABLE II
THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF A SECRETARY
IN AN OFFICE FOR ONE DAY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chores</th>
<th>No. of Times Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Takes care of office supplies</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keeps executive's expense account</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plans the office routine</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checks the executive's work for errors</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extracts information from the files</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directs lesser office personnel</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arranges for office repairs</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes out purchase orders</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signs purchase orders</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resolves office disagreements</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reminds executive when he forgets</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepares forms and reports</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Takes care of people executive does not wish to see</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gathers information--keeps her hand on the public pulse</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quotes prices</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes the office budget</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okays field reports</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okays field purchases</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telephones reports to the home office</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-ordinates work of men in the field</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buys office furnishings when necessary</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buys office equipment when needed</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sets up wage schedules for office</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keeps the office payroll and writes checks for the office personnel</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Personal chores:

| Takes care of correspondence for civic clubs                           | 19                     |
| Runs personal errands for executive                                  | 17                     |
| Takes care of executive's personal correspondence                     | 14                     |
| Shops for executive's personal gifts                                 | 10                     |
| Takes care of executive's personal banking chores                    | 10                     |

The supervisory duties of the secretary seemed to be of special significance to a majority of the executives. The secretary was
expected to see that everything in the office operated efficiently with a minimum of bother to the executive. She relieved the executive of many of his personal chores, such as taking care of his correspondence for civic clubs; she pointed out and corrected his errors, and she reminded him when he forgot his commitments. She usually planned, or assisted in planning, the office routine. It was her responsibility to see that office chores were performed efficiently and on time. She resolved many of the office problems, and she acted as a buffer between the executive and the other office personnel.

Twenty-nine executives appeared to agree with the voiced opinion of one: "My secretary performs any office chore that I don't want to do myself" (3). Only one executive made it a practice of not asking a secretary to do a purely personal chore, such as running a personal errand, for him.

Only nine executives said that their offices had anything to do with quoting prices. Two of these executives expressed the opinion that only they should reach the point in the conversation of discussing prices with a customer or a potential customer; five thought that a secretary should quote prices only if she was sure she knew the stated price and that she could not bind her employer to an agreement if she deviated from the normal price. Two men thought that the secretary should have the privilege of quoting prices at any time and even of lowering prices at any time if, in her opinion, the occasion merited a change.
Thirteen executives did not want to give the secretary any more duties than she had at that time because she was doing all the work for which she had time. "She does everything now but make administrative decisions" was a typical comment; and it was frequently added, "She helps with those." All thirty executives interviewed signified that the secretary would do her part in handling any new office duties that might appear.

Seventeen executives voiced the wish that they could give their secretaries more administrative assignments but did not for one of two reasons: (1) immaturity and (2) inexperience on the job. All seventeen of these men pointed out that they were teaching their secretaries to do as much administrative work as time permitted.

If a secretary were to fail to keep a confidence, six executives would do nothing more than discuss the matter with her, provided she was an excellent employee in every other respect. Eleven men would give her only a light reprimand, while twelve would give her quite a severe reprimand. Only one man would dismiss her for a first offense, although all the others commented that they would dismiss her after a second or third offense.

A great majority of the executives were of the opinion that a secretary needed more than a high school education in order to work efficiently in an office, and no man would accept less than a high school diploma. Two men thought a four-year degree was needed for the higher levels of secretarial work. There was the consensus that an education within itself did not guarantee success in the secretarial field. The
competencies of shorthand and typing, they believed, are of such importance that the secretary should possess them, developed to a high degree, before she goes to work in an office. The consensus was that a general educational background, including history, government, philosophy, psychology, and literature, as well as economics, marketing, business law, and introduction to business was of inestimable value to the secretary. Desirable personality traits were also valued highly. The two traits most often mentioned as being of value were maturity and the willingness to learn. One executive stated that the basic skills and maturity were the two essential qualities of a secretary:

   Give me a mature secretary—thirty to thirty-five years old at least. Skills? Yes, the basics. Experience? Just enough for her to know that she does not know everything. Let her have a willingness to learn. We'd like her to know something about oil-field work, but we will teach her that if she shows a willingness to learn (7).

Other personality traits that seemed to be valued highly included loyalty and rapport with the executive, tact, initiative, good judgment and common sense, resourcefulness, and follow-through on a specific task. While loyalty was mentioned by only seven secretaries as being important, seventeen executives stressed the fact that they expected absolute loyalty from the secretary.

The data in Table III show the educational background that the executives believed their secretaries should have and the least that they, as employers, would be willing to accept. It was frequently mentioned that sometimes one had to take, not what he wanted and needed, but whatever was available.
TABLE III
SECRETARIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS ACCORDING TO EXECUTIVES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Secretarial Education</th>
<th>Preferred</th>
<th>Acceptable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial college or 1 year of junior college</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial college</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 year of junior college</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 years of junior college</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree from senior college</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Four executives equated the values of the junior college and the commercial college and thought that it did not matter which school the secretary attended; the important factor was that she have a year of study after high school graduation. The consensus was that the more education the beginning secretary had the shorter would be the instructional period in the office and the more efficient she would be in the work. Two men preferred a secretary with a degree and no experience to one with less education and several years of experience. All the executives who preferred, or who would accept, high school graduates qualified their statements by saying, "She must have maturity, and she must have had at least four or five years of experience in the oil industry."
Eighteen executives demanded 100 words per minute as the shorthand requirement, and nine specified that the secretary must have a fast transcription speed with almost 100 percent accuracy. Ten executives specified 80 words per minute in shorthand as a prerequisite for the job. One executive explained that he did not have a heavy shorthand load and would accept a speed of 60 words per minute if the transcription was perfect. One executive did not care whether his secretary knew shorthand, as he dictated all his letters on IBM belts; but he demanded the ability to type 80 words per minute, a higher speed than that required by any of the other executives.

A majority of the executives—twenty-one—required 60 to 70 words per minute as the typing competence, while the remaining nine would take a secretary who could type only 50 words per minute. Fifteen men mentioned good English, both written and oral, as being a quite important competency. Three executives commented, "My secretary has to be good enough to catch my errors." Three executives demanded that a secretary have a working knowledge of accounting and payroll work.

No executive would hire a secretary without one year of experience plus a minimum of one year of education above high school. Fourteen executives would not hire anyone without two years of experience, and ten demanded three years as the minimum. Only two executives expressed the willingness to hire a secretary who had no experience, and those two emphasized that she would have to possess a college degree before she would be considered as an applicant.
The data in Table IV show the classification of experience preferred by executives. Experience within the oil industry was emphasized by the entire group of executives interviewed.

**TABLE IV**

**KINDS OF SECRETARIAL EXPERIENCE PREFERRED BY EXECUTIVES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Preferences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A lower position with the same company</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A similar position with the same company</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A similar position with another company</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any experience in the oil industry</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A degree with no experience</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The consensus was that women who had worked in lower positions in the same company usually made good secretaries because they brought a knowledge of oil-field terminology, company policy, and company procedures to the job. They normally were so anxious to be successful in their work after their promotions that they were willing to work and tried to please their employers. Two executives preferred to have an experienced secretary transferred from some other department in the company when they needed a replacement, but they were seldom fortunate enough to find that type. An experienced secretary from the same company, they said, could walk into the office and make an excellent secretary the first week on the job. If they could not get that type of secretary, their second preference would be a stenographer who had worked for several years in the same company. It was believed that secretaries who had worked for other oil companies normally made good secretaries. They already knew the terminology and procedures of the
industry, and it took very little time to teach them the duties in a similar position.

Ten executives said that they would ask only one question of an applicant: "Have you had any experience in the oil industry?" They did not like to take an experienced secretary from a dissimilar field of work and have the task of re-educating her for the oil industry. The re-education, they said, took more time than teaching an inexperienced girl with a strong educational background.

It was the policy of all the executives interviewed to promote from within the company when there was a secretarial vacancy if it was possible to find a girl who had the qualifications for the position. Fifteen men, however, stated that they would not hesitate to hire an outsider if she had the better qualifications.

All the executives agreed that the special terminology used in the oil field and a knowledge pertaining particularly to the oil industry were required of every secretary, but their opinions were divided as to whether the schools or the employers should be responsible for teaching the specialized abilities. Sixteen men believed that the educational institutions should give some instruction in oil-field terminology. They believed that such knowledge would help the student to get a better position initially and that it would shorten the instructional period on the job by several months. When asked for a particular course that might be added to the college curricula that would teach the terminology, eleven answers were "A dictation-transcription course, using letters and materials supplied by the oil companies." Three men suggested that
the Glossary of Terms Used in Petroleum Refining, edited by the American Petroleum Institute, might be used as a supplementary textbook. Five executives doubted that it would be worthwhile for the schools to attempt to teach such a course, since the terminology was highly technical and few capable teachers for it could be found. Nine men did not attempt to give a definite answer, but they suggested such a program might be feasible and practicable if the educational institutions and the oil companies would co-operate.

All the executives agreed that the schools should not be responsible for teaching knowledges pertaining particularly to the oil industry for two reasons:

1. The schools are not aware of the particular needs of the oil industry and could not do a satisfactory job of teaching such a course.

2. The executives are much better equipped to do the teaching; they have a natural laboratory in the office with students who must learn.

Twenty-seven executives expected to give one year of instruction to secretaries new to the office. Two men stated, "I screen carefully; but if the young lady can't do the work on her own at the end of six months, I let her go" (3, 4). The answer of one executive was, "If a young lady shows enough promise, I'll stretch the training period to two years and hope she will stay with me long enough to pay me for my trouble" (5).

None of the companies interviewed had a formal educational program in the Permian Basin, but three executives stated that their respective home offices occasionally sent a teacher or a lecturer to
conduct a seminar, which lasted for a few days, for the local employees. At the seminars, new company methods and procedures were taught. Fourteen companies made use of films and film strips in acquainting new employees with their duties and with company policy. Another procedure used to familiarize new employees was personal instruction by an experienced superior. All the executives expected the experienced secretaries to give instruction to the beginning secretaries in routine office procedures.

Nine companies would pay the tuition of the secretary who wanted to enroll in college evening courses if the employer believed she needed the study in order to do her work efficiently. A tenth executive explained:

We rarely pay the tuition for an evening course, but we have been known to do so on a discriminatory basis. We encourage the secretary to go to school on her own, but we pick up the tab only if it is to our advantage to do so; that is, if we see a definite potential that we can use in the company (6).

All the executives noted that the majority of the teaching of new secretaries was done on the job during an ordinary day's work. There was a consensus among the executives that, even though the on-the-job instruction given was informal, it was thorough. As one executive explained,

We have an educational program that would apply to college courses. Education comes out of daily instruction and doing a thing—and doing it right—over and over. We start with the stenographer and teach her our policies and our methods of doing things. We give her instructions in data processing and how to use the computer. As she learns, she gets salary raises; and when she is ready, she is promoted. The first promotion may be to a senior stenographer; but a girl is not promoted until she is ready for the next step. She may
remain a senior stenographer for one year or five; but when she becomes a secretary, she is a secretary in every respect. She knows the work, she does the work, and she receives the salary and deference due a good secretary (7).

Interviews with the Secretaries

Six senior stenographers, twenty-two secretaries, one executive secretary, and one administrative secretary were interviewed. The senior stenographers were doing secretarial work and were informally designated as secretaries, but they were classified on the payroll as senior stenographers. Their employers called them secretaries in conversation and admitted that the young ladies were performing the duties of secretaries. When asked why she was not given the title, salary, and prestige that seemed to be due her, one senior stenographer replied,

This is a branch office and is allowed only ten secretaries by the home office. Therefore, about twenty-five of us are doing secretarial work without the courtesy of the title. We are receiving the top salary paid the senior stenographer, and we are treated like secretaries; but very few of us will ever get the title of secretary so long as we work for this company (14).

The employer of one of the senior stenographers explained, "We don't like to promote too quickly. We like to give the girls something to look forward to, and we run out of titles in a hurry" (4). The senior stenographer in his office had worked for the company four and one-half years and had done the secretarial work for the vice-president in the West Texas field for one and one-half years. "She will probably get the title the first of next year," stated the executive, "and she will certainly deserve it. She has been doing all my secretarial work for the last year" (4).
The data in Table V present the kind of formal education that the secretaries had had, as well as the average number of years that each one had worked before the present position was reached. One woman had taught for two and one-half years in a commercial college immediately after receiving her vocational certificate. That experience is not shown in the table.

**TABLE V**

FORMAL EDUCATION OF SECRETARIES AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN A LOWER POSITION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Education</th>
<th>Average Number of Years of Experience</th>
<th>Number in Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocational school plus 1 semester at junior college</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school graduation</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial college course</td>
<td>4 1/2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 year at senior college</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 year at junior college</td>
<td>3 1/2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 years at junior college</td>
<td>3 1/2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 years at senior college</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree from senior college</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the experience of twelve women had been with their respective companies; fourteen had received their experience in other oil companies; four had had experience in fields unrelated to the oil industry. Three of the latter group had worked for a period of four years each with
their respective companies before they had been promoted to the position of secretary. One, who had been a secretary in an aircraft company for four years and who held a bachelor's degree, had learned the necessary terminology and procedures to become a secretary in the oil industry within eight months. The administrative secretary, who held a B.B.A. degree, had worked four months as a stenographer in the oil industry before she gained the title of secretary; she had worked another twelve years—with four different executives in the same company—before she had reached her present position.

Twenty of the secretaries were anxious to take the next step in the office to the position of executive secretary, and thirteen seemed to feel that they were ready for the promotion. Seven thought that they needed to gain more experience and perhaps take a few evening courses in college before they would be able to perform efficiently in a higher position. One senior stenographer thought that she would be given her title of secretary within six months. The remaining senior stenographers seemed to feel that they were being discriminated against because they did not have the title of secretary. One woman probably spoke for the group with this statement:

You want to know what I think? I have six years of experience, and I think I'm pretty good. I like the work and I'm getting a salary that I appreciate. But—I am not a secretary! I am just a highly paid stenographer without the prestige or the authority of a secretary; yet I do exactly the same work as every secretary in the company. I substitute for the secretary to the president so often that I could step into her position any day and, I think, do her work better than she does it herself.

I am loyal to my boss, and I can't think of anything derogatory to say about him. He is assistant to the vice-president, and he has the problems of the company on his back. But so do
And I think I ought to be given the authority to handle them and the pay that goes along with the job (16).

Only four secretaries were not anxious to move into higher positions. The administrative secretary did not want an executive position, which would be the next step forward from that of the administrative secretary. She made this explanatory statement:

The oil industry is a man's world, and I'm not particularly anxious to battle my way through it against a bunch of men who don't want me there in the first place and who do everything they can to keep me out. I love my job because I have such a nice boss, but let him do the battling! I'll help him all I can. I handle a lot of his problems for him now and love every minute of it. But let him run interference for me and let me be a secretary (8).

One secretary did not want a promotion because she thought that the after-hours' duties of an executive secretary would take away too much time from her home and family. Two others were satisfied with the secretarial positions and had no ambitions for a higher title and a better salary.

Several secretaries had changed positions since they had begun their careers. Some of the reasons for these changes were (1) dislike of employer, (2) moves to other cities, (3) marriage, and (4) better positions—better salaries, more prestige, better working conditions, and better chances for advancement.

A majority of the secretaries indicated that they did not think they had received much on-the-job instruction in the positions they held. Six women said that they had received "quite a bit of instruction," while twenty-two answered "very little" and two answered "none." All thirty secretaries were of the opinion that their experience in lower-level
positions—as typists, stenographers, or clerks—had given them an excellent background for the secretarial position.

Few secretaries with less education than a college degree seemed to believe that any high school or college course outside the business curriculum had helped them in their positions. Four mentioned mathematics, three mentioned English, and two mentioned psychology as courses that might have been helpful. Two secretaries from the commercial college regarded the charm course, in which one is taught how to dress properly and how to meet the public effectively, as being of value. The two secretaries who were college graduates named the general educational courses as a valuable background for secretarial work. They felt that the general educational background had been instrumental in reducing the time spent in a lower-level job before the secretarial position was reached.

Thirteen secretaries had returned to the junior college and taken two or three courses since they had attained the position of secretary in order to strengthen their typing and shorthand competencies. Two had taken government courses, and three had taken courses in economics because they were trying to satisfy the requirements for an associate degree from the junior college.

After students finish the secretarial study, whether from high school or junior college, they usually scan the newspapers as a first resource for finding a job, but seldom do they answer an advertisement inserted by a businessman; they usually study the advertisements of commercial employment agencies. They sometimes try to get a job by
walking into an office and asking for an interview with no knowledge of whether there is an opening for office work.

**TABLE VI**

RESOURCES OF SECRETARIES FOR SECURING POSITIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>No. of Times Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cold canvass</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment agencies</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kelly Girl assignment</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The employment agencies listed in Table VI include both the commercial employment agencies and the Texas Employment Agency. There were criticisms of both agencies. According to nine secretaries, the fees charged by the commercial agencies were too high. According to thirteen secretaries, the Texas Employment Agency does not try to find a preferred position for the applicant but expects her to take the first or second position for which she is interviewed. Two of the secretaries interviewed obtained their first positions through the Texas Employment Agency; seven obtained their first positions through commercial employment agencies.

It was the consensus that the cold canvass method is often the best method to use in getting the position one wants. If the applicant has the qualifications for a position and presents a pleasing personal appearance, she may get the position. If there is not a preferred
position available, she may be employed as a stenographer or a receptionist until a better position becomes available. She may take the lower position and work until she is qualified for the position she would like to have.

Each secretary interviewed had several receptionist duties to perform as a part of the regular work, although the secretary was assisted in the performance of those duties by the receptionist who usually sat at a desk near the outside door of the office suite. After visitors and telephone callers were greeted by the receptionist, they were directed to the secretary. The data in Table VII show the receptionist duties of the secretary.

**TABLE VII**

**RECEPTIONIST DUTIES OF THE SECRETARY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duties</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greets office visitors</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screens office calls</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handles caller problems</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answers telephone</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keeps record of telephone calls</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screens office visitors</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keeps records of visitors</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes appointments</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Places long-distance calls for executive</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Places local calls for executive</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes notes of executive's telephone calls</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Nineteen secretaries answered the telephone only when the executive was out of the office or when they had been given specific instructions to do so. All calls taken by the secretaries were screened to the extent that the name of the caller, the name of the company represented, and the reason for the call were obtained. Eleven secretaries handled many of the caller problems, and six secretaries handled caller problems only when they had been instructed to do so. Eleven secretaries kept tickler files of all calls taken; nineteen kept records of the callers only when the executive was absent from the office or was too busy to talk with anyone. At all other times, visitors were sent into the executive's office, with or without an appointment.

Nine secretaries were sometimes instructed to listen on an extension to the executive's telephone calls and make notes of the conversation. Three executives expected the secretary to place all of their telephone calls, both local and long distance, and to get the person to whom they wished to speak on the line before they picked up the receiver. Five executives expected the secretary to place only the long-distance calls. Three other executives occasionally asked the secretary to place a long-distance call. All thirty of the secretaries kept a list of the telephone numbers which were used often on both their own and the executive's desks. The secretaries were responsible for keeping the lists up to date.

All the secretaries were expected to open and edit the mail each morning. Three secretaries opened the executive's personal mail but did not take the letters out of the envelopes. All the secretaries routed
the mail to the proper persons, and all of them answered the routine mail on their own initiative. Sometimes, all thirty secretaries were expected to compose replies to other more important letters than the routine mail when they were instructed to do so by their employers.

The data in Table VIII indicate the secretarial duties related to the handling of mail.

**TABLE VIII**

**DUTIES OF THE SECRETARIES IN HANDLING THE MAIL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duties</th>
<th>No. of Times Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opens and edits the mail</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sorts and routes the mail</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answers routine mail</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answers any letter if instructed to do so</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signs letters with her own name</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are two methods used in writing the signatures on letters composed by the secretaries. One of these two methods is used when answering routine mail or when composing and typing more important letters.

1. Ten secretaries signed the letters with their own names:

   Very truly yours
   
   Mrs. Ellen Downes
   Secretary to R. H. Brown

2. Twenty secretaries signed the letters with the name and title of the executive for whom the letters were written with the
secretary's initials at the right edge of the penwritten name of the executive:

Very truly yours

R. H. Brown
Operations Manager

The secretary performs several chores related to out-of-town travel by the executive. The data in Table IX indicate the duties of the secretary in handling these chores:

**TABLE IX**

**DUTIES OF THE SECRETARY RELATED TO EMPLOYER TRAVEL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duties</th>
<th>No. of Times Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Makes hotel reservations</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selects hotel for executive</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes transportation reservations</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes out-of-town appointments for executive</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acts as office manager in executive's absence</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepares executive's brief case for travel</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepares travel itinerary</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the secretaries normally made hotel reservations for the executive in the cities in which he traveled, while only four secretaries selected the hotels in which he stayed if such selection should be necessary. It was the responsibility of twenty-five secretaries to make the transportation reservations for the journey, and fifteen wrote letters
or made telephone calls that were needed to make or confirm business appointments which the executive desired while he was out of town. Ten secretaries prepared the executive's brief case for an out-of-town trip or checked it to make certain that no important business documents or files that might be needed were left in the office. The last paper packed in the brief case was the executive's itinerary for the trip, a carbon copy of which the secretary kept so that she could know where her employer was if an emergency arose in the office that demanded his immediate attention.

Twelve secretaries acted as office managers while the executives were out of the office. Eighteen executives preferred to ask another department executive to take charge of the office while they were gone. Regardless of who acted as office manager during the executive's absence, all the secretaries did their own independent planning in the office or followed the instructions given by the employer before he left town. If another executive had been left in charge of the office, he was asked for instructions only in emergencies.

Twenty-nine executives demanded a speed of at least 80 words per minute in shorthand, but a majority of the secretaries reported that they were capable of higher speeds. Only nine girls said that they had a speed of 80 words per minute, the required minimum. Fourteen girls reported speeds of 100 to 120 words per minute, and six others reported speeds of 120 to 140 words per minute.

All the secretaries felt that their transcription speed was adequate and that they seldom made an error in the typing of verbatim notes. Four
girls whose claim to speed was only 80 words per minute indicated that their speed was not high enough to do their work efficiently, and all four of them planned to return to evening school to take an advanced dictation-transcription course in order to improve their shorthand efficiency. Three others expressed the desire for a higher speed that they might hold in reserve. The typing speeds ranged from 65 to 85 words per minute on straight copy, and everyone thought that her typing speed was adequate for the position. Only six girls believed that they could work efficiently with a lower speed in shorthand, and no one felt that she could do acceptable work with less speed in typing.

Eighteen secretaries were of the opinion that their employers preferred to give dictation directly, while eleven believed that their employers had no particular preference. Only one executive never dictated directly but always used the IBM Executary for the dictation of his correspondence. All the offices used either the IBM Executary or tapes as the voice-writing equipment. Twenty-six of the companies taped the minutes of their business meetings, and eighteen sent the tapes to the stenographers to be typed. Eight secretaries typed the tapes regularly, and two others typed the tapes only if the material was of a confidential nature. Four secretaries took the minutes of all meetings, verbatim, in shorthand.

There was a heavy typing load in all the offices, and three secretaries had had only one year of typing, either in the high school or in the vocational school. All three of them were among the twenty-three secretaries who believed that their speed and typing knowledge was
inadequate when they had reached their present positions. Several secretaries whose duties included the daily typing of multiple-page tables composed almost entirely of numbers thought that they were spending too much time on that chore. They were of the opinion that, if they had had more proficient instruction in the typing courses, they would have known how to organize their materials more efficiently and could have saved time in the office.

The data in Table X show the essential knowledges and abilities which, according to the secretaries, should be emphasized in the typing courses taught in the educational institutions but which are often bypassed for practice in speed.

**TABLE X**

**ABILITIES THAT SHOULD BE TAUGHT IN TYPING ACCORDING TO THE SECRETARIES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abilities</th>
<th>No. of Times Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Numbers</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple-page tables</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization of materials to be typed</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reports</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Displays</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centering and tabulation</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Placement of typed material on page</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charts</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budgets</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typewriter parts and their uses</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Speed did not seem to be a problem; 65 to 70 words per minute was believed to be a sufficient speed if typing theory had been thoroughly learned and practiced. The secretaries were of the opinion that they had the speed but not the necessary abilities and theories to perform their typing duties efficiently. Several typical comments by the secretaries attest to this belief:

My typing courses did not put enough emphasis on technical work. Too much emphasis was put on speed at the price of practical application (9).

I had only two semesters of typing in school and got up to 70 words a minute--enough to get a job. But I know nothing about mechanics. In this job, I have a lot of complicated tables to set up, and after nine years of experience, I'm still learning--the hard way! I am fast, but accuracy I don't have (10).

Numbers! Tabulations! Placement of letters, tables, reports! These are the things that should be taught. Speed isn't important; speed comes with practice. Accuracy is what counts (11).

I type 85 words a minute on straight copy with very few errors, but I still have to set up tables--or place anything else on the page--by guessing. How can I train these new girls how to do something when I can't do it myself (12).

I still have to hunt and peck numbers. I proofread every number report I make three times, and I still find errors (13).

All thirty secretaries had learned some typing competencies while they were working in lower-level positions; but they had retained many of their original weaknesses, which they believed should have been corrected in the typing courses they had taken in school.

All thirty secretaries kept the records of the employers' expense accounts, and a few secretaries had some other financial duties; but the
oil secretary had few financial duties. The data in Table XI show what those duties were:

TABLE XI

FINANCIAL DUTIES OF THE SECRETARY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duties</th>
<th>No. of Times Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Keeps executive's expense account</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps to make the office budget</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keeps time records of office employees</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keeps the account of the office budget</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writes payroll checks for office employees</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes the office budget</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sets up salary schedule for office personnel</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most of the financial duties were performed by the accounting department or by the home office. A working knowledge of payroll accounting was required for eight secretaries.

Each secretary was responsible for keeping the files in her own office. The data in Table XII show the types of files used:

TABLE XII

TYPES OF FILING SYSTEMS USED IN THE OFFICE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of File</th>
<th>No. of Times Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alphabetic</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uren</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alphabetic-numeric</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alphabetic-subject</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alphabetic-numeric-subject</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
All the filing systems seemed to be of a simple kind. The Uren file is a numeric decimal system that was especially devised along the lines of the Dewey Decimal System for use in the oil company office. Its outstanding feature is the ease with which it can be expanded. The remaining filing systems were either alphabetic files or a variation of the alphabetic system.

Only two secretaries had selected and organized their own filing systems, but all of them had expanded and revised their files whenever they had felt it advisable to do so. Five secretaries allowed no one except the executive access to the files. The other twenty-five secretaries checked out any file to anyone in the department who needed it, although one secretary said that she was the sole judge as to whether a file was needed by anyone except her employer.

The fifteen secretaries who had had a filing course in high school or college felt that it had helped them immensely in working with their own files. Of the fifteen who had never had a course in filing, thirteen expressed the wish that they had had one, because they believed that it might have helped to make their work in the office easier. Only two had never felt a need for a filing course.

Few office machines besides the typewriter were found in any office. Most of the typewriters were Royal or IBM standard electric typewriters, but six were the IBM Selectrics, three of which had only the twelve-inch carriage.

The data in Table XIII indicate the kinds of office machines used by the secretaries.
### TABLE XIII

**OFFICE MACHINES USED BY THE SECRETARY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Machine</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Typewriters:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard electric typewriters</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBM Selectric typewriters</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typewriter with thirty-two-inch carriage</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magnetic typewriter</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Adding machines:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ten-key adders</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full-key adders</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Duplicating machines:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xeroxes</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photocopiers</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was a second typewriter in only two offices. One was a manual typewriter which had a thirty-two-inch carriage and was used to make special reports. The other was a magnetic tape, which was seldom used. An adding machine was found in each office, but it was seldom used except when the budget was made. Each secretary had access to a Xerox; and, in addition, two secretaries used photocopiers to duplicate material when only a few copies were needed.

Twenty-eight secretaries had some supervision of other office workers, but their supervisory duties were not normally delegated by the executive; and, as a consequence, these duties often were not sharply or clearly defined. The data in Table XIV indicate the supervisory duties that appeared to be expected of the secretary by the executive:
TABLE XIV
SUPervisory Duties of the Secretary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supervisory Duties</th>
<th>No. of Times Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acts as intermediary between executive and office staff</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directs substitute workers</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gives instructions to receptionist</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes office assignments</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assists office personnel in their work</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes sure that office work is done on time</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaches (or helps to teach) new employees</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proofreads work of office personnel when necessary</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checks salesmen's reports</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only two secretaries had no supervisory duties, and only four had had those duties definitely defined and delegated by the executive. One secretary mentioned that, although she had never been officially given any supervisory duties, she was held responsible for everything that was done in the office.

It seems that I am constantly supervising everybody in the office. Supervision, as such, has not been delegated as my job officially, but it seems to be expected; and I am held responsible for it by the administration. My boss gives me the dickens when something goes wrong, and usually I am not responsible (14).

Nine secretaries occasionally represented their employers at company meetings and conferences, and one represented her employer when an emergency arose. Eight of these secretaries claimed no
particular authority when they acted in this capacity; their principal duties were to follow instructions given by the executives and to make notes of the proceedings for a full report. Eight other secretaries frequently accompanied their employers to meetings and conferences for the purpose of taking notes. Two secretaries regularly attended company meetings and were given the authority to take part in the discussions and to make decisions when, in their opinions, it was believed advisable to do so. Both secretaries mentioned that they were careful not to overstep the authority given them by their employers.

Few of the secretaries did much overtime work regularly. Eight reported that they occasionally worked an extra hour or two—sometimes for an entire evening—after the office was closed in the afternoon; they were compensated by being allowed to leave the office for a few hours during a day when the work load was not heavy. Four secretaries said that they worked overtime quite often and were compensated by being paid time-and-a-half salary. One secretary reported that she was paid double time for working after five-thirty in the afternoon, but only in emergencies did her employer ask her to work after the office had closed for the day.

Most of the secretaries thought that they were qualified to do the work demanded of them, but a majority of them mentioned a few weaknesses that they would like to strengthen. A lack of knowledge of typing principles appeared to be the weakest point of twenty-three secretaries. Learning the shorthand symbols for oil-field terms seemed
to be another weak point. The data in Table XV present a list of weaknesses that the secretaries would like to strengthen.

**TABLE XV**

**AREAS IN WHICH SECRETARIES WOULD LIKE TO BE BETTER PREPARED**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
<th>No. of Times Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The application of typing principles</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of oil-field terms</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing oil-field terms in shorthand</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational background</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of telephone</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shorthand speed</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human relations</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was a consensus among the secretaries that their experiences in an office—including those in lower-level jobs—had aided them in overcoming many of their original weaknesses; they seemed to believe, also, that a longer period in school before beginning work would have shortened the experience period in lower-level office jobs and would have helped them to reach the goal of secretaryship more quickly. Seventeen secretaries complained that writing oil-field terms in shorthand was difficult and slow and observed that at least one stenographic course in the junior college should be geared to meet the needs of the oil industry.
Today, more emphasis is put on the value of the desirable personal traits of the secretary than there was fifty years ago. The majority of the secretaries interviewed believed that a woman must have many of the desirable traits if she expects to be successful in the office. The data in Table XVI show the personal traits that secretaries value most highly in their work:

**TABLE XVI**

**PERSONAL TRAITS VALUED BY SECRETARIES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traits</th>
<th>No. of Times Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Willingness to work</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to get along with people</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teamwork</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport with executive</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrity</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common sense and judgment</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tact</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-operation</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resourcefulness</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Even disposition</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maturity</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The secretaries seemed to disagree with the executives on the value of maturity of a secretary. While all the executives placed maturity near the top of the list of valuable secretarial traits, only six secretaries mentioned maturity as being of any value. Both the executives and the secretaries placed a willingness to work first in the list of desirable traits of the secretary. When asked why loyalty was seldom mentioned in the list, one secretary replied, "Loyalty? Oh, that's taken for granted. You have to keep your mouth shut--and like your boss, more or less--if you stay on the job (11)."

Twenty-nine secretaries liked their work and did not want to change positions unless they could get promotions within their respective companies. Many benefits other than salary accrued to their positions. The data in Table XVII list these benefits:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>No. of Times Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health and accident insurance</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual bonus</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time off occasionally during office hours</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life insurance</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savings plan</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Split vacations</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Privilege of buying company stock</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal advice when needed</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Two secretaries said that they could not take any time off from the normal office hours, unless they were ill, without being penalized by making up the lost time after office hours or by paying for it out of the next pay check. Seven companies emphasized that bonuses were given at the end of the year only if the annual profits had been high enough to justify the expenditure, but each of the thirty secretaries interviewed had always been given a bonus of at least $50 at Christmas. The largest bonus given to any secretary was the equivalent of a month's salary.

There were several plans by which companies give salary increases. The data in Table XVIII show these plans:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plans</th>
<th>No. of Times Mentioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Merit plan</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual review of employee's work</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semiannual review of employee's work</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive's discretion</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Automatic cost-of-living increase</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first four plans were based on the quality of work done; the last one was based on the value of the dollar. All the secretaries had had at least one annual salary increase during the period they had worked for their respective companies; six had always received semi-annual increases.
Although all thirty secretaries liked their jobs and the executives for whom they worked, twenty-four disliked the periodic pressure found in all offices. According to one lady, "I sit around for hours doing nothing--bored to death. And then, all at once, everything happens. Pressure! I can't take it!" (14). Several others welcomed working under pressure: "Pressure? I love it! I do my best work under pressure! It's the routine that I hate" (10). One secretary mentioned a moody executive--not knowing what to expect of him--as her special dislike. Three mentioned fear of the executive's temper as the unpleasant aspect of their positions.

All thirty secretaries interviewed were of the opinion that the sense of accomplishment--of doing a job and doing it well--and the realization that the executives appreciated their efforts was the greatest reward of the secretarial position.
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4. Interview with an oil company vice-president, Midland, Texas, June 24, 1970.

5. Interview with an oil company vice-president, Midland, Texas, September 15, 1970.

6. Interview with an oil company division production manager, Odessa, Texas, May 14, 1970.

7. Interview with an oil company division production manager, Lubbock, Texas, June 17, 1970.


10. Interview with an oil company secretary, Odessa, Texas, May 14, 1970.

11. Interview with an oil company secretary, Odessa, Texas, June 2, 1970.

12. Interview with an oil company secretary, Lubbock, Texas, June 17, 1970.

13. Interview with an oil company secretary, Lubbock, Texas, June 17, 1970.

15. Interview with an oil company senior stenographer, Odessa, Texas, June 23, 1970.

16. Interview with an oil company senior stenographer, Midland, Texas, September 8, 1970.
CHAPTER IV

A COMPARISON AND CONTRAST OF THE TRADITIONAL
AND MODERN CONCEPTS OF SECRETARYSHIP

Since approximately 95 percent of the secretaries in the United States in 1971 are female, for the sake of convenience and clarity, reference to the secretary in the last three chapters of this study will be signified as the female. Until 1881, all secretaries were male, but today there are some 112,250 males occupying the secretarial field with some 2,137,750 females.

While the earliest concept of secretaryship and the modern concept are similar in many respects, there are also several outstanding differences between the two. As the culture has changed and progressed, so have the customs, habits, and mores of the people advanced. As the methods of maintaining business have been modified, so has the office of the secretary been changed to meet the increasing demands of business.

Since the first scribes made their appearance in Assyria in the eighteenth century B.C., the businessman has recognized the importance of having someone in the office to perform routine chores. Gradually, other chores than copying, composing letters for the master, and writing from dictation have been added to the work of the business secretary until today the secretary is practically indispensable to the business office. As early as 1932, Taintor wrote, "The secretary has an assured
place in modern business and professional life. The position is no longer an experiment. It is of increasing importance and growing responsibility" (13, p. 3).

Secretaryship Conceptualized According to Positions and Titles

The word scribe originally meant a person who wrote letters and copied manuscripts and documents in longhand before the invention of the printed word. That the scribes were the forerunners of the modern secretary may be seen from Webster's definition: "One who writes at dictation" (15). Webster further defines the scribe as "an official or public writer acting usually as a clerk or keeper of accounts." The latter definition is more in accord with the modern concept of the clerk, although Popham's definition of a clerk is somewhat broader, "People who process papers in offices or handle related activities are classed as clerical workers" (7, p. 21).

As the scribes proved their value to business and came to be in demand, they were known by several other names. By 1200 B.C., they were still called scribes, but a distinction in the name was beginning to be made on the basis of the kind of work one did.

1. The copyist did nothing but copy that which was demanded of him.

2. The copyist-scribe, in addition to copying that which was demanded of him, also composed letters and business documents for those who could not, or did not want to, write.

By the time the title amanuensis came into existence, approximately the middle of the first century B.C., shorthand had been invented and was commonly used in the office. The duties of the amanuensis
more nearly paralleled those of the modern business secretary than did the duties of the scribes. The amanuensis was employed to write from shorthand dictation or to copy that which another had written.

Clerk was another title that was given to the office worker in the second or third century. Sometimes the clerk, too, took dictation and performed certain other duties of the secretary, such as keeping the records of the business and occasionally acting as the representative of the master-employer. The clerk still has a role in business in 1971, but in the nineteenth century the duties of the clerk were somewhat different from those of the modern secretary. According to Webster, originally a clerk (in the second century) was "a person who could read and write" (15). A modern definition of a clerk is "one employed to keep records of accounts or to perform less routine office tasks" (15).

When shorthand was invented in 63 B.C., the concept of secretaryship began to take definite form. Many scribes were quick to learn the fast method of writing notes; and from that time onward, the scribes who could write shorthand were in demand in the office. As freedmen, or more likely as middle-class younger sons, they could exploit their knowledge and take a definite role in business affairs. Even though transcription was in longhand, the scribe (or the amanuensis as he was beginning to be called at that time) who could write shorthand saved much time for the master-employer; and the businessman was beginning to recognize the fact.
The knowledge of shorthand gave an impetus to the trend that led to the position of the modern secretary. The amanuensis who could write shorthand had a greater competency and thus was of more value than the copyist-scribe who could only read and write; and in the embryo stage of the profession, the secretary who could assist the employer in solving executive problems was more of an asset than the one who could only write shorthand and transcribe his notes. This would seem to be equally true currently.

By the end of the nineteenth century, the increased competencies of female employees had given new dimensions to the concept of secretaryship. These new dimensions provided for an employee who had risen from the position of typist, or from a clerk in the office, to the position of secretary many new opportunities and, therefore, many new titles, which could be created for the position in the secretarial field. During the early part of the twentieth century, the more efficient secretaries were given the title of private or personal secretary. In the past four or five decades, other titles have been added: executive secretary, executive aide, administrative secretary, and administrative assistant. Such titles are given only to high-level secretaries who have positions in the offices of the administrators in the highest echelons of the larger companies. "Status titles for secretaries always help the businessman as well as the secretary" (9, p. 46).
Secretaryship Conceptualized According to the Male and the Female

For some 3,700 years the scribes and copyists—and later when the name had been changed to secretary—were male. From the time that the first slaves performed the seventeenth century B.C. tasks of their Assyrian masters till the latter half of the nineteenth century, all the scribes, etc., were male. The males apparently performed their assigned tasks well, but they did not do more than they were assigned (3). The masters appeared to be satisfied with the work of the male secretaries; the males seemed to be happy in their work, but they appeared to have no imagination whereby they could improve the lot of either themselves or their employer-masters. They were satisfied, apparently, to earn just enough salary to marry, to rear a family, and to be reasonably free. Occasionally, they performed some duties that the females could not perform then and cannot perform today. The males could travel with their employers to places that no female could go; they could deal with some people with whom the modern female is still not expected to come in contact (1, 10, 13). Many of them knew the intricacies of shorthand, but many still transcribed in longhand. In short, they seemed to believe that the secretarial field was, exclusively, the province of the male; it appeared that no female could ever enter the field of business, much less displace the male in his position as secretary.

When in 1881 the typewriter had been improved to the extent that one could type twice as fast as one could write in longhand, the majority of the male secretaries refused to change their methods of performing
their work. The majority of the male secretaries as well as executives seemed to believe that the female would not enter the business world; and few males, secretaries or executives, believed that the typewriter would become standard office equipment. Many females were quick to take advantage of the situation. Males were earning more money than were females; however, many females desired to find employment outside the factory. Work in the factory demanded more of women than they were able to give physically, and most females were searching for an easier and more pleasant way to earn a living.

When the YWCA in New York in 1881 offered the first course in typing, eight females registered. Although males were not discouraged, no male responded to the offering of the course. Not only were the eight female graduates of the six-month typing course placed in typing positions in business offices, but also the YWCA received hundreds of requests from executives who had not been so fortunate as to hire one of the female typists—or "typewriters" as the female typists were facetiously called at that time (2, p. 72).

When the females took their position in the business office, many male secretaries refused to compete with the women and looked elsewhere for work. Today, the concept of secretary resolves around a woman sitting in the office doing the routine chores, acting as a buffer between the employer and the public, and solving some of the minor executive problems.

There are still a certain number of male secretaries employed. According to the United States Department of Labor, of approximately
2,250,000 secretaries in business offices today, less than 5 percent are males (14, p. 286). A few males appear to prefer secretarial work and choose that field as a career. It may be that most males use the position as a first step toward a junior executive position. "The secretarial desk for a man is an excellent training post for an executive position in his own company," say Beamer, Popham and Hanna (1, p. 38). Very few males seem to view the secretarial position as a career when they can command greater incomes in positions more compatible with their competencies and goals. A number of women go into the field with the intention of a career, although there are other females who use the position as a first step toward an executive position. There are those females, too, who take a secretarial position temporarily in order to finance some other project.

Perhaps women were willing to accept too low salaries when they began working in the business field, but a lower salary and less prestige than the men were their only forte in the 1880's. The fact that their qualifications were normally better than those of men was totally unrecognized until a few years later (2, 13). Women had to prove their merits before they could be wholeheartedly accepted.

Secretaryship Conceptualized According to Duties

When shorthand was invented, it became so popular that it was added to the curriculum of the Roman schools in the first and second centuries (11, p. 448). Even kings and noblemen were interested in adding the ability to write shorthand to the repertoire of their
achievements so that they could excel the accomplishments of the sycophants who dallied in the royal household hoping to gain favored places. When the King became interested in adding shorthand to the list of his many accomplishments, shorthand indeed became popular with the masses.

The duties of the secretaries in the Middle Ages appear to be far more varied than the duties of the business secretary of today. Even Tiro combined the duties of the business and social secretary with those of the valet. Because Tiro was first a slave and grateful for his elevation to the freedman, he was forever loyal to this master's interests; to the end of his life, Tiro served Cicero loyally and faithfully. Thus, Tiro added another dimension to the character of the secretary—loyalty to the employer's interests. Five centuries later, many secretaries were taking charge of the households of their feudal lords and issuing orders to the other slaves just as Tiro had done for Cicero (10, p. 3).

When the United States became a nation in 1776 and began to expand its business activities, the male quickly found his role in the office (2). He took shorthand notes, tended to the correspondence, kept the business records, met the public, and generally acted as a buffer between his employer and anyone whom the executive did not wish to meet. The secretaries had made themselves indispensable in the business office by that time. Gradually, the work and responsibilities of the office had expanded; the responsibilities of the secretary had multiplied with the increased responsibilities assumed by the
businessman, and the secretary had been able to meet the demands of his office.

When the female was accepted in business, she recognized that, in order to compete with the male, she must be better qualified than he was; she began to seek ways by which she could raise the standards of the secretarial position. She began to innovate; she began to try to find ways by which she could assist the executive and, at the same time, make her own work more efficient.

First, the female worked for lower wages than did the male. The female's maximum salary in the office was approximately $20 per week in the 1880's, whereas the male's salary was approximately $30; the same hours of work and the same responsibilities were expected from each of them. In some instances, even more work was expected from the female. Secondly, the female was usually better prepared for the position of secretary than was the male. She could type. Thirdly, in many instances, the female was more amenable to the suggestions made by the executive as to the performance of office chores than was the male. The female seemed to know that, because of the newness of her role in business, her position was tentative; therefore, she was often willing to serve the executive by performing the office chores exactly as he wished them done. A majority of the females studied the employer and anticipated his wishes. Taintor says, "Men find them (females) more adaptable, quicker in intuition and in anticipation of their wants, more suited by nature and practice to the service of another and to unselfish devotion" (13, p. 101). Fourthly, in many instances, the
female was innovative in her work. She seemed to work to find more efficient ways to do the work she was expected to do. Maule says of the secretary:

There is no safe haven at the top to be held without effort—by men or by women. As a woman, you will be under the necessity of putting forth more effort to hold your place than would be required of any man. Day by day, you will be obliged to prove by your superior performance on the job that you are as good as, or better than, any one of the men available. You will never be able to sled along on the record of your past performances. Each performance must be an improvement on all those that have gone before. You will need to keep adding to your knowledge, perfecting your techniques, extending your contacts, broadening your outlook both on the job and on life (5, p. 177).

The female seemed to work to find more efficient ways to do the work she was expected to do. Thus, the woman came to dominate the secretarial field by innovation and sheer perseverance.

From the time that the female was accepted in the business office, she has usually met the challenge of the business world. The first female secretary did little more than write shorthand and transcribe her notes on the typewriter. By 1890, some of the females were working with a cumbersome dictating machine—battery-driven (2, p. 109). In 1904 the stenographers and typists organized under the aegis of the AF of L to assure the protection of their rights: No lady should be expected to do more in the office than to take dictation and transcribe her notes (2, p. 76). Immediately, a majority of the females contradicted themselves and voluntarily did anything in the office that they thought would assist the employer in his work.

The duties of the modern secretary are innumerable. Dictation and transcription, one must know before she can obtain the secretarial
position. The aspirant to the position, also, normally goes through a period of instruction on the job before the title of secretary is given. This period of instruction may last from one to three or four years. The modern secretary should be able to meet the public easily and graciously, and she should be able to handle many executive problems. She may act for the executive on many occasions, and always she should represent the company for which she works.

The modern secretary does not often operate the electronic data processing machines; she does not often use such office machines as the adder, the calculator, or the accounting machine. She seldom uses the Xerox. She should know how to operate all the machines in her office, however, for she is usually responsible for teaching their operation to new employees. She should understand the uses of all the office machines in order to be able to check everything that goes through the office. She should understand the language of data processing in order to know what is happening in the office and in the company.

The more experience a secretary has, the higher she may rise in her work, both in salary and in prestige. The top-level secretary—an administrative assistant or aide to an executive in the upper level of business—has proved that she can handle administrative problems; accordingly, she is normally assigned much of the confidential work of the company and often handles many administrative problems.

The executive secretary seldom takes shorthand notes except those of a confidential nature. She may have her own corps of stenographers to take her notes and to handle lesser office jobs. The secretary
may compose her own letters; for this task, she should have a command of the English language and she should be able to handle competently the details of spelling, grammar, punctuation, and vocabulary. She should be familiar with composition, tone, and clarity. She should know the terms used in her business. She should be able to meet the public and handle many complaints and problems for the executive. She should be able to listen to the executive's problems and give opinions and/or advice when asked (5, p. 16).

The secretary should be alert to the mistakes of other office personnel. She normally plans the work of the office and knows that everyone on the office staff performs the work efficiently. The secretary usually works closely with the executive and knows the details of the business so well that she can often anticipate decisions. Often, the secretary may make decisions on her own initiative; in any case, she should be able to discuss office or company problems and give opinions when asked (3, 13).

For these reasons the secretarial position is often an experiential situation for an executive position. The high-level secretary, more often than not, knows as much about the confidential work of the company as the executive knows. She is in a position to learn from experience how to solve many company problems. The male secretary is usually promoted to the position of junior executive. The female is more often given a substantial increase in salary and an impressive title, such as executive secretary or administrative assistant.
Secretaryship Conceptualized According to the Education of the Secretary

The early predecessors of the secretaries were slaves and normally educated to the extent that they could read and write. Judged by modern standards, the education of most of them was very low, though many were intelligent and the majority were seeking to find something that would help them into a higher social order.

Such little education as the scribes had was apparently approved for some 1,700 years, until shorthand was invented in 63 B.C. In fact, the reading and writing that was demanded of the first scribes was almost as much education as was demanded of the first secretaries in the business world of the fledgling nation of the United States in the late eighteenth century (2, 8, 13), though most secretaries had gone a step further by that time and had learned shorthand. By the middle of the nineteenth century, however, a majority of the secretaries had had some business instruction in a commercial college. Most of them could take shorthand and knew the rudiments of the English language.

When the females entered the business world in the latter part of the nineteenth century, most of them demonstrated a willingness to learn and to innovate. Business began to expand, and the businessman began to demand more work from the office staff. The females met the challenge, and by 1900 a majority of them had made themselves so valuable in the office that they were hardly recognizable as the typists who had worked so laboriously to earn the position in the 1880's.

When the female entered the business world, she probably had less education than the average male; most females could do little more
than read and write and type. All of them had to take a business course in order to learn to type before they could obtain jobs. Often, the female learned shorthand, for she was usually ambitious to reach the position of secretary. Oftentimes, the business course included a three- or four-month study of business English. Those three courses—typing, shorthand, and business English—more often than not completed her education.

In the early twentieth century, businessmen began to demand more of their secretaries than the commercial colleges were teaching—a knowledge of business machines that were rapidly being introduced in the business office; a superficial knowledge of law (contracts, deeds, the work of the notary public); some knowledge of the economics of business; and perhaps some knowledge of business and the problems and demands of the executive (16).

No longer are the only requirements of the business secretary the abilities to read and write, to take shorthand, and to operate a typewriter. Today, the secretary should have at least a high school diploma; she must have had at least a year’s education in typing and shorthand (50 to 60 words per minute in typing and 80 to 100 words per minute in shorthand). The secretary should be a personable male or female who can meet the public in a gracious manner; and he or she must be willing to take and carry out directions intelligently. Educational standards have been raised since the days of the first secretary.
Secretaryship Conceptualized According to Office and Social Prestige

From the beginning of the time that the concept of secretaryship was slowly taking shape, the position of the secretary has normally been held in high regard. Because of their qualifications and their monetary value to their masters, the slave scribes were in the highest positions in the offices from the eighteenth century B.C. until the title of secretary was given to them in the fourth and fifth centuries. The early secretaries in the Middle Ages instructed and directed the other office personnel and were usually held responsible for everything that happened in the office. The medieval secretary in a feudal household supervised other slaves (13, p. 97). The secretary has always been in a position to gain the confidence of the executive; hence, he or she has normally been the one who has directed the other office personnel and who has acted as the intermediary between the office and the executive as well as between the executive and the public.

Ever since the concept of secretaryship began to take a definite form in the fourth and fifth centuries, there has been a hierarchy in the secretarial field just as there is in every other field of work. In the Middle Ages one could usually rise higher in the secretarial field if he happened to be born at the upper end of the social scale. One can usually rise higher today if he or she has the personal qualities that enable him to like people and to work with them fairly and graciously and that enable him to work willingly and to study diligently in order to learn what is demanded of a secretary.
The prestige of the secretary may be seen and heard as the businessman talks about "my secretary." The secretary of the small businessman is seldom more than a general office girl who performs all the tasks required in the office, such as answering the telephone and possibly keeping a simple set of accounts. She can always type, and she can often take dictation. Even though she performs few secretarial chores other than meeting the public and writing letters, she is usually called a secretary. The secretary of middle management is usually a beginning secretary with a knowledge of shorthand and typing and the ability to write a mailable letter and operate the office machines; she (usually a female) has been educated to the extent that she may be ready to do secretarial work after a year or two of experience. In time, if she is ambitious and willing to work toward the goal, she may become an executive secretary.

Although less than 5 percent of all the secretaries in the United States today are males (14, p. 286), some males have a professional interest in the field. Few, however, are interested in the position of secretary as a career; consequently, men are normally more demanding of the lesser office personnel than is the female who expects to work in the office all her life and seems to believe that she has to cope with the office situation as she finds it or find more efficient methods of doing the work.

The secretary, whether one is male or female, usually works more closely with the executive than does anyone else in the office; and she or he, by virtue of having the employer's confidence (whether actual or
merely implied), has more prestige than anyone else in the business office. Receptionists, clerks, typists, PBX operators, stenographers—all normally defer to the wishes and demands of the secretary. The higher the secretary goes in the hierarchy of the secretarial field, the more power and prestige he or she may have. The male secretary often has more prestige in the office today than does the female, partly, perhaps, because of tradition.

Socially, the secretary usually has more prestige than anyone else in the office. Between the first scribe and the master, there was only a slave-master relationship. The slave scribe was more valuable than other slaves, but he could not hope to rise to the higher social level of the master. Even though the slave had a chance of becoming a freedman, he could never hope to rise any higher. In the Middle Ages, when the younger sons of the upper and middle classes entered the secretarial field, many secretaries were on an equal social level with their employers; some few may have been in a higher social bracket than their employers. Secretaries during that period were normally accepted as a peer of the employer’s social group.

Today the secretary may come from any social or economic group; the requirements of a secretary do not preclude any social level. As a secretary, one is usually in a position to meet and converse with people from many different social brackets, and the secretary may choose the group in which she is interested socially. She is not dependent on the employer for her social prestige, although the secretary to an executive in upper management may have a better opportunity to meet people in the
upper social brackets than has the secretary to an executive in middle management. The modern secretary is free to choose her own social level, and the modern business office gives her the opportunity to meet different types of people from whom to choose her personal friends.

Secretaryship Conceptualized According to Opportunities for Promotion

There are many opportunities for promotion for the efficient secretary. The beginning secretary may be promoted to a higher position with a higher title and an increased salary. The executive secretary may be promoted to an executive position in his or her own company or, as Maule says, "into any other position desired" (5, p. 121). The male secretary usually is promoted into a junior executive position (1, 16). Women, it seems, are usually content to climb more slowly to reach their aspirations. Women often make the secretarial position a career.

Fortunately, the female seems to know that the secretarial field is her forte. No male, seemingly, can keep her out of the business world as he did before 1881, and she has proved that she can hold her position as a secretary (13, p. 101). Secondly, the female is not normally content to depend on her record of past achievements as was the male before the invention of the typewriter. Most females have worked and innovated since they entered the secretarial field (2, 3, 13). Currently, they seem to be doing the same thing to hold their position.

Women may serve their apprenticeship as a secretary and then go to an executive's position if they wish (5, 6); but to attain an executive's position, they normally have to spend more time as a secretary than the
man does to attain the same promotion. Normally, the female strives to make the position of secretary more important to the executive and often likes her work so well that she does not want to enter management.

Today, the female enters the field as an apprentice at a salary of approximately $80 a week (14, p. 283). After an apprenticeship of one to three or four years—depending on the educational background, personal ambitions, and willingness to work and learn on the job—she is usually promoted to the position of secretary with a substantial increase in salary and a satisfying rise in prestige. From the time she becomes a secretary at the lowest level, promotions depend on her own abilities and aspirations. In time, she may be able to rise to the position of administrative secretary with a salary, perhaps, of $15,000 a year.

Perhaps the female, like the male, does not wish to remain in the secretarial field any longer than is necessary to get the experience she needs to go into another field of work. She does not have to, according to Maule:

I could cite case history after case history of women now occupying high executive posts in practically any occupation you might mention (including such coveted fields as merchandising, advertising, magazine work, public relations, television, and radio) which would yield compelling evidence that secretarial experience can lead . . . to a post on the executive level in almost any type of work.

Secretarial work is, therefore, as good a way as ever to make your approach to a top-level job—and this is true of practically any field you may choose. Obviously, there is no better way to look, listen, and learn. Often a secretary who has demonstrated her capacity for assuming responsibility and going ahead on her own gets a chance to try her hand at important parts of her chief's work. Many vocational counselors, employment agents, and personnel directors still advise ambitious
girls determined to forge ahead to an executive job to take this well-traveled and generally reliable road (5, pp. 18-19).

The more education one has, the more highly developed innate personal characteristics one possesses, the more ambitious one happens to be, the farther he or she can go in the secretarial field. According to several authors, there is no doubt that the secretary has always held the highest position in the office (1, 5, 6, 8). Whether male or female, the secretary has always done the confidential work of the executive and has been in the position to learn the economics and ramifications of business. Armed with such knowledge, there is nowhere in the business world that the well-informed secretary cannot go (6).

Summary of Secretaryship Conceptualizations

According to Positions and Titles

The forerunner of the secretary was the scribe who did his work so well in the eighteenth century B.C. that he made himself indispensable to his master and, later, to his employer in the business world, the merchant. By the middle of the first century, the scribe had been called the copyist and the copyist-scribe. When shorthand was added to the duties of the scribe, the name was changed to that of amanuensis. In the second century, the men who did office work were called clerks; some clerks could write shorthand and some could not. The title of personal or private secretary was first given to the female in the 1880's because she did much of the private or confidential work of the executive. In the last four or five decades, as more duties have been added to the work of the secretary, other titles have been added: executive
secretary, executive aide, administrative secretary, and administrative assistant. Secretary seems to be the common name given to the office assistant of the executive in both the traditional and the modern concepts of secretaryship.

According to the Male and the Female

Until 1881, the secretary was a male. Before that time, if the woman had to work, her principal recourse was the factory. When she was offered the opportunity to enter the business world if she would learn to type, many females accepted the challenge. The males lost their prerogatives in the secretarial field because the majority of the male secretaries refused to compete with the female and refused to learn to type. The women took possession of the secretarial field out of necessity and perseverance.

The traditional concept of secretaryship resolved around the male in the office. The modern concept resolves around the female, who often does a more efficient job than the male.

According to the Duties

The scribes did nothing more than copy and keep a few records. When shorthand was invented in 63 B.C., dictation was added to the duties of amanuensis, later called the secretary. Until 1881, the secretary took shorthand almost as fast as a man could talk; but he transcribed in longhand at fifteen to twenty-five words per minute. Many duties have been added to the work of the secretary since the
nineteenth century, and the concept of secretaryship has appreciably changed.

The traditional concept of secretaryship was the secretary who could write shorthand and transcribe in longhand. The modern concept of secretaryship is the secretary who is able to take dictation in shorthand and transcribe on the typewriter and who is able to perform all the lesser tasks in the office, such as operating the office machines and answering the telephone, when it becomes necessary. Also, she assists the executive in much of his confidential work and gives him more time to concentrate on executive problems while she runs the office.

According to the Education of the Secretary

The education of the early scribes was usually limited to the ability to read and write. The amanuensis added the ability to write shorthand in the middle of the first century B.C. The first office workers in the fourth century may have had above-average intelligence, but very few of them had much formal education. They could read and write; they could take dictation and transcribe; they knew how to speak their native language and could write acceptable letters. Today's secretary must have at least a high school diploma before she will be considered as an applicant for secretarial work.

Traditionally, very few secretaries finished high school; and businessmen had to accept the secretaries that were available. The available secretaries usually had the ability to take shorthand and transcribe in longhand. A knowledge and command of the language was also expected.
The modern concept of secretaryship is one who is educated at least to the point of possessing a high school diploma. Often, one or two years of study above high school is demanded. Some executives prefer that an applicant for a secretarial position have even more formal training, perhaps a senior college degree for the highest positions. According to the National Secretaries Association (International), secretaries have an average of thirteen years of formal education.

According to Office and Social Prestige

Traditionally, the secretary held the highest position in the office and had more prestige than the other office personnel. The modern concept of secretaryship remains the same. The secretary from the fourth century has enjoyed the confidence of the employer (or master) and has represented him to the public and to other members of the firm.

The early scribe had only a slave-master relationship with the master and could not hope to attain the master's social acceptance. Among the other slaves, however, his prestige was high; because of his intelligence and his value to the master, he was an above-the-average slave and very early began to supervise the activities of other office workers.

The secretary of the Middle Ages was likely to have more social prestige than the employer if the employer happened to be a merchant. Many young men who made a career in the secretarial field desired a position with a king or nobleman so that their social prestige could be raised. In any case, the secretary was normally accepted as a peer of his employer.
The modern business office offers the secretary the opportunity to meet all types of people; the secretary is free to select those with whom she wishes to associate socially. The social life of today's secretary is normally a thing apart from her work if she desires it to be.

According to Opportunities for Promotion

Traditionally, the opportunities of the male secretary were almost nil. The male could hope to get an increase in salary occasionally; or, if he happened to be above the average both in intelligence and ambition, perhaps he might gain a preferred place with his employer. Seldom could he expect to reach the height of an executive.

The modern concept of secretaryship is quite different. There are definite positions to which a secretary may rise within the confines of the office—from a secretary in the outer office to an executive assistant in one of the offices of top management. From the position of a secretary, if one has the ambition and is well grounded in the educational and personal qualifications that are demanded of the position, the opportunities are almost boundless. The male usually is promoted to an executive position, possibly within his own company; and he may reach as high as his abilities will take him, even to the presidency of his own or some other company.

The female may be content with her position of executive secretary or administrative assistant, or she may become a minor executive in her own company. From this latter position, she may rise as far as her abilities and ambitions can carry her. Or perhaps she may go into another field of work—with more prestige and a larger salary—which
she could never have entered had she not spent a few years in the secretarial field (6).

Traditionally, the secretary was bound as to how high he might rise in business, both in salary and prestige. The concept of secretarship today recognizes few limits. The modern secretary, literally, may use the position to anywhere one wishes to go in the business world (5, 6).
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER V

A COMPREHENSIVE CONCEPT OF SECRETARYSHIP

Certain basic concepts of secretaryship are presented as guidelines by which industry, business, and professional schools might come to a common understanding and each serve the other more effectively.

I. The increased demands in many and varied phases of office work placed upon secretaries make it necessary that the concept of secretaryship be conceived as a comprehensive position in which a total grasp of all office responsibilities, competencies, and procedures is achieved by the secretary.

The first requirement of a novice secretary is a knowledge of certain basic competencies, usually thought of as shorthand and typing but, in reality, including such other competencies as filing, a working knowledge of the simple office machines (voice-writing equipment, adding machines, and duplicating equipment), and telephone usage. Before the position of secretary is attained, each beginner, regardless of the excellence of her competencies learned in an educational institution, is required to go through a period of on-the-job instruction as a stenographer or as some subordinate employee in the office. The period of instruction includes the learning of office procedures, the special vocabulary of the company, and company policy as well as the enhancement of the competencies she has already acquired in school. As the beginner learns, she is promoted to a higher position within the office.
with the appropriate increase of responsibilities and the appropriate increase in salary. If the competencies are good enough when the beginner enters the office, she may be assigned the title of stenographer and within six months or a year be promoted to the position of secretary. With less education and less competent abilities in shorthand and typing, she may first be assigned to the position of receptionist, be promoted to the position of clerk after a few months, later be promoted to the position of senior stenographer, and after four or five years of experience attain the position of secretary.

II. The increased demands placed upon secretaries to assist subordinate personnel in the business office make it necessary that the concept of secretarialship be conceived as a position of leadership and instruction.

It is normally the task of the experienced secretary to teach the other office personnel the intricacies of the work. It is a continuous task because there are usually subordinate office employees, and the secretary is held responsible for all the work done in the office. It is the secretary's duty to check everything done in the office for accuracy. The secretary must see that all work is completed on time, for there is normally a time limit that must be met if the office is to function properly. As the secretary checks the work of each person in the office, she is in the process of teaching the subordinate office personnel how to perform the tasks assigned, for she must explain why each error was made and what must be done to correct it.
The secretary also plans the work for the office. She must know the capabilities of each person and assign tasks accordingly. As one of the novices in the office becomes proficient in one thing, the duty of the secretary is to assign other and slightly more difficult tasks so that the educational process can progress. She must explain new tasks thoroughly and clearly. In order to make the educational process in the office more effective, the secretary must be well versed in the basic competencies. Some of the competencies she learned in an educational institution before she began to work in an office, but years of experience help to heighten her abilities and comprehensions. The secretary is ever in the process of learning as well as teaching.

III. The increased demands placed upon secretaries to act as office hostesses in meeting the public and representing the executive make it necessary that the concept of secretaryship be conceived as a position demanding competency in public relations.

The secretary represents the executive in several ways. First, she acts as office hostess in her own office, which is normally located just outside the door of the executive. Secondly, she normally answers the telephone and often makes telephone calls, both local and long distance, for the executive. Thirdly, she may assist in the entertaining of company guests. Fourthly, she may represent the executive at meetings and conferences.

The visitor to the business office sees the secretary before he goes into the inner office with the executive. If the visitor is unknown to the secretary, he is asked his name, the name of his company, and
the nature of his business with the executive. The secretary then
either ushers him into the executive's office or she perhaps handles his
problem, if for some reason the executive does not wish to be disturbed.
Such handling of office visitors demands tact and diplomacy on the part
of the secretary, especially if one is denied entrance to the executive's
office. Such handling of visitors also demands a pleasant office atmos-
phere. The secretary should be appropriately dressed for the part of
office hostess; her conversation should be dignified, cheerful, and
helpful; and the office should be neat and comfortable with chairs, cur-
rent newspapers and magazines, and ash trays available for those who
must spend minutes, sometimes longer, waiting to see the executive.

The correct use of the telephone is quite important in the office.
In many offices, there is no one to attend the telephone except the
secretary, who must receive and pass upon all calls from the outside
and from the offices inside the company; the secretary also attends to
many outgoing calls. In speaking over the telephone, the secretary
should endeavor to enunciate distinctly and clearly; and she should
strive for a pleasant tone. When she has ascertained who is speaking
and what the speaker wishes, her judgment should be swift and sure.
If she considers that the caller should be allowed to speak with the
executive, she should transfer the call immediately. If she thinks that
she can handle the problem without disturbing the executive, she imme-
diately gives the information needed. If the executive does not wish to
be disturbed, she may courteously inform the caller that the executive
is not available but offer to transmit a message. Notes should be made of the latter two types of telephone calls to be given to the executive.

In making outgoing calls, the secretary should, if possible, first get on the wire the actual person with whom the executive wishes to speak before she connects the call with her employer's telephone. She should have on her desk a convenient list of those numbers that are frequently called in order to save time in looking them up in the telephone directory. When making reports over the telephone for the executive, she should be sure that she has notes on all the information she wants to give and any questions she may want to ask so that nothing will be forgotten and another telephone call will not have to be made.

It is often a part of the secretary's duties to assist in entertaining company guests. Such guests may be suppliers, customers, visiting executives from other companies, out-of-town executives from one's own company, or local groups or individuals who have an interest in the company. In each case, the secretary should be informed as to her company policies and as to the particular duties she may personally perform. She usually makes all the arrangements for the entertainment—obtains reservations, decides menus, buys tickets, chooses and buys decorations, etc.—and often she may act, or assist the executive in acting, as the company hostess.

When representing the executive at a conference or a convention, the secretary should be informed as to the duties she is expected to perform and the authority she has in carrying out those duties. The beginning secretary is often taken to some of the company conferences
with the executive as a part of her on-the-job instruction, and her principal or only duty may be to take notes of the proceedings as she learns something about company policies and procedures; seldom does she have any authority to make any comment unless she has been instructed to do so by the executive. As the secretary gets more experience and maturity in the position and the executive shows his confidence in her work and in her judgment by promoting her to a higher position, such as executive or administrative secretary, she is normally given the authority to make some administrative decisions. Even the administrative secretary, however, must always discuss company issues with the executive and know what he thinks about a particular situation before she is permitted to make an important decision on her own initiative. Such an administrative secretary may make it a practice to go to many company conferences alone to represent the executive if he is busy with some phase of work and does not wish to go.

IV. The increased demands of a multiplicity of duties placed upon secretaries make it necessary that the concept of secretaryship be conceived as a position requiring a broad range of functions and roles, including a knowledge of the duties of the lesser employees in the office as well as the confidential problems of the employer.

The secretary may, first, be conceived of as an expert typist. Not only must she possess a speed of 70 to 80 words per minute on straight copy on the typewriter, but she must know how to place material on the typewritten page attractively and correctly so that the executive will lose no time in reading his letters and business documents. She
must know how to set up complex multipage tables; she must know the forms in which to write acceptable reports; she must be able to set up material for pamphlets and brochures for educational and advertising purposes; she must be able to type whatever is demanded to be typed in the office, quickly and accurately.

The secretary must be an able stenographer with a minimum speed of 80 words per minute (usually more), and she must possess the ability to transcribe her notes fast and accurately on the typewriter. To perform this task efficiently, she must be familiar with the vocabulary used by the executive, familiar with company terms, and familiar with the field in which she works. She must be able to write those terms in shorthand fast and efficiently as well as to spell them correctly when she transcribes her notes. She must be able to write verbatim shorthand notes of the minutes of a business conference composed of two or three or a large group of executives.

The secretary must often do the duties of the file clerk. She must know how to file her business papers so that they can be found speedily and easily when they are needed. Sometimes, it becomes necessary for her to set up a new filing system for the office; and normally the files have to be expanded from time to time. Also, the files have to be brought up to date occasionally; and it is the secretary who usually decides which business papers to keep in the current files and which papers to keep in the confidential files, as well as those that should be put away in the dead files. She is responsible, always, for
her own confidential files; and often she is file clerk for the entire
department.

The secretary may be conceived as a clerk who knows the nature
of all the working papers and documents in the office. She must be able
to fill in business forms, such as contracts and deeds; and she must be
able to write such papers in an acceptable form if the legal blanks are
not used. She must be familiar with all the records of the office, and
she must be able to process them through legal channels when it
becomes necessary to do so.

The secretary, the administrative secretary in particular, often
takes the role of confidential assistant to the executive. She discusses
the confidential problems of the company with the executive, writes his
confidential letters and documents, and files them in her confidential
files. She gives opinions when asked and sometimes assists in making
company decisions. She often acts in the executive's place when he is
absent from the office. For this role, she must know the executive's
thoughts on many particular situations before she can act with confi-
dence.

The secretary has a well-established position in the office, and
it is doubtful that business could function effectively without some
capable person to fill the position of secretary. Instead of decreasing
in importance in the modern business office, the concept of secretary-
ship seems to be gaining in significance with the number of duties
constantly being added to the position.
V. The varied demands placed upon secretaries within diverse types of business offices make it necessary that that position be conceived equally available to both men and women.

Although many male secretaries have left the secretarial field to go into positions most suited to their desires and capabilities, the secretarial position has never been closed to men. Many executives prefer male secretaries, and many secretarial positions are not attractive to women. Secretarial positions for men, while perhaps not so numerous as those for women, are in some cases even more important, as they are frequently chosen because they lead to higher and more lucrative appointments.

Many government officials probably prefer to employ men instead of women as confidential assistants because they consider men better suited and more adaptable to the needs of the government office. It is not uncommon that such a male secretary have a college degree, and it is not uncommon that such a secretary be given many of the responsibilities of the executive. Since much of the work of some government offices is done in the evenings or outside the office, some government executives believe that the work is not suited to women and so hire male secretaries. Officials in the diplomatic service normally choose men of culture and education as secretaries. Although many women possess these qualities of culture and education, men are normally chosen.

Many corporation executives prefer male secretaries. Men are quite often preferred, for example, in the transportation field, in the oil
and rubber industries, and in firms manufacturing heavy machinery and equipment. Men are believed by many executives to be less temperamental and emotional than women in their reactions to many problems met in the office. Often, the secretary is expected to travel with the executive, and the male secretary makes a more acceptable traveling companion than does the female. Sometimes, the secretary has to work outside the office; and the male is normally more willing to do so and he is often more capable of doing field work.

The woman normally chooses secretarial work because she is suited by ability and temperament to do the work in many offices and often makes the secretarial position a lifetime career. Many executives prefer women to work for them. Secretarial work has been for women their opening wedge into the business world.

The secretarial position is available to both men and women, and there are enough different types of positions in the field to attract a diversified group of abilities, capabilities, and personalities. Some of the secretarial positions may be accepted as careers within themselves; women, especially, choose the secretarial field as a career. Other secretarial positions may be used to gain the experience for a position in another field or for an executive within one's own company. Both men and women often enter the secretarial field in order to gain experience for another, often a higher, position. Men use the secretarial desk as a training position for another post more often than do women.

VI. The impact of automation upon the office has made it necessary that the concept of secretaryship be conceived as a position of
liaison between continued office efficiency and new methods of office procedures and processes.

Since the first scribes came into existence to perform office chores, there have been four significant inventions directing the secretarial milieu and causing many distinct changes in the concept of secretaryship. The first of these inventions was shorthand in 63 B.C. The use of a shorter method of taking notes saved work for both the scribe and the master, and more work could be accomplished in a shorter space of time with its use. Many speeches, records of meetings and conferences, and accounts of significant historical events were probably saved for posterity that would have been lost if the shorthand method of taking notes had not been invented. Shorthand became so necessary for the scribes and amanuenses to know that men of the middle and upper classes learned shorthand principles in order to gain positions with kings and lords in the Middle Ages and thus further their social and political aspirations. Until the invention of shorthand, the scribe was usually a slave or a freedman; but by the fourth or fifth century, the work of the scribe had had so many duties added to his original work that the secretary had come into existence. The position of the secretary, along with the added responsibilities and the social position of many of the incumbents, had gained an aura of respectability and was no longer thought of only as work for a valuable slave or, possibly, for a freedman.

The second invention that gave entirely new dimensions to the concept of secretaryship was the typewriter in 1867. When it was
discovered in the business world that one could transcribe his notes four or five times as fast on the typewriter as he could in longhand and that the typewritten letter was always legible, the typewriter became standard equipment in the office. Business was rapidly expanding during this period, and women seized the opportunity to enter the secretarial field when it seemed that the males were overlooking the significance of the typewriter and rejecting its potentialities in the office. With the introduction of the typewriter and the influx of females into the business world, the executive could leave his routine office chores to the secretary and spend more time solving his own problems and expanding his business. The female, since she felt her role in the office to be rather tentative and insecure, in many cases voluntarily added several chores to her office routine that the male had never done—nor had he even thought about them. For example, she added the housekeeping chores of keeping the office clean and comfortable and making it an attractive place in which to work and to receive guests. She learned to operate the new machines, voluntarily and without question, such as the battery-driven voice-writing equipment that entered the office in the wake of the typewriter. Many males left the secretarial field because they refused to compete with the female; they did not want to learn to operate the typewriter, and the other new machines (the voice-writing equipment, for example) they rejected.

The invention of the typewriter was the second invasion of the secretarial field, and the third invasion was other machines that mechanized the field. Many machines—the autotypewriter, accounting
machines, adding machines and calculators, and others--had come into the office; and many forward-looking businessmen were thinking about automation.

The fourth step was automation. The invention of the typewriter and other office machines marked the beginning of mechanization of the office, but mechanization was only the forerunner of automation of the business office. Since the latter 1940's, automation has had a terrific impact on the office, both in the number of data processing machines used in most offices and in the changes of titles and job specifications of office personnel. Data processing machines that do new types of work and tend to automate office work still further are being introduced periodically; and old electronic machines are being constantly revised and improved. It has been believed by some people that machines will eventually displace most of the existent office personnel and that the business office will eventually be operated by a group of machines maintained by a corps of engineers and mechanics and a skeletal staff of machine operators.

Electronic machines have, seemingly, assisted the secretarial position in the automated office because the secretary has been able to change the methods of doing office work and to take advantage of the assistance that the machines can give. For example, the secretary can make better and faster decisions in the office, because the decisions can be based on more and better information offered by the electronic machines. She can schedule office work more efficiently because she has the current results of work done in the immediate past and knows
just what to do to update policies and to take corrective action. More skills are required by everyone in the automated office; but many jobs of routine, repetitive work are eliminated, and the secretary is in the position to see that everyone in the office knows and understands his job.

The general concern with systems and with machines creates a need for new and better methods for doing one's work. Just as in 1881, when the female was looking for more efficient methods of performing her work in order to protect her newly won position in the office, today all secretaries are seeking more efficient methods of performing the work in order to protect the secretarial position against the further encroachment of automation. So far, the secretaries have met the challenge; and with the control of the electronic data processing machines, they have been able to make the machines work for them and to bring the office work to greater heights of efficiency than it has ever reached.

VII. The increased demands placed upon secretaries to make administrative decisions within the office make it necessary that the position be conceived as executive rather than clerical in nature.

When a woman enters the business office, her abilities in shorthand and typing are the competencies that gain her admittance to the first job, which is usually stenographic in nature. As a stenographer, she is in the process of learning office procedures and strengthening her office competencies and seldom does she come in contact with the executive; her immediate supervisor is normally an experienced secretary who teaches her to do the work efficiently and instructs her in the
various tasks required in the office. After she has spent her apprenticeship in subordinate positions in the office and is finally promoted to the secretarial position, she begins to work more closely with the executive; but, normally, she has to spend perhaps a year or more in such a position in order to learn how to work with the executive before she will know enough about his confidential work, about the way in which he thinks, and about his working habits before she can begin to be of maximum assistance as a secretary. During this period, she has no one but the executive and her own office experience and her native ability to guide her. The executive observes her work and instructs her to perform executive tasks as fast as she is able to learn and to add more duties to the position.

As the secretary works closely with the executive, she begins to learn from him the issues and problems of the business and the methods by which he reaches his decisions and solves his problems. Often, as a part of her secretarial duties, she is instructing others in the office and performing many minor office chores, such as writing letters, filing business papers, and assigning office tasks to others. Her principal duty, however, is handling the confidential work of the executive, making or assisting in making the office budget, making sure that the budget is properly allocated during the fiscal year, making sure that the entire office is functioning properly and smoothly, handling customer and supplier problems, and performing those tasks that will give the executive time to spend on the more immediate company problems. As
the executive works with his secretary and realizes that he can depend on her judgment, more duties are added to the secretarial position.

Periodically, the secretary's value to the company will be rewarded with an increase in salary and, at longer intervals, with a new title. As new titles are earned, however, the secretary can be assured of new responsibilities and more efficiency. When the title of executive or administrative secretary is reached, the secretary may know almost as much about the business as the executive does; and she does a great part of the executive's work. Her other work in the office becomes routine and secondary to her work with the executive.

VIII. The multiplicity of demands placed upon secretaries within the business office makes it necessary that the concept of secretaryship be conceived as a possible period of preparation for a promotion to a bona fide executive position.

Most men do not want to work more than a few years at a secretarial desk except as a preparation for a better position. After three or four years of working closely with an executive, the male secretary usually has learned enough about business methods and about coping with and solving business problems that he can get a position as a junior executive either within his own company or with another company. The principal complaint of the male secretary against the secretarial position is that it does not pay him a salary commensurate with the money he could earn in some other field of employment that is open to him. Consequently, he is not interested in the field as a woman.
normally is, except as the experience it provides him in the search of a permanent career.

Government and diplomatic secretarial positions provide the male secretary an excellent experiential and learning situation if he is interested in a state office, such as cabinet minister, ambassador to a foreign country, or special commissioner. Since such secretaries are often initially chosen because of their cultural and educational backgrounds, it takes only a few years for the ambitious young man to enhance those qualities to the degree that he finds the position either in government or diplomatic circles that he desires.

The man or woman who is interested in becoming an executive often finds the first position in the office as a typist or as a stenographer. The use of the stenographic competencies is usually the woman's entrance into the field of business, and many men get their start in business in the same way because they have in mind a destination to which their secretarial work serves merely as an approach. The typist's position may lead to a secretarial position as one learns and progresses from one job to another in the office; and the secretary is in a position to learn practically everything that goes on in business. All the correspondence relating to the secretary's particular department—and also much correspondence relating to other departments—passes through the hands of the secretary. The secretary sits in many business conferences and takes notes of the proceedings and thus learns to recognize and evaluate the work of the company. The secretary prepares reports that, in themselves, should constitute a liberal education in the
ways of the company and, to some extent, in the ways of business in general. As the secretary works closely with the executive, many confidential aspects of the company are revealed, and the secretary learns how to treat them. With such a knowledge of business and the experience in working with the issues and problems that arise daily in the business office, the secretary, whether man or woman, learns the executive's work and is ready to take an executive position when the opportunity is given.

If one is not interested in assuming the executive's risks and responsibilities, there are heights in the secretarial field that may be attained. The position of executive or administrative secretary is a protected position in which something of the executive's position, powers, and perquisites may be enjoyed while keeping the secretary free of many of the executive's cares and burdens. The woman may often prefer this latter position.
CHAPTER VI

INFERENCES AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Inferences

Certain inferences have been drawn from the study and are presented for consideration:

1. The concept of secretaryship does not signify the same thing to all businessmen and executives.

2. The concept of secretaryship does not signify the same thing to all business educators.

3. Educators and businessmen tend to engage in dialogue with regard to their mutual concerns without a clear articulation of the issues involved. Each tends to depend on the other for articulation while the significant problems are not often probed or verbalized.

4. The concept of secretaryship does not signify the same thing to all secretarial students. Secretarial students often take the secretarial course either in a commercial or a community college without gaining any clear concept of secretaryship.

5. The concept of secretaryship is constantly changing, and no one has seemed able to predict where or when such changes will end.

6. Many employees tend to spend unnecessary time in subordinate office positions prior to attaining the position of secretary. This would seem to be related to the fact that the concept of secretaryship is misunderstood by both educators and businessmen.
7. Many educators teach little more than the traditional stenographic competencies (80 to 100 words per minute in shorthand and 60 to 80 words per minute in typing) and seem to believe that these competencies alone will assure success for the students in the secretarial field.

8. A majority of the businessmen employ high school, commercial college, and community college graduates on the basis of their speed in shorthand and typing but neglect to ascertain the applicants' knowledge of the application of the shorthand and typing principles; hence, many businessmen are often disappointed when their new employees cannot do the work for which they are hired.

9. Certain personal qualities necessary for the student to succeed in the secretarial field cannot be taught in the classroom but must be developed by the student herself.

10. It is possible that a high school graduate who has concentrated in the high school business curriculum may find a position in an office immediately after graduation, but most executives prefer applicants with at least one year of preparation beyond high school. When the high school graduate is employed, she is normally assigned to a clerical or typing position. The junior college student is usually assigned to a similar position, but she normally spends less time in an inferior position than does the high school graduate. Also, the junior college student (even the student with one or two semesters of college study) normally gets the first position more easily than does the high school graduate.
11. The secretarial position is often used by both men and women as an experiential and learning situation for a higher position in the business world. Women more often make a career in the secretarial field than do men.

12. A knowledge of secretarial, or stenographic, competencies is often the woman's opening wedge into the business world. The majority of women in business usually achieve their greatest success in the secretarial field.

Recommendations

Certain recommendations have been drawn from this study and presented for consideration:

The first recommendation is related to Inferences 1-6:

1. It is recommended that the concept of secretaryship be under continuous modification conceptually to maintain a relevance between the demands made upon the position and the level of educational requirements necessary for entrance into the secretarial field of employment.

The two following recommendations are related to Inference 5:

2. It is recommended that studies of the concept of secretarialship be made known to the secretarial classroom through the media of lectures, bulletins, brochures, magazines, and newspapers, distributed to the high school and college teachers and thence to the students who are considering entrance to the business world via the secretarial route.

3. It is recommended that, in the last semester of study of the secretarial preparation in the community college, there be taught a course that will inform the secretarial student of the demands of the
local businessmen. The last semester is recommended so that the material would be current when the student enters the business office.

The fourth and fifth recommendations are related to Inference 6:

4. It is recommended that some of the background courses in liberal arts—psychology, economics, philosophy, history, government, and literature—be given some emphasis in the secretarial course so that the student may be given some experience in developing interpersonal skills in dealing with people and perhaps gain a broader knowledge of the vital role which she expects to fill in the economy of American business.

5. It is recommended that the secretarial student be encouraged to take a course in electronic data processing so that she can familiarize herself with the data processing equipment and thus preconceive some of the problems that she will meet in the business office.

Recommendation 6 is related to Inference 7:

6. It is recommended that some of the more practical applications—tables and tabulations, business forms, and miscellaneous compositions and manuscripts—be taught in the intermediate and advanced typing courses. Such an approach to the teaching of typing should be relevant to the demands made upon the secretarial position by local businessmen in particular and by businessmen in general.

Recommendation 7 is related to inference 8:

7. It is recommended that businessmen revise their personnel tests given to potential employees to include the applications of shorthand and typing principles as well as speed. Such applications should
include English principles (grammar, punctuation, and spelling; mechanics of typing, such as placement, parts of the letter, knowledge of and placement in the typing of numbers, when to use numbers as figures and when to write numbers as letters, how to fill in blanks, how to write letters, how to organize brochures, how to place tables and make displays, etc.). Speed on straight copy is not enough for the secretary to know and to perform.

Recommendations 8 and 9 are related to Inference 11:

8. It is recommended that the secretarial student be taught the several roles she has to perform--instructor of subordinate personnel, public relations agent for the executive, liaison between the executive and the business office, as well as the lesser roles of typist, clerk, receptionist, and stenographer--that a secretary must know and exploit if she is to be successful in the field of her choice.

9. It is recommended that the secretarial student be required to take a course in office management (or in executive secretaryship) in order that she may conceive the position of the secretary as executive in nature rather than clerical in nature.

Recommendation 10 is related to all the inferences:

10. It is recommended that all courses in the secretarial field be taught with the relevancy of the concept of secretaryship constantly in the background.
APPENDIX A

Letter Written to Executives

Dear Mr. --

As an oil company executive, you are aware of the value of a good secretary and the contribution she makes to the smooth-running efficiency of your office. At this time I am making a study of the secretarial chores as they are performed in the office of an oil company.

In connection with this study, may I have an interview with your secretary at a time that is convenient for both of you? The interview will require approximately an hour and a half. Perhaps the best time for such a meeting will be after office hours, or it may be that your secretary will prefer to see me in the office. Also, I should appreciate the opportunity to talk with you for about thirty minutes. The interviews do not have to be on the same day. I can arrange to come at the convenience of each of you.

The data I need are not of a confidential nature. The responses I get will become a part of other data collected to be used in the study. It is hoped that out of this study will come a better understanding of the requirements of the oil industry and that such data can help educators to be of greater service in preparing secretaries particularly for oil companies.

I shall telephone your office for your decision regarding the interviews within the next few days.

I am on the faculty of the Business Department at Odessa College. If you would like further information, you may reach me at my home telephone, 332-4833, any time after 4:00 in the afternoon.

Sincerely
APPENDIX B

Employer's interview Guide

Title of employer:

1. In what ways do you expect your secretary to act as your representative? Check.

   Entertaining company guests (representatives of customer firms, suppliers, etc.)

     ____________

   Representing you at meetings and conferences

     ____________

   Others _____________________________________________

How often does she act in this capacity? Check.

   Regularly

     ____________

   Only when you are out of town

     ____________

   Only in emergencies

     ____________

How much authority to make decisions for the company does she have while acting in this capacity? None

   Very little ______  Quite a bit ______  Almost unlimited ______

2. Are there times that you give your secretary assignments that you ordinarily perform? Yes _____ No _____

What is the nature of these assignments? Check.

   Quoting prices

     ____________

   Signing purchase orders

     ____________

   Arranging for office repairs

     ____________

   Signing checks

     ____________

   Others _____________________________________________

How often does she perform such duties? Check.

   Regularly

     ____________

   Only when you are out of town

     ____________

   Only in emergencies

     ____________

Would you like to be able to give your secretary more such assignments? Yes _____ No _____
If so, why don't you? Check.

- She is too immature
- She is too inexperienced
- She is incapable
- Such assignments are not secretarial duties
- Others

Are you doing anything to train your secretary in administrative duties? Yes _____ No _____

Is your secretary well aware of the limits of her authority along these lines? Yes _____ No _____

3. Approximately how much of your secretary's knowledge of the company is considered to be strictly confidential? _____%

If your secretary were to fail to keep a confidence, what would you do? Check.

- Light reprimand
- Severe reprimand
- Demotion
- Dismissal

4. How much formal education do you think your secretary should have? Check.

- High school diploma
- Commercial college course
- 1 year of college
- 2 years of college
- Degree

What is the least amount that you would be willing to accept? ________________________________

What degree of skills do you demand that a secretary have before you consider her application? Check.

- Shorthand ______ wpm
- Typing ______ wpm
- Knowledge of business machines None _____ Fair _____
- Others ________________________________

Are there any special abilities required of your secretary? Check.

- Special terminology
- Special machine knowledge
Knowledge pertaining particularly to the oil industry
Others

Do you think the schools should be responsible for teaching these special abilities? Yes ____ No ____
If not, why not? Check.

The schools are not aware of the particular needs of the oil industry
These abilities are not difficult to teach, and the executive does not mind giving the teaching
The executive is better equipped to give the training

Do you have any suggestions as to how the junior college Business Department can help to educate secretaries particularly for the oil industry? Check.

By teaching oil-field terminology
By writing term papers and reports, for example, on oil-field topics
By setting up courses in the curriculum to fit the particular needs of the oil industry

Do you have any suggestions for a particular course that is needed? Yes ____ No ____
Please be specific

5. Do you require an applicant to have had experience before you will hire her? Yes ____ No ____ How much? Months ____ Years ____

What kind of experience do you prefer? Check.

A lower position with your own company
A lower position with another company
A similar position with another company
Others

6. How much training for the position are you willing to give a new secretary? Months ____ Year ____

What kind of training does your company give? Check.

Within the organization:

Are there any training programs available to secretaries within your organization? Yes ____ No ____
What kinds? Check.

Organized classes
A formalized reading program
Lectures
Conferences
Others

Outside the organization:

What encouragement is given the secretary to enroll in courses outside the organization? Check.

The firm pays all or a part of the tuition
The firm permits time off for participation in such programs
The firm works in conjunction with the local educational institutions in setting up special courses
Others

7. When there is a desirable opening for a high-level secretarial position in your firm, what is your policy? Check.

To promote from within the company
To hire someone from outside the company

Are the employees in your firm fully aware of this policy? Yes __ No __

8. Remarks:
APPENDIX C

Secretary's Interview Guide

Title of Secretary:

1. Formal education

What was the highest year of formal education that you completed? High school ___ Commercial college ___ Junior college ___ Other ____________________________

What courses did you take that have particularly helped you in this position? Shorthand ___ Typing ___ Business Machines ___ Business English ___ Business Correspondence ___ Filing ___ Office Practice ___ Voice Writing ___ Accounting ___ Others ____________________________

How much on-the-job training have you received in this position? None ___ Very little ___ Quite a bit ___ What kind was it? Formal classwork ___ Formalized reading program ___ Lectures ___ Expert supervision and teaching ___ Others ____________________________

Have you taken any evening courses since you began working for this company? Yes ___ No ___ If so, what school did you attend? ____________________________

What courses did you take? ____________________________

Have you had any other training for this job? Yes ___ No ___ If so, what kind(s)? ____________________________

2. Work experience

How long have you worked for this company? Months ___ Years ___ Have you had the same position ever since you started working for this company? Yes ___ No ___ If not, what was the title(s) of your other position(s)? ____________________________

Did you have any work experience previous to taking a position with this company? Yes ___ No ___ If so, what was your title? ____________________________

What were your principal duties? ____________________________

How long did you work for the other company (or companies)?
Months ___ Years ___

What were the factors that caused you to change jobs?
Better salary ____ More prestige ____ Improved working conditions ____ Others ____________________________

How did you get this position? Employment agency ____
A friend ____ Newspaper advertisement ____ School ____
Other ____________________________

3. Duties as a receptionist

Who makes the majority of the appointments? You ____
Your employer ____

Is it your duty to screen callers? Yes ____ No ____
Do you keep a record of all callers? Yes ____ No ____
What kind? A permanent register ____ File card ____
Tickler ____ Other ____________________________

Does your employer have any particular routine he wishes you to follow in handling appointments and callers?
Yes ____ No ____ If so, what is it? ____________________________

What types of decisions must you make in handling appointments and callers? When to admit a caller without an appointment ____
When to refuse an appointment ____ The type of reason to give for not admitting someone ____
Others ____________________________

4. Duties in handling telephone calls

Do you always take incoming calls? Yes ____ No ____ Most of the time ____
Do you screen each call? Yes ____ No ____
Who places a majority of the local calls? You ____ Your employer ____

Of what importance to your employer is your handling of calls?
For example, do you ever listen to his calls on an extension and make notes of the conversation? Regularly ____ Occasionally ____
Never ____ What are other ways in which you aid in making calls? ____________________________

5. Duties in handling the mail

Do you open all, or nearly all, the mail? Yes ____ No ____
Approximately what percentage ____% What factors determine whether you or your employer opens the mail? Personal ____
Special delivery ____ Registered ____ First-class ____
Others ____________________________
Do you read and edit the mail before putting it on your employer's desk? Yes ___ No ___

Do you reply to any of the correspondence? Yes ___ No ___
Do you sign your own name to such mail? Yes ___ No ___
What determines whether you or your employer will write the reply to a letter? ________________________________________________

How is the mail handled when the employer is out of town?

Have you had any training in letter writing? Yes ___ No ___
Business English ___ Business Correspondence ___
Others ______________________________________________________

6. Dictation-transcription duties

Do you take dictation in shorthand? ___ Speedwriting ___
Stenographic machine ___ Other ____________________________

How do you take the majority of your notes? Directly from your employer ___ From voice-writing equipment ___

What type of voice-writing equipment is used in your office? ___ Does your employer prefer that you take notes personally? Yes ___ No ___
What determines whether he dictates directly to you or to some type of voice-writing machine? Time element ___ Personal preference ___

What is your approximate speed in shorthand? ___ wpm Your typing speed ___ wpm Your transcription speed ___ wpm Do you feel that you could do your work just as efficiently with less speed in shorthand and typing? Yes ___ No ___ Do you feel that you need more speed in order to do your work efficiently? Yes ___ No ___ If so, what are you doing to increase your abilities? Taking evening courses ___ Study at home ___
Practicing with tapes or records ___
Others ______________________________________________________

Do you always take dictation verbatim? Yes ___ No ___
Does your employer sometimes give you the gist of what he wants and let you compose the letter? Regularly ___ Seldom ___
Never ___ How do you go about composing a letter? Make a rough draft on the typewriter ___ Make a shorthand copy before you type ___ Other ______________________________________________________

Do you ever take dictation from anyone else in the office? Regularly ___ Occasionally ___ Never ___ Do you take dictation over the telephone? Regularly ___ Occasionally ___
Never ___
Is it a part of your duties to take the minutes of meetings? 
Regularly _____ Occasionally _____ Never _____

7. Typing duties

Does a majority of the typing you do require organizing on your part? Yes _____ No _____ 
What kinds of jobs require such organizing? Outlines ____ Reports ____ Graphs and charts ____
Press releases ____ Speeches ____
Others __________________________

In what form do such things as reports come to you? Verbatim ____ Rough draft ____ Scattered notes ____ Others ____

Do you ever have to gather the materials for reports? 
Yes ____ No _____

How important is the typing of numbers in your position? Do you, for example, make daily or periodic reports that require the typing of many numbers? Yes ____ No _____
Others __________________________

Do you think the typing courses you studied in school adequate for your position? Yes ____ No ____ If not, why not? 
Not enough emphasis on the typing of numbers and symbols ____ Not enough practice in typing business forms ____ Not enough practice in typing legal forms ____ Others __________________________

How many semester courses of typing did you take in school? ____ Where did you take typing? High school ____ Commercial college ____ Junior college ____ Senior college ____
Other __________________________

8. Duties in keeping office financial records

Do you keep the records of your employer's travel expenses? 
Yes ____ No ____ Do you keep an account of any other moneys spent in the office? Yes ____ No ____ If so, what? __________

Do you have charge of a petty cash fund for other employees? 
Yes ____ No ____ How is this fund administered? __________ Does anyone else have access to the fund? Yes ____ No ____ Who? __________

Do you have anything to do with preparing the office payroll? 
Keep time records of employees ____ Keep payroll records ____ 
Write the checks ____ Distribute the checks ____
Others __________________________
Do you have any income tax duties in the office? Keep the income tax files _____ Keep records of all taxable income _____ Keep records of all tax deductions to which your employer may be entitled _____ Type and mail the prepared income tax return _____ Other _______

9. Duties relating to employer travel

Do you choose the hotel at which your employer stays on out-of-town trips and/or make his reservations? Yes _____ No _____ Do you make his transportation reservations and buy his tickets? Yes _____ No _____ Do you call or write to businessmen in other cities for appointments on his trip? Yes _____ No _____

Do you make an itinerary for him and pack his briefcase with the papers he will need? Yes _____ No _____

Do you act as office manager while he is gone? Yes _____ No _____ If not, who does? ________________________________

10. Duties related to filing

Is any specific filing system (or combination of filing systems) used in your office? Yes _____ No _____ If so, which one? _____ Did you have any part in choosing the filing system used in your office? Yes _____ No _____ How much of the actual filing is a part of your work? None _____ Very little _____ A majority of it _____ All of it _____

Do you use microfilmed files? Yes _____ No _____ Approximately what percentage? _____ % What determines which records are to be microfilmed? Physical space _____ Importance of the record _____ Use of the record _____ Other _____

Who has access to the files? You _____ Your employer _____ Others ________________________________

Who is responsible for the files? You _____ Your employer _____ Others ________________________________

Do you have a charge-out system? Yes _____ No _____

Did you have a filing course in school? Yes _____ No _____ If so, do you find that the course was adequate for your needs in this position? Yes _____ No _____ If not, do you think that such course would have helped you in this position? No _____ Very little _____ Very much _____
11. Types of business machines in the office

What kinds of typewriters do you use? Electric standard _____
Wide carriage _____ Special keyboard _____ Vari-Typer _____
Automatic _____ Others _______________________________________

Check the business machines you use and list the kinds; for example, if you check "calculator," the kind of calculator used may be rotary or 10-key.

Adding machine _____ Kind _______________________________________
Calculator _____ Kind _______________________________________
Accounting machine _____ Kind _______________________________________
Duplicating machine _____ Kind _______________________________________
Others _______________________________________________________

What kind(s) of copying machines do you use? _______________________

Did you ever use any of these machines before you began your present job? Yes _____ No _____ Would it have helped if you had? Yes _____ No _____

12. Importance of automation in the office

Please list the EDP machines used in this office ____________________________

Do you operate any of these machines in the performance of your duties? Yes _____ No _____ If so, how did you acquire the technical knowledge needed to operate them? At school _____

On the job _____ Other _____________________________________________

What knowledges do you need to have about your company in order to use these machines effectively? _____________________________________________

13. Administrative responsibilities of the secretary

Is your opinion or advice on business matters ever asked?
By your employer _____ By customers _____ By potential customers _____ By other office personnel _____ By others _______________________

Is this giving of advice definitely a part of your duties?
Yes _____ No _____

Do you have any part in planning the work of the office?
Yes _____ No _____ If so, what must be taken into consideration in such planning? Time element _____ Importance of the job _____ Others _______________________________________________________

What is your responsibility for planning when your employer is out of town? Follow the directions of the person left in charge of the office _____ Follow the employer's directions given before
he left town ____ Do your own independent planning ____
Others _______________________________________

How many field employees of the company are responsible to your office? ____ How does their work relate to yours? You keep their payroll records ____ You order supplies for them ____ You keep an account of the supplies they use ____
Others _______________________________________

Do you ever represent your employer at meetings, etc.? __ Regularly ___ Occasionally ___ In emergencies ___ Never ___
Do you need any special knowledges in your role as representative? Yes ____ No ____ Do you have any authority to make even minor company decisions in this role? Yes ____ No ____ Give an example _______________________________________

How much of your work is highly confidential? ____ % In how much of your work would an error in judgment on your part be of a serious nature for the business? ____%

Do you ever work overtime? __ Regularly ___ Occasionally ___ Never ___ If you do, how are you recompensed? Time off during office hours ____ Overtime at your regular salary ____ Time-and-a-half pay ____ Other ________________________________

14. Values of a secretarial background

In what areas of secretarial work do you think you are well qualified? Skills ____ General educational background ____
Personality ____ Knowledge of the company ____
Others _______________________________________

In what areas do you think you are poorly equipped to do the work? Skills ____ General educational background ____
Ability to organize ____ Lack of initiative ____ Dislike of responsibility ____ Others ________________________________

In what areas of work do you think it is most important that a secretary be well prepared? Skills ____ Initiative ____
Administrative ability ____ Knowledge of the company ____
Others _______________________________________

If you have had any experience with another company, of what value do you consider that experience? ____________________________
How does your work here compare with your work in the other company? _________________________________
How does it differ? _________________________________

Do you think that your work here could be handled efficiently by one who has been well educated in office skills and knowledges
but who has not had any experience? Yes ____ No ____
If not, what kind of experience would you recommend? A
minor position with this company ____ A similar position with
another company ____ Others ____________________________

What personal traits do you think are essential in this position?
An even disposition ____ Willingness to work ____ Co-operation
____ Tact ____ Objectivity ____ Accuracy ____ Follow-through
____ Resourcefulness ____ Memory ____ Initiative ____
Common sense and good judgment ____
Others ____________________________

What other traits do you think are desirable but perhaps not
quite so important as those just mentioned? ____________________________

15. Job satisfaction

Are there benefits other than salary that accrue to your position?
Yes ____ No ____ What are they? Bonuses ____ Time off
occasionally ____ The privilege of buying company stock ____
Legal advice ____ Life insurance ____ Health insurance ____
Others ____________________________

How often do you get a raise in salary? More or less periodically ____ At the employer's discretion ____ When it is
merited ____ Others ____________________________

Are you interested in acquiring a higher position in this company?
Yes ____ No ____ What type? ____________________________
Do you think you are ready for a promotion? Yes ____ No ____
If not, what are you doing to prepare yourself? ____________________________

From what do you derive the greatest satisfaction in your work?

What do you dislike most about this position? ____________________________

16. Remarks:
APPENDIX D

The analysis of the duties of secretaries reported by the employers of 350 experienced secretaries who applied to take a Certified Professional Secretaries' examination (Beamer, Hanna, and Popham, Effective Secretarial Practices, South-Western Publishing Company, Dallas, 1956):

1. Take dictation and transcribe
2. File (general and personal)
3. Read and sort mail
4. Place outgoing and receive and route incoming telephone calls
5. Make and keep records of appointments
6. Compose written communications on own initiative, or from oral instructions, or from longhand notes
7. Receive customers and meet public
8. Requisition supplies
9. Copy from employer's longhand notes
10. Make hotel reservations
11. Make transportation reservations
12. Operate adding or calculating machines
13. Organize and type reports from rough data
14. Gather materials for reports
15. Assist with preparation of written reports, etc.
16. Keep office or company financial records
17. Keep expense records of employer's travels
18. Type and index minutes
19. Type copy for publication
20. Do personal banking for employer
21. Keep employer's personal, financial, and other records
22. Mark articles to be clipped and maintain clipping files
23. Prepare payrolls and budgets
24. Act as intermediary for employer in organization
25. Prepare trip itineraries
26. Supervise clerical and stenographic employees
27. Do mimeographing and hectographing (Xerographing and photocopying)
28. Keep employer's checkbook
29. Take speeches as dictated
30. Act as office manager
31. Take notes at meetings
32. Take direct dictation at typewriter
33. Do personal shopping for employer
34. Help plan and organize office social affairs
35. Help employer make out income tax returns
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